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Editorial Note

We welcome you our valued readers, contributors, subscribers and supporters to Volume 4; issue Number 2 of the *Zambia Journal of Education* (ZAJE). The Editorial Board of ZAJE is very happy to publish this issue of the journal. It is very gratifying that you are associated with the journal by either being its reader, contributor or subscriber.

The journal is published bi-annually by the School of Education of the University of Zambia through its Editorial Board. Contributions of articles are invited from researchers, teacher educators, institutional managers, teachers, and other practitioners of education in Zambia, the sub-region and beyond.

The journal seeks to provide a forum to these education professionals for the dissemination of current views and ideas on education practices, policies and development, and research findings in Zambia. Contributions may discuss issues or present research findings in primary schools, secondary schools, tertiary level institutions and/or management and support sectors. Articles that address education issues in other countries, but show how these would be relevant to Zambia, will be considered on merit. It is the wish of the School of Education to contribute to the development of the Zambian education system and the country as a whole through this journal. Consequently, the Editorial Board urges academics in the School of Education and other educational professionals to engage in research that would answer a number of questions in Zambia's education system and use this journal to disseminate their results to the country and beyond. We wish to transform university scholarship into practice that helps the Zambian education system to strengthen and benefit its various target beneficiaries better.

The Editorial Board would like issues of ZAJE to include articles in four major thematic areas, namely; reports on researches conducted, including progress reports on on-going research, reports on academic or professional seminars, book reviews, and discussions on current issues in education.

The current issue has the first two articles focusing on *Special Education* issues, while the next two are on the topical issues of *Education for All* and *HIV and AIDS in education*. The fifth and sixth articles deal with issues of *religion and education in Zambia*, while the seventh and eighth articles are on mentorship of junior academic staff at UNZA and CBU and review of teacher education syllabuses in colleges of education, respectively. .

It is hoped that these articles will provoke further research and discussion on the discussed issues and other topics of national interest in education.

Acknowledgements

The Editorial Board extends sincere thanks to the Dean of the School of Education for the leadership and encouragement in the continued production of this journal. The experts in various disciplines who agreed to review the articles in the journal are acknowledged and thanked for their unbiased assessment of the subject content for accuracy and acceptability of the articles. The Board also sincerely thanks the printers for the good partnership exhibited and for the excellent work done in producing this issue of the journal. Finally, the Board is grateful to the management and senior academics of the University of Zambia for promoting scholarship among teaching and research staff in the university.

ZAJE

Volume 4 Number 2, 2015

A Comparative Study of Deaf and Blind Pupils' Access to Primary School Education in Urban and Rural Areas of Zambia.....1

Daniel Ndhlovu and Thomas Mtonga

Contribution of the Free Education Policy to Pupils with hearing and visual impairments' access to Primary School Education in Zambia.....

Daniel Ndhlovu, Thomas Mtonga, and Janet Serenje-Chipindi

Education for All: 50 Years after Zambia's Independence.....

Peggy Mwanza and Henry J. Msango

HIV and AIDS Workplace Policy: An Implementation Assessment of Strategies in Selected Secondary Schools of Lusaka and Northern Provinces.....

Mwansa Mukalula-Kalumbi

Religious Education in Zambia: Towards religious literacy, religious pluralism and liberalism.....

Gilbert Kamanga and Melvin Simuchimba

The Contribution of the Holy Cross Sisters to the Educational Empowerment of Women in the Western Province of Zambia.....

Judith L. Ilubala-Ziwa and Austin M. Cheyeka

Mentorship of Novice Lecturers at the University of Zambia and the Copperbelt University....

Madalitso Khulupirika Banja, Daniel Ndhlovu, Peter Mulendema

Teacher Training Syllabus Review Process.....

C.P. Chishimba

A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF DEAF AND BLIND PUPILS' ACCESS TO PRIMARY SCHOOL EDUCATION IN URBAN AND RURAL AREAS OF ZAMBIA

Daniel Ndhlovu and Thomas Mtonga

Photo

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Abstract

The article compares pupils with hearing and visual impairments' access to primary school education in urban and rural areas of Zambia. Data were collected from 408 respondents in fifteen primary schools. The study revealed that more children with hearing and visual impairments in rural areas entered grade one between 2006 and 2012 than their counterparts in urban areas. However, more pupils in urban schools progressed to grade seven than their counterparts in rural areas. This situation implies that more pupils dropped out of school in rural areas than their counterparts in urban areas. As regards gender, 44% of the female pupils in rural areas dropped out of school compared to 21% of their counterparts in urban areas. Long distance to schools, failure by parents or guardians to pay fees demanded by schools, negative attitude of parents and children towards school, poor academic performance and early marriages contributed to the high dropout rate.

Introduction and Background to the study

Pupils with hearing and visual impairment may also be referred to as being deaf and blind. The literal meaning of being deaf is complete inability to hear sound. Such pupils rely on sign language for communication. While being blind implies complete loss of sight. When a person has residue sight, it implies that he or she has partial sight. For the purpose of this study the words 'deaf and blind' have been used synonymously with hearing and visual impairments to refer to a situation of complete loss of hearing or sight and partial hearing or sight. The word 'urban' has been used to denote towns in provincial centres while 'rural' to refer to towns outside provincial centres. As regards education, pupils with hearing and visual impairments have the right to basic education (Education Act of 2011:14.1b). Additionally, Disability Act (2012:22.2a) states in part that "*persons with disabilities should not be discriminated from the general education on the basis of their disability*". Similarly, the United Nations and the Convention on Rights of Children (1989), Chondoka *et al.* (2012) and Education for All Conference (1990) describe education as a human right. This implies that all children in the world must have access to basic or primary school education. In other words, conventional education is a key to all forms of success. For instance, education has the power to transform an individual into an industrialist, great leader, bread winner, an analyst and self-reliant. Despite the value and importance of education to all pupils including those with disabilities, studies on access to primary school education seem to omit pupils with disabilities including those with hearing and visual impairments (Ndhlovu and Mtonga, 2013). It is against this background that the researchers appreciate that research brings out statistics that may work as a basis for funding and support. But when pupils with hearing and visual impairments are omitted from studies, it raises concern as to which group between urban and rural areas access education more than the other and whether there were similarities between factors that affect access to primary school education in rural and urban schools in Zambia? In order to seek answers for these questions, a study of this nature became necessary.

Statement of the problem

A study by Ndhlovu and Mtonga (2013) on impact of free primary education on pupils' access to primary education found that despite mixed views, Free Education Policy on primary education (grades 1-7) had made significant impact on pupils with hearing and visual impairments' access to education in primary schools in Zambia. Notable areas cited included: reduced absenteeism, increased gross intake levels, increased grade seven completion rates and improved academic performance. Based on these findings, the following questions were stimulated which group between urban and rural areas accessed education more than the other and established factors that affected access to primary school education in rural and urban schools in Zambia? A study of this nature was therefore, necessary to provide answers to these questions.

Purpose of the study

The study sought to compare pupils with hearing and visual impairments' access to primary school education between rural and urban areas in Zambia and determine which one between the two groups accessed education more than the other. In addition, establish factors that affected access to primary school education in rural and urban schools in Zambia.

Objectives of the study

The study objectives were to:

1. identify factors that affect access to primary school education in rural and urban areas.
2. determine similarities of factors that affect access to primary school education in rural and urban areas.
3. establish whether more pupils with hearing and visual impairments in urban primary areas access education than their counterparts in rural areas.

Literature Review

This section explores literature on access to education among pupils with hearing and visual impairments. It further provides a comparative understanding about which group of pupils between those in urban and rural areas access education more than the other.

Mwanakatwe (1974) reported that from the colonial days, there was more concentration on providing better social and educational services in urban than rural regions. At that time, this approach was acceptable because the rural geographical regions of Zambia (Northern Rhodesia at that time) were difficult to reach due lack of proper road infrastructure. Additionally, the British settlers sought to provide better social services for themselves in urban areas than Africans. After independence, there was however, a realisation of the educational disparities between educational provision in rural and urban areas. To this effect, Beyani (2012) stated that the government of Zambia laboured to increase and expand on infrastructure and enrolment levels in rural schools.

A study conducted by the Zambia Open Community Schools (ZOCS) (2012) revealed that about 56% of basic schools still charge user fees which they have given different names. The study also revealed that about 67% of the drop-out pupils attributed their inability to continue with

school to user fees charged by schools. Another study by ZOCS (2012) indicated that there were higher numbers of girl pupils at lower primary schools (grades 1-4). However, the numbers of girl pupils reduced as they got to upper primary (grades 5-7) and secondary school (grades 8-12).

UNICEF (1999) reported that there were fewer pupils in rural areas who went up to grade seven and consequently qualified to high schools. Similarly, Ministry of Education (2003) observed that there were huge disparities between the provision of education in rural and urban areas. The Ministry of Education (2004) also presented that 10% of female pupils dropped out of school before they reached grade seven in rural areas while only 1% of girls dropped out of school in urban areas. Surprisingly, all these studies did not include pupils with disabilities prompting the researchers to wonder whether these disparities between rural and urban schools in terms of access to education existed among pupils with disabilities particularly those with hearing and visual impairments.

Ministry of Education (1996) indicated that the Zambian education system was basically divided into four blocks: early childhood education, basic education (now primary education), high school education and tertiary education. Each of these blocks has factors affecting access to education between rural and urban areas. As regards to factors affecting access to early childhood education, Chompolola (2012) reported that only 17% of grade one entrants every year in Zambia had received some preschool education. Of those children who had early childhood education, 82% were in urban area and only 18% were in rural areas. This creates a distinct disparity between urban and rural areas in terms of access to education by children. In terms of performance, UNESCO (2010) found that throughout the world, children who received early education were 70% more advantaged than those who did not receive any. Despite the importance of early childhood education, Zambia Federation of Disability Organisations (2010) reports that there were literally no schools providing early childhood education for children with disabilities including those with hearing and visual impairments in Zambia.

As regards enrolment in basic schools, UNICEF (2009) reported that enrolments of children with special educational needs in Zambia had increased due to governments strategies to promote access to education. Similarly, Ministry of Education (2010) reported that the number of learners with disabilities that accessed basic education had increased. But the challenge of appropriate facilities and infrastructure continued to negatively affect access to basic education. It implies that despite the increasing enrolments, the progression of the learners was not assured due to lack of sufficient resources and infrastructure for the vulnerable children including those with disabilities.

UNESCO (2009) found that due to the disparity in terms of access to education between rural and urban areas, literacy levels among many rural regions were low. Factors that attributed to lower access to education by rural children included failure by most parents to raise funds to pay

for their children's education, long distance to school and high poverty levels among people in rural areas. Early marriages was also cited to be more rampant in rural than urban areas.

As regards whether there were similarities of factors that affected access to primary school education between children in rural areas and their counterparts in urban areas literature shows both similarities and differences exist. Ministry of Education (2010) reports that the increase in enrolment figures of pupils both in urban and rural areas were attributed to free basic education policy from grade 1-7 introduced in 2002, the re-entry policy introduced in 1997 to mandate schools to allow girls back into the school system who previously left school due to pregnancy and the bursary support to school leavers including orphans and vulnerable children introduced to promote access of education by children. The increase in the number of community schools also offered opportunities for more children to remain in school. Apart from similarities, there were also differences in the factors that affected access to primary education. A study by Kalabula (1994) reported that there were 31 residential schools for learners with disabilities in Zambia. These were inadequate and extensively scattered across the country. As a result, most pupils in rural areas had to travel long distances to access education. However, to date, it is not clear whether children with disabilities in rural areas equitably receive education compared to their counterparts in urban areas. Ndhlovu and Mtonga (2013) also found that distance, failure to pay for school fees, negative attitude of parents and children towards school affected access to education in Zambia. Similarly, a study conducted in India by UNESCO (1998) reports that although there was a general push for all children to access school, for those in rural areas, access to education was negatively affected due to distance and poverty levels. People in rural areas concentrated on earning and sustaining their physiological needs before turning to education. Mtonga and Simui (2012) also reported that literacy levels among guardians to children in rural areas contributed greatly to low access to education by their children. In addition, they observed that parents played a vital role in providing psychological encouragement to children to go to school. The situation was different in urban areas where the environment was so conducive that every child was influenced to go school.

Methodology

Since the study sought to compare pupils access to primary school education between rural and urban schools, a correlation study design was used. In addition, both qualitative and quantitative methods were used. Focus group discussions were conducted to yield qualitative data while quantitative methodology made use of questionnaires. Four hundred and eight (408) respondents participated in the study. These included: 15 head teachers, 67 teachers, 186 pupils (107 with hearing and 97 with visual impairments) and 140 parents. Gender of participants was also taken into consideration. See table 1 for the distribution of the sample by province and school.

Table 1: Distribution of sample by provinces and schools (N=408)

#	Province	School	Head teachers	Teachers	Pupils	Parents	Total
1	Lusaka	Desai (HI)	1	4	20	7	32
		Lusaka Girls (HI)	1	3	10	7	21
		UTH Special (HI)	1	5	7	10	23
2	Central	Lukanda Basic (HI)	1	5	10	10	26
		Broadway basic (HI)	1	5	10	10	26
3	Copperbelt	Ndola Lions (VI)	1	5	20	10	36
		Mano Basic (HI)	1	5	10	20	36
4	Southern	St Mulumba (VI)	1	4	19	10	34
		Holy Cross (VI)	1	5	10	10	26
		Mazabuka Basic (VI)	1	4	10	10	25
5	NorthWestern	Solwezi Basic (HI)	1	5	20	10	36
		Kanyihampa (HI)	1	4	10	7	22
		Kyamwina (HI)	1	3	10	4	18
6	Eastern	Magwero (HI)	1	5	10	5	21
7	Western	Sefula Basic (VI)	1	5	10	10	26
	Total		15	67	186	140	408

Legend: HI =hearing impairment while VI = Visual impairment

In order to provide each pupil and teacher in the population an equal chance to be selected and included in the study sample, simple random sampling procedure was used. Purposive sampling technique was used to select head teachers and parents of the children with hearing and visual impairments. This procedure enabled the researchers to select only head teachers and parents of children in the study sample. The quantitative data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to obtain frequencies and percentages. Thematic analysis was used to analyse qualitative data. Regarding issues of ethical nature, consideration was made to keep the names of respondents anonymous. Consent was also obtained from the respondents before allowing them to participate in the study.

Findings and Discussion

Participants were asked to identify factors that affected access to primary school education in rural and urban areas. It was found that several factors existed. These are shown in table 4.

Table 4: Factors that Affected Access to Primary School Education in Rural and Urban Areas.

Variables used	Urban schools	Rural schools
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Gross intake	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • negative attitudes of parents and children • in adequate classroom space 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • negative attitudes of parents and children • long distance to school
Progression	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pregnancies • Street vending • Child guide to parents • Poor academic performance • Too big to learn together with young ones • Lack of sponsors 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Long distance to school • Poor academic performance • Failure to pay fees • Early marriages • Lack of sponsors • Too big to learn together with young ones

The fees charged by schools included those for civilian days, open days, stationery for tests, cobra, brooms and sugar. Similar findings on factors that affected access to primary school education were reported by Mwanakatwe (1974) who reported that there was inadequate infrastructure in rural areas compared to urban areas. UNESCO (2009) reported that failure by parents to raise funds to pay for their children in school, early marriages, long distance and high poverty levels among people in rural areas were among the factors that affected access to education in primary schools while ZAFOD (2010) also reported on lack of schools providing early childhood education. ZOCS (2012) also reported that 56% of basic schools in Zambia charged user fees under different names causing 67% of pupils to drop out of school in rural and urban areas. In order to promote access (gross intake and progression) to education there is need therefore, to address these factors.

Concerning similarities of factors that affected access to primary school education in rural and urban areas, the study found that negative attitude of parents and children towards education, feeling out of place due to over age, poor academic performance and failure to pay fees or lack of sponsors were common in both rural and urban schools.

As regards similarities of factors that positively affected access to education, presence of free policy on basic education, re-entry policy and increased infrastructure were common in both rural and urban schools. These findings were consistent with those of Ministry of Education (2010) who reported that the increase in enrolment figures of pupils both in urban and rural areas were attributed to free basic education policy from grade 1-7, the re-entry policy to mandate schools to allow girls back into the school system who previously left school due to pregnancy and the bursary support to school leavers, including vulnerable children among them those with hearing and visual impairments. Additionally, the increase in the number of community schools also offered opportunities for more children to enter and remain in school.

On the basis of literature (Mwanakatwe 1974, UNICEF 1999 and UNESCO 2009) showing that urban areas had more social and education facilities thereby having more ordinary pupils access education than their counterparts in rural areas, the study sought to establish whether more pupils with hearing and visual impairments in urban areas were admitted to grade one than their

counterparts in rural areas. In addition, whether more pupils with hearing and visual impairments in urban areas progressed to grade seven compared to their counterparts in rural areas.

The study found that more children with hearing and visual impairments in rural areas entered grade one than their counterparts in urban areas. Thus, 61% of children with hearing and visual impairments entered grade one compared to 39% of their counterparts in urban areas. This result is interesting because literature sight earlier showed that more ordinary pupils entered school than their counterparts in rural areas. The increase could be as a result of the policy on free basic education and increased infrastructure. Similarly, Ndhlovu and Mtonga (2012) reported that among the contributing factors to increased enrolment was the policy on free basic education. Beyani (2012) also alluded to increased infrastructure in rural areas. More girls with hearing and visual impairments in rural areas entered grade one than their counterparts in urban areas. Additionally, more boys with hearing and visual impairments in rural areas entered grade one than their counterparts in urban areas. See tables 2 and 3 for details.

As regards their progression, more pupils in urban schools than those in rural areas progressed to grade seven from 2006 to 2012. Thus, 77% of the pupils in urban schools progressed to grade seven as compared to 60% of their counterparts in rural schools. Details are shown in tables 2 and 3.

Table 2: Gross Intake of Urban Children into Grade 1 and their Progression to Grade 7

District	School	GIR in Grade 1 in 2006			Progression to Grade 7 in 2012		
		M	F	T	Male	Female	Total
Lusaka	Desai	6	3	9	6	3	9
	Lusaka Girls	1	5	6	1	5	6
	UTH Special	2	2	4	-	-	-
Kabwe	Broadway	6	4	10	3	2	5
Ndola	Ndola Lions	4	7	11	4	7	11
Livingstone	HolyCross	3	2	5	2	1	3
Solwezi	Solwezi	2	1	3	2	1	3
Total		24	24	48	18	19	37

Regend: M= male, F= female, T= total and GIR = gross intake ratio

Table 3 below shows gross intake and progression of pupils with hearing and visual impairments from grade one to seven by district, school and gender in rural areas.

Table 3: Gross Intake of Rural Children into Grade 1 and their Progression to Grade 7

District	School	GIR in Grade 1 in	Progression to Grade 7 in 2012
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		2006			Male	Female	Total
		M	F	T			
Kapirimposhi	Lukanda	3	2	5	1	0	1
Mufulira	Mano	6	6	12	6	6	12
Mufumbwe	Kyamwina	10	15	25	-	-	-
Choma	ST. Mulumba	8	10	18	8	10	18
Mazabuka	Mazabuka	4	3	7	4	2	6
Mongu	Sefula	3	5	8	3	5	8
Total		34	41	75	22	23	45

Legend: M= male, F= female, T= total and GIR = gross intake ratio

Notably 79% the females in urban areas progressed to grade seven as compared to 56% of their female counterparts in rural areas. Additionally, 75% of the males in urban areas who entered grade one progressed to grade seven compared to 65% of their counterparts in rural areas. These findings are consistent with those of Mtonga and Simui (2012) who found that the environment in urban schools was good to the point of influencing all children to access primary school education.

In terms of dropout rate, more pupils (40%) dropped out of school in rural areas than their counterparts (23%) in urban schools. This finding is consistent with that of UNESCO (1998) who reported that fewer pupils progressed to grade eight in rural areas than urban areas because people in rural areas concentrated on earning and sustaining their physiological needs before turning to education. As regards gender, 44% of the females with hearing and visual impairments in rural areas compared to 21% of their counterparts in urban areas dropped out of school. Similarly, Ministry of Education (2004) and Zambia Open Community Schools (ZOCS) (2012) found that more girls than boys dropped out of school in rural areas than in urban areas. The study also found that more males 35% dropped out of school before they reached grade seven compared to 25% of their counterparts from urban schools. Long distance and fees demanded by schools greatly contributed to high dropout rate among the pupils in rural schools. Similarly, UNESCO (2009) reported that long distance to school, high poverty level among people in rural areas and early marriages contributed to more pupils in rural areas dropping out of school than in urban areas.

Conclusion

The study concludes that although more pupils with hearing and visual impairments in rural areas entered grade one than their counterparts in urban areas, few of them progressed to grade seven. As a result, the dropout rate stood at 40% higher than 23% of their counterparts in urban areas. As regards to gender, 44% of females in rural areas dropped out of school before reaching grade seven compared to 21% of their counterparts in urban areas. This was attributed to long distance to schools, failure by parents or guardians to pay fees demanded by schools, negative attitude of parents and pupils towards school, poor academic performance and early marriages.

Recommendations

Based on the study findings, the following is recommended:

1. More studies on pupils with disabilities need to be conducted so that their needs become visible.
2. In order to address the challenge of long distance to schools, more special education units and schools for pupils with disabilities need to be built or established.
3. Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Childhood Education should continue sensitising parents, teachers and pupils about the importance of education.
4. Education Standard Officers should monitor schools regularly to ensure that the policy on free basic education is adhered to by all schools.

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CONTRIBUTION OF THE FREE EDUCATION POLICY TO PUPILS WITH HEARING AND VISUAL IMPAIRMENTS' ACCESS TO PRIMARY SCHOOL EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA

Daniel Ndhlovu, Thomas Mtonga, and Janet Serenje-Chipindi

Photo

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Photo

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Abstract

Despite mixed views, Free Education Policy on primary education (grades 1-7) has made significant contribution on pupils with hearing and visual impairments' access to education in primary schools in Zambia. Notable areas cited by participants include: reduced absenteeism, increased gross intake levels, increased grade 7 completion rates and improved academic performance. Although there was no significant positive contribution on dropout rates, participant felt lack of sponsors, failure to qualify to grade 8, early marriages, pregnancy, too big to learn with young pupils, negative attitudes of both parents and pupils and failure by parents to pay boarding and other fees on behalf of their children to some extent contributed to pupils dropping out of school.

Introduction

Access to education may be described as the extent to which the general eligible population participate in education and the efficiency of the education system to retain learners who enter at a given education entrance level (Ministry of Education, 2010.) Participation includes gross enrolment, net enrolment and gross intake rates while completion, progression and dropout rates denote efficiency of the internal education system. In the Zambian education system, access is predominantly at four levels, at Grades 1, 8, 10 and at entrance into tertiary institutions. For purposes of this study, gross intake and dropout rates were used to determine access to education in primary schools. The Gross Intake Rate (GIR) shows the number of children newly admitted at the official school-entrance level regardless of age. In addition, the GIR indicates the general level of access to primary education as well as the capacity of the education system to provide access to grades 1, 8 or 10 for the official school-entrance age population. Dropout rate is the proportion of pupils who leave the system without completing a given grade in a given school year. Additionally, the rate shows the extent to which pupils abandon school for various reasons. High dropout rates imply high input/output ratios and lead to low internal efficiency.

Among the measures to ensure that children access education, the Ministry of Education introduced a number of policies such as: free basic education policy from grade 1-7 introduced in 2002, the re-entry policy introduced in 1997 to mandate schools to allow girls back into the school system who previously left school due to pregnancy. The bursary support to school leavers including orphans and vulnerable children was also introduced to promote access of

education by children. The increase in the number of community schools also offered opportunities for more children to remain in school. These measures are commendable. However, the numerous complaints by parents about fees paid to schools on behalf of their children raised the question; how has the free education policy contributed to access of primary education by pupils with hearing and visual impairments?

Ministry of Education (2010) also surprisingly records that 2.29% of the 472,238 pupils who enter school in grade one dropout every year. As a percentage, this figure looks small and negligible but in terms of population it represents 108,142 of (472,238) the total new entrants at grade one. As a result it cannot be ignored. There is need therefore, to find out causes of pupils dropping out of primary schools in Zambia. The question is, why should 108,142 pupils dropout of before reaching grade 7 when the government has said primary school education (grades 1 – 7) is free?

Statement of the problem

Complaints of parents about numerous fees they pay to primary schools on behalf of their children (both ordinary and those with disabilities) made the researchers wonder about the contribution of the policy on free education to access of education by their children.

Purpose

The study sought to determine contribution of policy on free primary education on pupils' access to primary education. The variables that were used to describe access include: participation with emphasis on gross intake rate (GIR) into grades 1, and efficiency with particular focus on progression to grade 7 and dropout rate between grades 1 and 7.

Objectives

The study was guided by the following objectives:

1. To determine the contribution of free primary education policy on pupils' access to primary education.
2. To identify factors if any that contribute to pupils dropping out of primary school
3. To determine views of parents, teachers and pupils about the free primary education.

Study Questions

In order to address the study objectives, the following questions were used:

1. How has free primary education policy contributed to pupils' access to primary education?
2. What factors if any contribute to pupils dropping out of primary school?
3. How do parents, teachers and pupils view the policy of free primary education?

Literature Review

Zambia became independent in 1964. At the time of independence, the education sector in the country was so poor. UNESCO (2010) records that there were only about 0.5% of Zambians with primary school education. In addition, out of a total estimated population of 3 million only 107 were degree holders. The government resolved to prioritize education and use it as a driving

force to industrialization, civilization and economic growth. For this reason, the government embarked on the construction of primary and secondary schools.

The construction of schools in each district gained momentum when the World Bank provided a loan to the nation (Kelly 1999). In order to encourage high enrolment levels, the government removed all user fees from primary school to tertiary education. According to the first national development plan (FNDP) (1966), the rationale for free education was to reduce on the impeding factor of parents paying tuition fees. In this case, the government took up the responsibility of meeting all the needs of school going children. The declaration of free education at that time brought about high enrolment levels. Mwanakatwe (1974) reports that because of the free education policy, school enrolment levels doubled at primary school.

This well intended policy was consequently overtaken by circumstances. Kelly (1991) explained that in the 1970s, Zambia suffered terrible economic downturn. The price of copper on the world market came down and yet the price of oil sky rocketed to more than 50%. The Zambian government lost its grip on the economy because of the economic crisis of the time. The quality of education in schools became heavily compromised. For instance, government could not provide adequate teaching and learning materials, school diet became poor and teachers became demotivated because their salaries were so low. This situation worsened in the 1980s.

As a result, the report on Educational Implementation Plan (1986) urged government to reverse the free education policy. The report proposed that there was need for user fees to be reintroduced in schools. UNICEF (1999) indicated that by 1991, over one million children were out of school. The advent of the structural adjustment program stifled the education sector further. One recommendation from the structural adjustment program was that government ought to withdraw all subsidies from the social sectors that included education and health. Coupled with losses of jobs by parents, high school fees and other opportunistic challenges, the Ministry of Education had the poorest enrolment levels in 1995 and 1996 (Kelly, 1999).

Despite all these challenges, the government of Zambia had an obligation to allow every child access primary education. International community and non-governmental organizations within the country implored government to adhere to the international agreements. For instance, the government needed to implement the 1990 education for all and the 1989 rights for children charter. In response to the requests and with good will, former president Mr. Levy Patrick Mwanawasa issued a decree for free education in 2002. In the year 2003, the Ministry of Education announced increased enrolment levels of about 79%.

This good news of high enrolment levels was short lived because as soon as most of the pupils started learning. A number of them began dropping-out of school. The drop-out rates worried every concerned Zambian. The question that bothered most of the minds was and still is; why should pupils drop out of school when education is free? A recent study conducted by the revealed that about 56% of basic schools still charge user fees which they have given different names. The study also revealed that about 67% of the drop-out pupils attributed their inability to continue with school to user fees. Another study by ZOCS (2012) indicated that there were higher numbers of girl pupils at lower primary schools. However, the numbers of girl pupils reduced as they got to upper primary and secondary school.

Considering all the factors discussed above, it is expected that in schools where they have introduced subtle user fees, the drop-out rates may be high. However, it is imperative to conduct further research to establish the variables that contribute to high drop-out rates.

Methodology

Since the researchers sought to have an in-depth understanding of the contribution of the policy on free education on pupils with hearing and visual impairments' access to primary school education, a case study design was used. In addition, both qualitative and quantitative methods were used. Focus group discussions were conducted to yield qualitative data while quantitative methodology made use of questionnaires.

Four hundred and eight (408) head teachers, teachers, parents and their children (pupils) participated in the study. This number consisted of 15 head teachers, 67 teachers, 186 pupils with hearing and visual impairments and 140 parents. Gender of participants was also taken into consideration. See table 1 for the distribution of the sample by province and school.

Table 1: Distribution of sample by provinces and schools (N=408)

#	Province	School	Head teachers	Teachers	Pupils	Parents	Total
1	Lusaka	Desai (HI)	1	4	20	7	32
		Lusaka Girls (HI)	1	3	10	7	21
		UTH Special (HI)	1	5	7	10	23
2	Central	Lukanda Basic (HI)	1	5	10	10	26
		Broadway basic (HI)	1	5	10	10	26
3	Copperbelt	Ndola Lions (VI)	1	5	20	10	36
		Mano Basic (HI)	1	5	10	20	36
4	Southern	St Mulumba (VI)	1	4	19	10	34
		Holy Cross (VI)	1	5	10	10	26
		Mazabuka Basic (VI)	1	4	10	10	25
5	NorthWestern	Solwezi Basic (HI)	1	5	20	10	36
		Kanyihampa (HI)	1	4	10	7	22
		Kyamwina (HI)	1	3	10	4	18
6	Eastern	Magwero (HI)	1	5	10	5	21
7	Western	Sefula Basic (VI)	1	5	10	10	26
	Total		15	67	186	140	408

In order to provide each pupil and teacher in the population an equal chance to be selected and included in the study sample, simple random sampling procedure was used. As a result, 186 pupils and 67 teachers participated in the study. Purposive sampling technique was used to select head teachers and parents of the children with hearing and visual impairments. This procedure enabled the researchers to select head teachers and parents of children in the sample.

Questionnaires and focus group discussions were used to collect data from the respondents in the sample.

The quantitative data were analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to obtain frequencies and percentages. Thematic analysis was used to analyse qualitative data.

Regarding issues of ethical nature, consideration was made to keep the names of respondents anonymous. Consent was also obtained from the respondents before allowing them to participate in the study.

Some limitations were however, encountered by the researchers. The researchers intended to include net enrolment rate under participation while under efficiency include completion and progression rate but due to scanty records of this information in schools, it was not included in this study. Notwithstanding these limitations, there is enough literature to support the findings of this study and guarantee generalisation.

Findings and Discussion

The presentation begins with whether the policy of free education had contributed to pupils' access to primary school education. It was found that all the participants responded in the affirmative. Their responses ranged as follows; 55.2% of 67 teachers, 71.4% of 140 parents, 73.1% of the 186 pupils and 12 of the 15 head teachers said the policy had contributed to pupils' access to primary school education. Areas where impact or contribution was felt to have been made included; reduced absenteeism, increased enrolment, increased grade 7 completion rate and improved academic performance.

Concerning gross intake (GIR) and their progression rates, there was significant contribution. It was found that 123 pupils with hearing and visual impairments were admitted to grade 1 in fifteen primary schools in 2006 and 66% of these progressed to grade 7 in 2012. On the basis that one pupil with disability is equivalent to 10 ordinary pupils (MSTVT, 2007), 123 is a significant number of pupils admitted to grade one. Table 2 shows the gross intake of pupils in grade 1 in 2006 and their progression to grade 7 in 2012.

Table 2: Gross Intake of Pupils into Grade 1 and their Progression to Grade 7

#	School	GIR in Grade1 in 2006			Progression to Grade 7, 2012		
		Male	Female	Total	Male	Female	Total
1	Kyamwina	10	15	25	-	-	-
2	Ndola Lions	4	7	11	4	7	11
3	Lukanda	3	2	5	1	0	1
4	Mano	6	6	12	6	6	12
5	Sefula	3	5	8	3	5	8
6	Desai	6	3	9	6	3	9
7	UTH Special	2	2	4	-	-	-
8	Lusaka Girls	1	5	6	1	5	6
9	Kanyihampa	-	-	-	-	-	-
10	Holy Cross	3	2	5	2	1	3

11	St Mulumba	8	10	18	8	10	18
12	Solwezi	2	1	3	2	1	3
13	Mazabuka	4	3	7	4	2	6
14	Broadway	6	4	10	3	2	5*
15	Magwero Deaf	-	-	-	-	-	-
	TOTAL	58	65	123	40	42	82

*Pupils at Broadway were in grade 6. There were no pupils at grade 7. Kanyihampa and Magwero schools did not provide numbers of pupils enrolled in grade 1 and their progression to grade 7.

To further determine the contribution of free education policy to pupils' access to education in primary schools, participants were asked whether their schools offer free education. Their views were as follows;

Head teachers

In response to the question on whether schools offered free education from grades 1-7, twelve of the fifteen head teachers, said yes to the question while three of them said due to some fees paid by parents, education was partially free. These responses are interesting in that if head teachers who are supposed to interpret and implement government policy of free education have mixed views, then full implementation of free education policy remains doubtful.

Teachers

In response to whether their schools offered free education, 37 (55.2%) of the 67 teachers, responded in the affirmative. See details of their responses in table 3 below.

Table 3: Whether schools offer free education (N=67)

Responses	PROVINCES							To tal
	Lusaka	Central	Copperbelt	Southern	North – Western	Eastern	Western	
Yes	8	9	6	6	6	0	2	37
No	2	0	0	0	4	4	0	10
Partially	2	1	4	7	2	1	3	20
Total	12	10	10	13	12	5	5	67

Although the results in table 3 show that the majority 55.2% of the teachers indicated that their schools offered free education, the responses of those ten teachers who said there is no free education and the twenty who indicated that their schools offered partial free education should not be ignored. The no and partial free education responses indicate that education offered in primary schools is not free contrary to the government policy of free education.

Parents

Parents also had mixed views about whether their schools offered free education. For instance out of 140 parents, 71.4% said yes, 22.8% said no, and 5.7% said was partially free. The parents who said school did not offer free education and those who felt education was partially free based their argument on the fact that schools still required them to pay some fees as shown in table 4.

Pupils

Similar mixed views were expressed by pupils. Out of 186 pupils who participated in the study, 73% said that their schools offer free education. However, 27% of them had contrary views and argued: ‘if it is free education why do teachers send us to call our parents to come and pay money to school?’

These views show that schools request parents to pay some fees. Table 4 below shows type of fees paid by parents on behalf of their children in primary school.

Type of Fees Paid by Pupils in Primary Schools by Province

Province	Type of Fees Paid by Pupils
Lusaka	PTA, general purpose fund, civilian day, uniforms, building fund and school bus.
Central	Uniforms, civilian day, cobra, 2Kg packet of sugar, tablet of soap and toilet tissue
Copper belt	PTA, uniforms, building fund, civilian day, medical and maintenance.
Southern	PTA, boarding fees, building, uniforms, sports and civilian day,
North-Western	PTA, uniforms, civilian day, boarding, medical fees, general purpose fund, cobra and building fund.
Western	General purpose fund, building fund, uniforms and boarding fee
Eastern	PTA, general purpose fund, building fund and boarding

Note: Due to ethical issues, fees paid have not been aggregated according to schools.

These findings about fees in table 4 are consistent with those of the Zambia Open Community Schools (ZOCS) (2012) who found that about 56% of basic schools in Zambia still charge user fees which they had given different names.

A question was asked to the participants whether fees paid in schools contributed to pupils dropping out of schools. It was found that nine (9) of the fifteen (15) head teachers did not think fees contributed to pupils dropping out of school. They argued that pupils were only reminded to pay. They were not chased from school instead, they were allowed to continue learning in class. To the contrary, six (6) of the head teachers said failure to pay fees contributed to pupils dropping out of school. They argued that some pupils did not like to be frequently reminded to call their parents to come and pay for them. As a result, they went home and never returned to school.

Similarly, parents and pupils also alluded to the fact that some pupils dropped out of school because their parents could not afford to pay fees. The mixed views of participants are a sign of education not being convincingly free or participants not knowing what constitutes free education.

In seeking to understand the consequence of failing to pay these fees, a question about “what does the school do to pupils who fail to pay fees?” was asked to the participants. It was found that eight (8) of the fifteen (15) head teachers interviewed, said pupils were allowed to continue learning, three (3) said they call their parents to school to discuss how they will pay for their children, two (2) linked them to sponsors and two (2) kept reminding them to pay. One of the schools in Lusaka province and other in Southern province linked the vulnerable children to sponsors such as church organisations. At Lusaka Girls basic school the head teachers said, pupils do not pay anything. As a result, the question of what does the school do to pupils who fail to pay user fees did not apply to them.

In triangulating these views with those of parents, it was found that parents alluded to the fact they were called to school to discuss how they could pay fees while others said this question did not apply to them because they were not paying any fees at school. Further triangulation of views of head teachers and parents with those of pupils, it was found that similar sentiments were given. Some of the pupils said they were sent home to collect money but remained in school, others said they were sent to call parents to school, while those at Lusaka Girls basic school said they were not paying any fees at school. These findings clearly show that in one way or another due to demand for fees, head teachers appeal to pupils to make payments. As a result, some pupils drop out. Similarly, ZOCS, (2012) found that harsh economic situation parents found themselves in coupled with school fees, Ministry of Education experience high dropout rate. It would be commendable to have zero rate of dropout from school due to non-payment of fees.

The study further sought to determine benefits experienced as a result of free education. To this effect, participants (head teachers, teachers, parents and pupils) were asked whether there were benefits they could attribute to the policy on free education. It was found that they had mixed views. Head teachers and teachers said there was reduced absenteeism, increased enrolment, increased grade seven completion rate, parents were able to send their children to schools and improved academic performance. Most parents also alluded to the fact that they experienced some benefits as a result of free education. One parent said, “we can send our children to school even if we do not have money for their school requirements.”

Another parent said, “my children at Ndola Lions School for the Blind are sometimes provided with learning materials such as books and pens. As a result, I can say there is free education.”

Despite the overwhelming affirmative responses to the fact that free education brought a lot of benefits, some parents argued to the contrary. For instance, one parent said: “I do not see any benefit because I still pay money for cobra, building, general purpose fund, PTA, medical and other school requirements”.

Pupils also had mixed views about the benefits of the policy on free education. Some felt education was free while others said it was not. Those who felt education was free based their response on their increase in class. One of them said:

We are now many in class because of free education. In addition, absenteeism among pupils has reduced. All this is because of free education.

Despite mixed views, the findings show overwhelming evidence that participants experienced benefits of the policy on free education. Similar findings were reported by Kelly, (1999). He found that when the government reintroduced the free policy on education, Ministry of Education had 79% increase in terms of enrolment to grade one.

As regards whether there were other factors apart from fees that contributed to pupils dropping out of school, all the participants responded in the affirmative. Among the factors cited include: lack of sponsors, failure to qualify to grade 8, early marriages, pregnancy, too big to learn with young pupils, negative attitudes of both parents and pupils and failure by parents to pay boarding and other fees on behalf of their children.

Due to these factors, out of 123 pupils enrolled in grade 1, 41 (18 males and 23 females) representing 33%, dropped out of school before they reached grade 7. In terms of proportion, this rate implies that one out of three pupils dropped out of school before reaching grade 7. Similarly, The Zambia Agency for People with Disabilities Report (2009) indicated that out every 100 pupils with disabilities enrolled in grade 1, 40% dropped out of school before they reached grade 7. There is need therefore, to get concerned about such a dropout rate if children with disabilities who are already disadvantaged by virtue of having a disability are to progress in education.

As to the views of teachers, parents and pupils about free education, it was found that they had mixed views.

Head teachers felt that the government did a good thing to declare education in primary school free. As a result, many parents could manage to send their children to school. However, others had the view that education was not free. To this effect one of them said:

Pupils in grades one up to seven should not pay anything towards their education. But since they pay some fees such as medical, boarding, building and maintenance, education is not really free.

Teachers had the view that many parents were able to send their children to school. However, they felt that parents did not fully understand what free education is. They cited the refusal of some parents to contribute cobra for cleaning classrooms, buying exercise books and pens for their children as signs that they did not fully understand the policy of free primary school education.

The general view of parents was that they did not fully understand what constitute free education because they still paid fees such as PTA, general purpose fund, transport, building, boarding, medical and maintenance. It was not clear what was free in the policy of free education. Was it books and pens which children receive at school that made education free? For instance, one of the parents completely refused that there was free education. She said,

[H]ow can I say the education my child is receiving is free if I have to constantly struggle to find money to pay for boarding, uniforms as well as groceries. When the church used to sponsor my child, there was free education because at the beginning of the term children were provided with transport, an allowance and all other school expenses were paid. But when the church stopped sponsoring my child, I feel education is not free. As I speak, I owe the school over KR 1000 for fees and I am not even sure if my child will sit for the grade 7 examinations. How then can I say education is free?

While some parents doubted whether education was free or not, others were very happy that government offers free education to their children. To this effect, one of the parents from Lusaka said,

free education has brought many benefits such as not much emphasis by head teachers on school uniforms as a result parents send their children to school even if they have not yet bought uniforms. In addition, as parents we do not have to buy books and other learning materials for our children because schools provide them.

In addition, another parent from Kapirimposhi in Central province said:

Yes, there is free education from grade one to seven. Those in grade eight pay school fund. My child is in grade 6 and I do not pay anything. As a retrenched parent, my child is able to acquire education which could not be the case if I was asked to pay for his education.

The majority of pupils said education was free. They based their response on the fact that they were not paying school fees, received free exercise books and other stationery. Additionally, boarding fees could be paid in instalments, they were admitted to school even without paying any fees and head teachers did not emphasis on buying school uniforms.

Despite the majority of pupils saying education was free, others felt it was partially free. They argued that because they were forced to buy their own learning materials, pay medical and boarding fees, education was not free. For instance, at one of the schools in the Copperbelt province they pay KR300.00 for medical and maintenance fees. Similarly, in Central province some pupils felt education was not free and cited demand by the school for 2kg packet of sugar, a tablet of soap and toilet tissues from each pupil as an expense to make them doubt about free education in primary school. While those in boarding schools in North-Western, Eastern, Southern and Western provinces lamented about paying boarding fees to the point of doubting the policy on free education. The issue of paying fees has caused participants to doubt the free education policy. To mitigate this demand for fees from parents by schools, there is need to offer scholarship schemes to support the vulnerable children. This view is consistent with that of the Government of the Republic of Zambia in the 2011 Education Act, article 120 (2) which states:

[T]he Minister may establish a bursary and scholarship scheme to assist orphans and vulnerable learners at any public, aided or community educational institution.

Further mitigation of the demand for fees from parents by schools can be done by government providing adequate financial resources to schools. This view is also consistent with that of the Patriot Front (PF) Party Manifesto (party in government) which states that the PF government shall re-introduce free and compulsory education for all (that is from grade one to grade twelve), taking care to control the “unofficial” fee collections that have proliferated the current free education version. In addition, provide adequate budgetary allocation on education to make free education a reality.

Conclusion

Based on the findings, the study concluded that the policy on free education has positively contributed to pupils’ access to primary school education. For instance, there is significant gross intake of pupils in grade 1, their progression rate to grade 7 was equally high at 66% compared to national acceptable rate of 59.9% and most participants felt they experienced the benefits of free education. However, the dropout rate of 33% is still high compared to 2.1% the national acceptable rate. This was attributed to various fees which parents were required to pay to schools. Apart from the fees, lack of sponsorship, failure to qualify to grade 8, early marriages, pregnancy, and negative attitudes of parents and pupils towards school contributed to pupils dropping out of school. Such high dropout rate continued to threaten the internal efficiency of the education system.

Recommendations

Based on the findings, the following is recommended;

1. There is need for the Ministry of Education, Science, Technology and Early Education to sensitise head teachers and parents on what constitute free education in schools.
2. Standard Education officers (inspectors of schools) should monitor the fees charged by schools on parents to ensure that the policy on free education is adhered to.
3. The government needs to provide adequate budgetary allocation on education to make free education a reality.

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EDUCATION FOR ALL: 50 YEARS AFTER ZAMBIA'S INDEPENDENCE

Peggy Mwanza and Henry J. Msango

Photo

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Photo

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Abstract

This article explains that although there has been progress towards increased access to primary education for grades 1 to 7 over the years, there has been no similar progress for junior secondary school, grades 8 to 9. Thus access to nine years of basic education still remains a challenge, especially among the vulnerable pupils. In addition, the quality of education in most primary and junior secondary schools is poor. It argues that it is not only important to get children into school but it is also important to ensure that they stay in school, receive good quality education and complete a full cycle of basic education. As such, the 2015 target of attaining nine years of basic education for all may not be accomplished if developing countries such as Zambia will not strengthen their focus on out-of-school children and improving the quality of education. In view of the foregoing, the article recommended that the Government of the Republic of Zambia, Non-governmental Organisations and other stakeholders should put in place measures that will ensure that vulnerable children (including girls) stay in school; that teachers and schools have all the requisites for offering quality basic education; and that there are incentives for teachers working in the most rural schools.

Introduction

For about 50 years now, the provision of nine years of basic education has been the concern of the government of Zambia. Over the years Zambia has made progress towards increased access to primary education, for grades 1 to 7. Access to education for pupils in Grades 8 to 9 still remains a challenge especially among the vulnerable pupils. In addition, the quality of education in most primary schools and some Junior Secondary schools is poor. It is argued here that it is not only important to get children into school but it is also important to ensure that they stay in school, receive good quality education and complete a full cycle of basic education.

Nine Years Basic Education Goal

The Government of the Republic of Zambia has a long standing educational goal of achieving universal nine years of Basic Education. This goal could be traced to the time of the struggle for independence in the 1960s when the nationalist movement set the goal that every Zambian should be able to complete at least a Junior Secondary Education (Ministry of Education, 1977). Similarly, for decades issues related to Universal Basic Education have been the concern of many nations across the globe. All appear to support the achievement of Education for All. From the Universal Declaration of Human Rights in 1948, which declared that every person had the right to education and called for compulsory elementary education (UNESCO, 2000) up to the International Conference on Universal Primary Education, held in Jomtien, Thailand, in 1990 (UNESCO, 1990), governments of both developed and developing countries committed themselves to providing Universal Basic Education. The Jomtien Conference was followed by the Dakar World Education Forum held in Senegal, in the year 2000 (UNESCO, 2000) where governments across the globe renewed their commitment to providing Education for All. At the Dakar Forum, national governments including the Zambian government, civil society groups, and development agencies met and adopted the Dakar Framework for Action, *Education for All: Meeting our Collective Commitments*. They committed to achieving six specific education goals by 2015. These were:

- i) Goal 1: Expand early childhood care and education;
- ii) Goal 2: Provide free and compulsory primary education for all;
- iii) Goal 3: Promote learning and life skills for youths and adults;
- iv) Goal 4: Increase adult literacy by 50 per cent;
- v) Goal 5: Achieve gender parity by 2005, gender equality by 2015; and
- vi) Goal 6: Improve the quality of education (UNESCO, 2000).

The current national policy on Basic Education also stipulates that the goal of the Ministry of Education is that every child should have access to nine years of good quality education by the year 2015 (Ministry of Education, 1996). In this vein, the Ministry of Education put in place interventions such as the Basic Education Sub-Sector Investment Programme (BESSIP) and Free Basic Education Policy aimed at improving access to education. The Basic Education Sub-Sector Investment Programme ran from 1999 to 2002 (Musonda, 2003:22). BESSIP was Zambia's first comprehensive programme with the aim of implementing the 1996 current National policy on Basic Education (Musonda, 2003). BESSIP's main objectives were twofold: i) increase enrolment at grades 1-7 and reverse the decline in enrolment by providing access to education for all eligible children; ii) improve learning achievements, especially in literacy and mathematics (de Kemp, *et al*, 2008:36). Essentially, BESSIP had developmental objectives of improving access, quality, equity and relevance of basic education. BESSIP sought to improve access to Basic Education through:

- a) constructing new schools in order to reduce walking distances to a maximum of five kilometres;
- b) reducing school costs for parents by providing grants to schools;
- c) enrolling children who had dropped out or had never gone to school;
- d) offering more bursaries to vulnerable children (girls, orphans, the poor and
- e) children in rural areas) (de Kemp, *et al*, 2008:37).

However, the implementation of BESSIP began at a slow pace. de Kemp, *et al* (2008:38) explains: "The slow restructuring process at the Ministry of Education and the slow pace of decentralisation hindered effective implementation of BESSIP at the local level."

In 2002, the late President of Zambia, Levy Mwanawasa, announced the Free Basic Education for Grades 1 to 7 (Ministry of Education, 2002:2). Primary school tuition fees were abolished as part of renewed attempts to improve access and retention, especially of vulnerable children.

Challenges in meeting the nine years Basic Education Goal

The problem of access to schooling especially at grades 8 and 9 (Junior Secondary level) have continued in Zambia. The Ministry of Finance and National Planning (2013:23) notes that the completion rate for Grade 9 (basic school) increased from 35.3 percent in 2002 to 53.2 percent in 2010. This implies that there were still children of school going - age who were supposed to be in school but were not. Mwanza's (2013) study revealed that this was because most parents could not afford to pay school fees for their children.

On the other hand, since the introduction of the Free Primary Education Policy in 2002 in Zambia, there has been rapid increase in enrolment figures at primary level. Net enrolment of children in primary education increased from 80 percent in 1990 to 93.7 percent in 2010

(Ministry of Finance and National Planning, 2013:22). Although, these improvements have been largely applauded, the quality of education in many developing countries including Zambia is questionable. Actually, in most cases, improvements in access to primary education have not been accompanied by improvements in the quality of education offered. Low student learning achievements were evident in the education system. For example, regional assessments conducted by the Southern and Eastern Africa Consortium for Monitoring Educational Quality (SACMEQ) in 2007 revealed that in Malawi and Zambia, over a third of grade 6 students had failed to acquire even the most basic literacy skills, meaning that many were unable to read fluently after five to six years of primary education (UNESCO, 2011:84). Indeed, learning achievement is one of the vital indicators for quality education in Zambia as the Examinations Council of Zambia (2013:6) noted learning achievement remained at low levels with mean scores in English and Mathematics in Grade 5, for example, stood at 35% and 38% respectively. The research findings by Mwanza (2013) show that the provision of good quality education in the majority of schools was poor due to the following factors: lack of trained teachers; inadequate teaching and learning materials; dilapidated and inadequate infrastructure; inadequate and poor sanitary conditions; poor learning environment; pupil absenteeism especially in rural areas; and teacher absenteeism particularly in rural areas.

In Zambia, many schools do not have adequate teaching and learning materials. For example, Mwanza (2013) in her study found that in most schools textbooks were inadequate. The book-pupil ratio was 1:7. In some schools, it was common to find more than 7 pupils sharing one textbook. The situation was worse off in rural areas as there were situations where there was only one core textbook for the teacher or no textbooks at all. Due to lack of teaching and learning materials teaching methods were severely restricted. As a result, much teaching in schools is by rote-learning teaching practices where students are encouraged to learn by memorisation. Though, it must be pointed out that sometimes teachers themselves fail to implement student-centred methodologies in their teaching. From the author's observations, some teachers interacted with pupils almost only through question-and answer and chalk-and-talk methods. Students were not given an opportunity to ask questions but only responded to close-ended questions asked by the teacher. As Altinyelken (2010:151) notes: "In the majority of African classrooms, pedagogical practices are described as authoritarian, teacher dominated and lecture-driven". Indeed, this affects the delivery of quality education.

Furthermore, the large class sizes especially in urban areas adversely affected the delivery of quality education. Lesson duration was set at 40 minutes at the schools that one of these authors visited. However, given the average class size at most schools about 70 students and in some cases 100, much potential teaching time was wasted organising and managing the classroom. In Mwanza's (2013) study teachers pointed out that it was difficult to enforce discipline among students due to large class sizes which made teaching difficult.

Moreover, teaching methods were restricted by poor school infrastructure. The crumbling school buildings with classrooms designed for 40 rather than 70 or more students adversely affected teaching methods and consequently the quality of education. There were also inadequate desks in most schools (Mwanza, 2013). The Examinations Council of Zambia (2010) reports:

The provision of desks in schools has long been a major challenge for the Ministry of Education. In most of the schools sampled, 3 to 4 pupils were using two-seater desks. There were also schools where pupils sat on the floor or

improvised their own seating arrangements (ECZ, 2010:8).

In addition, availability of teachers' furniture in the classroom is inadequate. The 2008 National Assessment survey conducted by the Examinations Council of Zambia reveal that there is scanty and poor teachers' furniture in most basic schools in Zambia. This is shown in Table 1 below:

Table 1: Availability of Teachers' Furniture in the Classroom

	Availability of Teachers' Furniture in Classroom (%)	Quality of Teachers' Furniture in Classroom (%)
Not available	18.9	16.6
Very poor	14	14.2
Poor	21.8	24.3
Fair	26.8	24.9
Good	14.3	16.2
Very good	4.2	3.8

Source: Examinations Council of Zambia (2010:70)

Indeed, having adequate desks and other forms of furniture available in classrooms provides an environment conducive to learning; their non-availability creates difficult learning conditions.

In addition, the quality of education is compromised by the fact that rural children are less interested in attending school. Research findings by Mwanza (2013) revealed that many rural households were dependent on their children especially at busy times of the farming season such as harvest time.

The quality of education is also affected by lack of trained teachers in most schools even after 50 years of Zambia's attainment of independence. The Global campaign for Education (2004:4) reports: "Zambia's education achievement is being undermined by a severe shortage of teachers. Something like 9000 vacancies remain unfilled, while almost exactly the same number of recently qualified teachers sits unemployed ...". The problem of shortage of teachers in Zambia may be regarded as a problem of teacher numbers. While there is no doubt that Zambia faces challenges of teacher supply, there are equally serious challenges of teacher deployment. In 2014 in Zambia, there were many qualified teachers in urban areas who were unemployed, while there were unfilled posts in rural areas. This is because of the change in government policy with regards to recruitment and deployment. Before the early 2000s recruitment of newly qualified teachers was normally automatic. However, from late 2000s onwards there had been policy change relating to teacher recruitment and deployment (Subulwa, 2000:26). There were often delays in deployment of newly qualified teachers as it depended on the availability of funds. Even when deployment of teachers was done, many teachers preferred to work in urban areas to rural areas. As a consequence, schools in rural areas may be left with empty posts, or have longer delays in filling posts.

In addition, teacher absenteeism in Zambia may be contributing to the low quality of education especially in rural areas. The Examinations Council of Zambia (2010) points out that absenteeism, late-coming and knocking off early continue to be a problem among teachers.

Clearly, these are issues have an adverse bearing on learning achievement of pupils, because they all reduce the time for teacher-pupil interactions. In fact, teachers in rural areas in Zambia tend to teach less than their counterparts in urban areas. Any trip away from the rural area, for example, to visit a doctor might involve long journeys and involve missed school days. Moreover, where teachers walk long distances to school, they tend to start late, and finish early.

Indeed, quality in education is crucial for the achievement of EFA. The notion of quality in education encompasses more than simply a better school environment, more qualified teaching staff, and an adequate supply of teaching and learning materials. Quality also means as Aikman and Unterhalter (2005: 4) write:

...the framing of the curriculum, the content and form of learning materials, the nature of the pedagogy, and teacher-pupil relations. Quality requires gender-sensitive use of human resources, and considerations of gender in the allocation of finances. Quality education entails a concern to include the views of all members of a community, and to take account of local languages and cultures. A quality education is not therefore acquired in isolation from the social setting in which students live. It embraces the notion of education as a transformative process which promotes social change and contributes to building a just and democratic society. A quality education rejects gender discrimination and social injustice. Quality education cannot be achieved without gender equality and equity.

Conclusion and Recommendations

After 50 years of independence, Zambia is still struggling with issues of access and quality in education. At independence, access and quality of education were challenges (Kelly, 1999). Therefore, the 2015 target of attaining nine years of basic education for all may not be accomplished if developing countries such as Zambia will not strengthen their focus on out-of-school children and improving the quality of education.

In view of the aforesaid, it is recommended that:

1. The Government and all stakeholders need to provide and strengthen the provision of bursaries to vulnerable, orphaned and girl children in schools.
2. The Government, Non-governmental Organisations and all stakeholders need to help teachers make learning and teaching child-centred and engaging. Therefore, Continuing Professional Development with a focus on learner-centred and discovery approaches must be provided to teachers.
3. Colleges of Education should be well equipped with books, teaching aids and other training materials for effective training of teachers. Also, their curricula must reflect real needs of primary and secondary schools.
4. Non-governmental Organisations and all stakeholders should collaborate with the government to ensure that adequate and appropriate teaching-learning materials are provided to schools.

5. The Government and all stakeholders should ensure that there is an adequate supply of qualified teachers in schools. These must have both Diploma and/or first degree qualifications.
6. The Government, co-operating partners, Non-governmental Organisations and all stakeholders must make working in rural areas attractive through the use of incentives. Incentives can be in the form of a hardship allowance, subsidised housing or better training opportunities. Conditions of service for teachers must be attractive in such a way as to retain them.

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HIV AND AIDS WORKPLACE POLICY: AN IMPLEMENTATION ASSESSMENT OF STRATEGIES IN SELECTED SECONDARY SCHOOLS OF LUSAKA AND NORTHERN PROVINCES

Photo

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Abstract

Using qualitative and quantitative approaches, this study investigated the extent to which teachers and secondary school pupils were benefiting from the strategies that were being implemented in secondary schools of Lusaka and Northern Provinces as workplaces in relation to the HIV and AIDS Workplace Policy. It tried to provide insight into the responses of pupils and teachers to the HIV and AIDS Workplace Policy. It was undertaken to establish if the strategies as stipulated in the HIV and AIDS Workplace policy of the Ministry of Education were benefiting the intended targets. The findings were that the stakeholders were aware of the challenges posed by HIV and AIDS but a lot more needed to be done, in terms of effective implementation of strategies in place. As at yet there was no systematic inclusion of HIV and AIDS in the curriculum hence teachers finding it difficult to teach in class. Teaching and learning materials proved to be a challenge since they were not standardized. Teachers had problems teaching since it was just a fraction of them who were trained to fuse HIV and AIDS teaching in their lessons. The study recommended that the curriculum should be standardized at

secondary school level through systematic inclusion in the curriculum. All teachers should be trained in HIV and AIDS teaching as well as life skills. HIV and AIDS should become an alone standing subject which should be examinable.

Introduction and Background

AIDS is not only a deadly disease but perhaps the greatest scientific, political and moral challenge of our era. In this time of abundant resources and increased global connectivity, we have the means and knowledge to control the pandemic, yet to do so will require unparalleled global cooperation and shared recognition that AIDS threatens not only individuals, but entire societies.

In the mid 1990s, the Ministry of Education and other line ministries began to be devastated by HIV and AIDS. The impact of the pandemic continued to threaten the achievement of the Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) and of paramount concern, attainment of Education For All (EFA). As the disease continued its rapid spread, it is important to find ways of helping people change behaviours that are risky. Boler and Jellema (2005:12) point out that: “these behaviours are usually embedded in deep social, economic and cultural patterns”. Recent times have seen the appreciation of the power of education as a tool against AIDS. School systems have a threefold role to play in fighting AIDS. These are: protecting individuals, informing individuals and protecting societies. Socially and morally it is imperative that schools embrace the responsibility of teaching all young people about sexual reproductive health. Educational theory dictates that educational systems should be flexible enough to respond to the changing needs of their learners, including, when necessary, a change in what is actually taught.

Formulation, implementation and monitoring of educational policies are tasks entrusted with the Ministry of Education, hence, any systematic response to the impact of HIV and AIDS should be planned by it. These policies must take into consideration the cultural values, beliefs, and practices of the targeted groups. Singhal and Rogers (2003: 205) point out that, “only then can communication strategies accentuate the positive undercurrents of a culture, reducing the effects of opposing forces”.

In Zambia, one of the measures put in place to mitigate HIV and AIDS infections in secondary schools as reflected in the policy is teaching about the disease. Teachers across the country were trained to teach HIV and AIDS education therefore there was need to find out to what extent.

Problem statement

Currently the Ministry of Education has an HIV and AIDS Policy in place, but the extent to which the strategies being implemented have been able to embrace the teachers and learners in schools as stakeholders is not known.

Purpose of the study

The purpose of the study was to establish to what extent the strategies implemented by the Ministry of Education under the Work Place HIV and AIDS Policy were able to embrace teachers and learners as stakeholders.

Objectives of the study

The specific objectives of the study were as follows:

1. To determine if teachers were able to teach HIV and AIDS, life skills and Sexual Reproductive Health (SRH) after having been trained.
2. To establish how effective the feedback mechanism of the MOE (now Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MESVTEE) had been.
3. To find out how the stakeholders were relating with the policy.
4. To ascertain what challenges administrators were facing in 2009 in the flow of information about HIV and AIDS education.

Research Questions

1. Were teachers able to teach HIV and AIDS, Life Skills and Sexual Reproductive Health (SRH) after been trained?
2. How effective had the MESVTEE feedback mechanism been?
3. Were stakeholders able to relate with the policy?
4. What challenges were administrators facing in the flow of information about HIV and AIDS education?

Significance of the Study

The study may help government strengthen its communication systems in the implementation of the HIV and AIDS Workplace Policy.

Literature Review

According to Barnett (2002), “HIV and AIDS is not the first global epidemic, and it certainly wont be the last.” It is a disease that is changing human history. Its presence and effects are felt most profoundly in poor countries and communities. Africa is the epicentre of the epidemic with the highest mortality in the world. In 2006, Africa accounted for 63% of all persons living with HIV (UNAIDS, 2006). Among all the new infections 40% were observed in young people aged between 15 and 24 years and over one third of the population in Sub-Saharan Africa were living with AIDS and its debilitating effects. The vast majority of those infected were men and women in the productive 15 to 50 age group, and was very conspicuous among young adults in the 15 to 25 age group. ILO (2004) estimated that two thirds of people living with HIV work. It is therefore imperative that the impact of HIV and AIDS on productivity of the workforce and enterprise efficiency in all sectors of economic activity and development is dealt with. Teachers have not been spared in this spread and effects are seen at both family and national levels. World over Ministries of Education have been faced with a great challenge of having to put a stop to the HIV and AIDS negative effects on its valuable human resource development. The systematic and management challenges faced were mortality and morbidity of sector employees. It faced an increased attrition of staff due to HIV and AIDS related factors, low morale, stigma and discrimination in the Education Sector Workplaces especially in schools, (Uganda Ministry of

Education, 2004). Until then it remained the single largest management challenge for the education sector.

The responses to the epidemic were manifold. Countries introduced legislation to facilitate mitigation of the impact of the epidemic and for the protection of the rights of persons living with or affected by HIV and AIDS. At sector level a lot of consultation was done among workers, employers and their organisations as well as other key stakeholders which resulted in comprehensive workplace policies and programmes. Despite all these efforts, new infections continued to occur and the impact of the epidemic continued to cause pain and suffering across sectors and at family and individual levels. More still needed to be done.

HIV and AIDS mainstreaming in the MESVTEE has led into policy, planning, implementation, delivery, monitoring and reporting. At the school level workplace programmes were in place, Life Skills teaching and fusion of HIV and AIDS teaching in the curriculum.

Workplace policies comprised one of the key themes fundamental to any comprehensive education sector HIV and AIDS policy in addition to prevention, treatment, care and support and management of the sector response. UNAIDS (2004), saw workplace policies as initiatives that had a legal framework for the protection of employees' rights containing regulations that governed the appropriate conditions of employment, establishment of efficient monitoring and reporting mechanisms of HIV and AIDS impact on teachers and other employees in the sector. HIV and AIDS was a workplace issue and which was to be treated like any other serious illness/condition in the workplace. This was necessary not only because it affected the workplace, but also the workplace being part of the local community had a role to play in the wider struggle to limit the spread and effects of the epidemic (ILO, 2000).

In public secondary schools comprehensive workplace policies with specific features unique to the sector were contained within an education specific scenario.

Methodology

The field study was carried out in Lusaka and Northern Provinces of Zambia, and the two Provinces were picked for the following reasons:

1. Lusaka had the highest HIV and AIDS prevalence rate of 25% and Northern with the lowest rate of 8%.
2. Both Provinces had the workplace policy being implemented in secondary schools.

The schools, which remained anonymous had students enrolled in grades 10-12.

Much of the study took the form of an interpretative qualitative approach and a bit of quantitative. The interpretative qualitative approach was adopted to address the research questions using a case study design to evaluate current policy and practice in high schools. Parker (1995: 68), explains that: 'qualitative research is especially suited to unravelling the complexities of local knowledge, social and cultural peculiarities, and power and control issues'. Qualitative research describes and interprets; and since the AIDS epidemic dramatizes what we do not know about sexuality, it is able to overcome this by paying particular attention to the socio-cultural context. According to Akpaka (2006), the qualitative approach pays attention to

the many modes of communication (spoken language, body language, written records etc). It was able to draw a line between what people say they have to do (the rules), what they say they do (the norms), and what they actually do (reality).

The case study used multiple methods of data collection (Triangulation). This was to enhance enrichment of the quality of the data thereby establishing validity and reliability of the findings of the study. The informants were purposively selected in relation to their job descriptions. Selection was based on their status and rank at MESVTEE and the school as well as their daily responsibilities. The key informants included; the school Headteacher, chairperson of the Anti HIV and AIDS committee (Focal Point Person), teachers trained in teaching life skills, pupils and MESVTEE officials. A total of 165 informants were selected: These were 3 MoE officials, 2 headteachers, 2 focal point persons, 11 teachers and 147 pupils.

Findings

Ministry of Education officials

Three officials were interviewed at the Ministry of Education. These were the HIV and AIDS programme Manager, the Director of Human Resources and the Coordinator of Life Skills and HIV and AIDS Education. All three in carrying out their duties dealt with issues pertaining to HIV and AIDS in schools as workplaces. They were therefore, able to acknowledge the seriousness of the pandemic in the Ministry.

Questions concerning feedback mechanism to monitor statistics and implementation of strategies on HIV and AIDS received divergent responses. This was mainly due to the fact that the HIV and AIDS Workplace Policy was initially the responsibility of the Human Resources Directorate but since 2004 the Educational Quality Improvement Programme (EQUIP2) had been running and providing technical support to the Ministry of Education on issues pertaining to HIV and AIDS. EQUIP2, being a programme funded by the United States Agency for International Development (USAID) under the Presidential Emergency Fund for AIDS Relief (PEPFAR) had, in practical terms, taken over the running of programmes on HIV and AIDS.

To have an effective monitoring system in place was a far fetched dream but under the existing system the best option would be to fuse it into the Standards Directorate. The EQUIP2 Programme Manager commented:

It would be easy to monitor implementation of strategies if the monitoring mechanism was coordinated with the Standards Directorate since personnel from there were frequently in schools to monitor the quality of education.

Since the monitoring mechanism was poor it was difficult to find out how many secondary schools were implementing the policy in Lusaka, but it was a well known issue that all the Headteachers were trained to come up with school based HIV and AIDS policy. After the training drafted policies workable within the immediate environment were submitted from a lot of secondary schools, there was no follow up from the Ministry.

Head teachers

The Headteachers indicated that their duties as heads included, supervision of teachers, ensuring that all academic programmes were running smoothly and disciplining both teachers and pupils. In carrying out their duties the Headteachers saw to it that the HIV and AIDS activities were well conducted. They provided finances for the running of the Anti-AIDS clubs. The Headteachers pointed out that, girls were the most risky group in secondary schools. The Headteachers pointed out that no survey or statistical information was at that time conducted or available to help in the planning process but all the teachers were aware of the existence of the Workplace Policy unlike the pupils who knew nothing. During the sensitization period of the policy a lot of talks were held but stopped along the way because there was nothing new to discuss.

The schools had no feedback mechanism with the Ministry, and no structures to coordinate HIV related activities though the sensitization period on the Workplace Policy contributed to reducing stigmatisation among the HIV infected teachers. A number of teachers were also trained in teaching Life Skills and talks on HIV and AIDS were held during assembly and occasionally in classrooms. The headteachers pointed out that the teachers were able to identify with the Workplace Policy in that they were in a position to enjoy a number of strategies put up for them, including VCT and Supplements for the HIV positive.

Teachers

The majority of the teachers perceived HIV and AIDS as a manageable threat. Over the years its effects had been dealt with in many ways. The teachers were able to mention measures such as Anti-Retroviral Therapy (ART), Voluntary Counselling and Testing (VCT), HIV sensitization, Teachers' Health Days. During Assembly, teachers trained in HIV and AIDS gave talks to Learners and other members of staff. One of the teachers said:

The school administration organises workshops with organisations such as CHAMP at least once a year. These workshops are coordinated by the facilitators. Yes they have brought about change, teachers discuss freely and openly issues to do with HIV and AIDS.

The teachers were quick to point out that the school administration from time to time provided booklets and posters for learners and teachers to be constantly reminded about the disease. The school had further integrated HIV and AIDS in subjects like Biology and Religious Education. The teachers who took part said they were able to teach about HIV and AIDS as well as life skills though they faced challenges of lack of standard teaching materials. Additionally, a teacher stated:

I teach about HIV and AIDS and life skills such as assertiveness, self esteem during SAFE Club Programmes.

All the teachers admitted that the teaching of HIV and AIDS was not difficult because there was a lot of literature, learners already had some knowledge about the disease and were always keen to learn more about it.

In order to effectively teach about HIV and AIDS teachers suggested that their salaries must be increased, while others thought it wise to just increase training opportunities.

Teacher informants pointed out that counselling and food provision were effected in order to help both teachers and learners suffering from HIV and AIDS in the school. These provisions were in place partly due to the fact that all teachers were aware about their rights as stipulated in the Workplace Policy. The teachers perceived the measures in place as adequate though some felt more could be done. Those who felt that more could be done pointed out:

The administration should pay particular attention to issues of literature provision, time, capacity building among teachers, drama and talks in classrooms.

Pupils

This section presents findings related to the questions given to pupils as informants in this research. The questions looked at pupils' response to HIV and AIDS teaching, infected colleagues and what pupils knew about the disease. A total of 147 pupils responded to these projective questions:

1. How do the pupils in your classroom react when they have been talked to about HIV and AIDS?
2. If a pupil in your class misses lessons, and it is rumoured that he/she may have AIDS, how do you think the other pupils would respond?
3. If at any time your class is given a forum to discuss issues about sex, HIV and AIDS, what important issues usually arise?

The findings were presented according to the above questions as follows:

Pupils who tackled the first question were 46 and their responses were diverse. In class pupils did not take the teaching of HIV and AIDS and Life Skills seriously because they had more important things to do. They thought issues of HIV were for elderly people. They were too young to worry about their status and since it was not examinable, pupils thought it was a waste of time. Some pupils denied the existence of the disease, referring to it as witchcraft.

On the other hand some pupils paid more attention and were eager to learn more so that they could make informed decisions. The pupils were eager to learn more because it helped them know how to take care of those infected and also to prevent infection.

Among the 46 pupils who responded 21(45.6%) were receptive, 19 (41.3%) thought it not necessary and 6 (13%) were not sure about the teaching of HIV and AIDS in the classroom.

Summary of Findings

The following findings were established from the study:

- i) The Ministry of Education had been implementing the HIV and AIDS Workplace Policy and had put a number of strategies in place to cater for all personnel in high schools.
- ii) Teachers were well familiarised with the policy but the pupils as stakeholders did not know much about it.
- iii) Pupils still held misconceptions about HIV and AIDS.
- iv) Teachers trained in teaching life skills were able to teach in class even though there were no nationally accepted teachers' and pupils' teaching manuals at secondary school level.
- v) Strategies in place for teachers were accessible. Teachers were able to have mobile VCT services, dissemination/sensitisation workshops, ART and to enjoy Teachers' Health Days.

- vi) The link between HIV and AIDS activities between secondary schools and the MESVTEE was very weak hence making it difficult to effectively implement strategies.
- vii) There was lack of reporting and monitoring systems in secondary schools to enhance communication with the MESVTEE.
- viii) There was very little being done to deliver information on sex education, HIV/AIDS and provision of health facilities for pupils.
- ix) Lack of an effective Education Management Information System had an impact on the flow of information on HIV and AIDS.
- x) Financial resources and utilisation posed the greatest challenge towards implementation of strategies on HIV and AIDS Workplace Policy. There was a lack of planning within what was available to provide a broad systematic roadmap to deal with the impact of HIV and AIDS.
- xi) The financial woes were further worsened by the fact that much of the money was from co-operating partners.
- xii) The poor communication systems between the MESVTEE and secondary schools was said to be attributed to the ineffective decentralisation process.

Discussion, Conclusion and Recommendations

Teacher respondents were able to point out that ‘more work loads due to sickness had reduced due to ART’. Since most teachers thought the negative effects of the disease were being managed, one deputy headteacher was quick to point out that, and ‘teachers trained as peer educators were claiming to have run out of things to teach others’. The reason given was that all that they were trained in had been exhausted. The scenario highlighted above had led to the decline of HIV and AIDS activities or programmes apart from Anti-AIDS clubs and weekly Assembly talks.

The teachers and learners who participated in the study had diverse views about the teaching of life skills in high schools. The teachers had a full understanding of the Workplace Policy and life skills teaching as one of the strategies put in place to deal with HIV and AIDS among learners. The learners on the other hand had no idea about what the Workplace Policy was about. To counteract the situation, the teachers felt the need to have standard teaching of Aids, particularly for secondary schools. According to the Life Skills Coordinator at the Curriculum Development Centre, formulation of materials were underway and was expected to be available to schools by 2009 but by 2012 when an up graded curriculum was put in place HIV was still seen as a cross cutting issue.

Further this study wanted to find out if there was an effective communication link between the MESVTEE and secondary schools. According to the HIV/AIDS programme Manager, all school Head teachers across the country had been trained in developing institutional HIV and AIDS policies with the guidance of the national HIV and AIDS Workplace Policy of the MESVTEE. A lot of policy drafts were received from secondary schools countrywide, but finding out how the strategies were being implemented still remained a challenge. The MESVTEE had no capacity to conduct monitoring activities in schools due to lack of funds. The Programme Manager was quick to state that:

Monitoring of Workplace Policy Strategies being implemented in secondary schools should be fused in with the Directorate of Standards. This is because they are always in schools to monitor the quality of education being provided. It would be cost effective for the MESVTEE.

At the school level, it was learnt that there was no system of collecting or compiling statistics on teachers or pupils affected or infected with the virus. This was mainly due to the fact that they received very little funding from the Ministry of Education. In essence what was concluded was that there was very little communication between the MESVTEE and secondary schools on issues pertaining to HIV and AIDS Workplace Policy.

Teacher respondents were all familiar with the Workplace Policy unlike the pupil respondents. The teachers had been sensitised on the policy and knew what was to be in place to help them face the challenges that came with their work. Through comprehensive HIV and AIDS Management Programme (CHAMP), Society for Family Health (SFH), Secondary School Teachers' Union of Zambia (SESTUZ) and Zambia National Union for Teachers (ZNUT), HIV and AIDS mobile VCT and sensitisation were carried out between the period of October 2006 and September 2007. Since then, the unions mobilised teachers for VCT offered at school and district levels through Teachers' Health Days. The SESTUZ is provided with funds to carry out activities by the MESVTEE through EQUIP2 but according to teacher respondents these activities were not felt at school level.

The learners knew very little about the policy. They did not know that it even existed. The learners were only talked to about HIV and AIDS issues during assembly but not in class. They did not have appropriate learner support materials to help in teaching, counselling, VCT and psychosocial support. The pupils had no adequate information on ART, prevention of Mother to Child Transmission (PMTCT), opportunistic infections and positive living, including nutrition. Even when these services were not in place for the pupils, those suspected of being positive were allowed to continue with their education. Responses from the pupils in their projective writings were able to reveal the lack of information that still existed among secondary school pupils.

MoE officials and headteachers were able to highlight a number of issues on problems they faced on the flow of information pertaining to HIV and AIDS Education. The administrators faced a lot of roadblocks in the flow of information due to lack of coordination between the MoE and secondary schools. The headteachers attributed this to poor funding from the Ministry, which had made it very difficult to put up structures that would improve information flow.

At secondary School level standardized Information Education and Communication (IEC) materials were still not available hence making it very difficult to teach HIV and AIDS as an examinable subject. As for the MESVTEE, the Life Skills and HIV/AIDS Coordinator observed that they were unable to set symposia with stakeholders as much as they would want to because of poor funding. As a result, regular review, where necessary, was not conducted, making it very difficult to measure what more needed to be done for the different target groups.

The secondary schools lacked the spirit of reporting and frequent monitoring of their own activities. Without an effective Education Management Information System (EMIS) in place, it had proved very difficult to have an effective flow of information on HIV and AIDS education. Exchange of information was perceived to be very cardinal in the success of any policy implementation programme. Feedback from the intended targets would be able to provide the

administrators with information on how to strengthen or modify the strategies. The absence of such information made the strategies put in place unworkable.

The following **recommendations** were made based on the findings of the study:

- i. The MESVTEE should widen their net in sensitising all stakeholders, especially pupils about the HIV and AIDS Workplace Policy especially among pupils.
- ii. The MESVTEE through School Administration should strengthen the teaching of sex, Life Skills and health education in secondary schools.
- iii. To reduce on misconceptions held by pupils, Friday of every week, should be AIDS day so that a lot of activities are held.
- iv. The MESVTEE should improve the funding given to schools for HIV and AIDS activities to enhance implementation of the strategies in place.
- v. Communication links between secondary schools and MESVTEE must be strengthened through regular interaction and briefing to report on how at the school level the strategies are being implemented.
- vi. Refresher courses must be held from time to time to improve on the delivery of information on HIV and AIDS education.
- vii. There is need for the MESVTEE to create an Educational Management Information System which will be able to capture data to help in the implementation of the policy.
- viii. There is need to cut down on red tape through shared reporting systems.
- ix. In order to increase use of resources the MESVTEE should come up with self sustaining incentives to raise money as a strategy to reduce the reliance on donors.
- x. For the implementation of strategies to be enhanced, there is need for a holistic approach to the use of funds across a balanced agenda to include prevention, treatment, care and support and management of the responses in place.
- xi. Training in research, budget development and management, coordination and reporting will be of help to secondary school teachers and all personnel involved in HIV and AIDS activities.
- xii. Administrators should ensure that the strategies in place are on-going and not episodic, because workplace HIV and AIDS programming is a process whose power is cumulative.

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RELIGIOUS EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA: TOWARDS RELIGIOUS LITERACY, RELIGIOUS PLURALISM AND LIBERALISM

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Abstract

This paper stems from a study conducted to ascertain whether or not the current Zambian senior secondary school RE syllabuses could lead to the attainment of religious literacy and the promotion of religious pluralism and liberalism which are integral parts of modern RE. The methods of data collection included in-depth semi-structured interviews, lesson observations and document analysis, using semi-structured interview guides, focus group discussion guide, lesson observation checklist and document analysis checklist, respectively. The study found that Zambian RE is poorly handled, and that the current syllabuses are deficient in attaining religious literacy. It recommends that RE teachers should go beyond teaching for examinations if the subject is to contribute to the promotion of religious literacy, religious pluralism and liberalism.

Introduction

Religious Education (RE) as a curriculum subject has undergone numerous changes from being confessional and indoctrinating in nature, in the past, to being educational in the present day. These changes have not been peculiar to Zambia and are reflected the world over, especially in the British Commonwealth countries with whom Zambia shares a colonial past.

With particular emphasis to Zambia, RE has since independence developed from being confessional and denominational in the 1960s, through being ecumenical and interdenominational in the 1970s, to being educational and multi-faith from the 1980s. Despite these changes, Zambian RE scholars have argued that the subject should become ‘more transformative’ in nature (Mujdrica, 2004) and that it should adopt a critical understanding approach (Simuchimba, 2005). However, another crucial requirement of modern RE is the promotion of religious literacy and the values of pluralism and liberalism (Wright, 1996). A number of studies have been conducted in the country on RE, although scholars still do not agree on whether the subject is able to promote religious literacy, religious pluralism and liberalism. As such, it is this knowledge gap that the study’s contribution to this debate sought to fill.

Theoretical and historical reflection

Religious Education and Religious Literacy

Due to the growing pluralism and diversity in modern societies, scholars, such as Erricker (2010), Jackson (2004), Wright (1993, 2001), Grimmitt (1987, 2000), Mujdrlica (2004) and Simuchimba (2001, 2006) have debated the nature of RE in such societies. Among the many issues raised is the need to make the subject more educational and pluralistic.

As perhaps well known, RE is a school subject with both religious and educational aims. In many cases, people have emphasised one aim over the other. While traditionalists focus on the religious aims of the subject, which include character formation and initiation into the beliefs and values of a particular religion, liberals focus on educational aims which include critical thinking and skills development. In the recent times though, there have been calls to the effect that if the subject is to remain relevant and respond to the challenges of modern societies, focus should be placed on the promotion of more relevant issues such as learners' experiences, pluralism, religious literacy and citizenship education.

Literacy is traditionally seen as the ability to read and write. However, modern usage goes beyond the traditional notion to encompass knowledge of or competence in a particular subject or area such as finance, computers and religion. As such, the study conceived of religious literacy as a critical and reflective understanding of religious beliefs and values, leading to an ability to discuss religion intelligently. Accordingly, Wright (1996) notes that the mark of the religiously educated child would be the ability to think, act and to communicate with insight and intelligence in the light of that diversity of religious truth claims that are the mark of our contemporary culture.

Religious literacy, like other forms of literacy, is rooted in knowledge. In this respect, the religious literacy approach holds that learners should be exposed to different religions if they are to become religiously literate. A learner who is religiously literate should be able to intelligently deliberate on matters of religion. Unlike the confessional approaches which seek to develop learners into good followers and the phenomenological approach which seems to treasure empathy only, this approach invites pupils to be open minded and critical so that they make well informed decisions.

Grimmitt (1987) undertook a major study of the contribution RE can make to pupils' learning and development in which he argued that RE should be in the service of education rather than religion. Having observed that the study of religions has a very important contribution to make to pupils' personal, social and moral development, he contended that the subject matter should be chosen because of its potentiality to provide an opportunity for reflection on, re-evaluation and re-interpretation of the self.

In his year 2000 study, Grimmitt focussed on the practical aspects of teaching RE and noted that pedagogical knowledge and skill provide the foundation upon which successful RE teaching depends. He contended that a genuinely child-centred RE must take into account the child's pre-

understanding and must encourage children to explore and develop emergent religious viewpoints by actively challenging them to consider other options. Through the encounter with other horizons, pupil's perspectives become progressively refined and clarified, enabling a greater competence in their articulation of their own religious beliefs, greater awareness of the nature of their continuity and divergence from the beliefs of others. He concluded by emphasising that the ability of RE to meet the changing needs of children and contribute to their full development depends on teachers exploring new possibilities for the subject, however challenging they may be.

Although Grimmitt's works above were based on the British RE scenario, his conclusions and recommendations are applicable to the Zambian RE scenario in the sense that the development of RE as a curriculum subject in Zambia mirrors that in Britain due to the two countries' past colonial relationship. Thus Grimmitt's discussion of the pedagogies of the subject provided fertile theoretical background for our study.

In a study entitled, *Rethinking Religious Education and Plurality*, Robert Jackson (2004) raised important issues with regard to RE in the face of increasing plurality in British society. He stated that up until the late 1950s, RE in Britain was a form of Christian instruction with spiritual, moral and civic goals aimed at serving a predominantly Christian Britain. With the passage of time, however, Britain had become more secular, and religiously and culturally diverse, like other western democracies. Jackson explains that with the emergence of pedagogies which acknowledged plurality as the context for RE, RE in Britain has responded positively to religious diversity. He also noted that the responses leading to current pedagogies were diverse with some people seeking to insulate the young from plurality and religious diversity by advocating for the teaching of Christianity as the religion of British national culture. Others intended to separate children on denominational lines by arguing for the removal of RE from state funded schools. These responses could be considered a nostalgic attempt to return to Christian indoctrination as an educationally valid approach to RE. Jackson further examined one of the current pedagogies developed by Andrew Wright, which recognises plurality, seeks to promote religious literacy and is aimed at producing young people who are able to handle religious language and truth claims with intelligence.

Jackson concluded the study by admitting that the on-going changes in religious, moral and citizenship education could be seen against the backdrop of increasing secularisation of society and religious plurality. He suggested that the most appropriate pedagogical responses to plurality in the school were those which provide a framework for promoting democratic values and respect for diversity within the law. This called for agreement about the scope of the subject and the processes of producing syllabuses that give close attention to pedagogical issues.

The foregoing study by Jackson is important in that it highlights the role of RE in a democratic and pluralistic society like Zambia. It also explains the responses of the subject to questions of citizenship education and the inclusion of non-religious views Zambian RE experienced at various stages of its historical as a school curriculum subject. The need for religious literacy and the emphasis on appropriate pedagogy are what our study advocates for Zambian RE as well.

The Zambian Scenario

As earlier alluded to, RE in Zambia has undergone a number of curriculum reviews from the onset of Western education to date. From a humble background of exclusive Christian sources, the subject now has three other religious sources of material which include Islam, Hinduism and Zambian Traditional Religion (ZTR). Up to 1991, these sources even included the non-religious philosophy of Zambian Humanism. The aforementioned reviews were a result of attempts to make the subject more inclusive and educationally acceptable to the majority of Zambians.

With the subject constantly changing, it is clear that RE has over the years been influenced by both socio-political and educational factors. In the colonial period, the subject was a preserve of the missionaries who took the RE lesson as an opportunity to proselytise and nurture the faith of their adherents. As a result, the subject was taught by catechists whose methodological approaches were purely confessional in nature. This practice continued in the immediate years after independence as the government considered the subject to be under the control of the church and granted the different Christian denominations the right of entry into schools to teach RE. Although the country at that time was predominantly Christian, in practice, this policy created problems because RE classes had to be divided on Christian denominational lines.

The Ministry of Education could not allow this chaotic situation to continue and requested the churches to consider coming up with ecumenical RE syllabuses. With commendable willingness and spirit of cooperation, the churches worked with the government to achieve agreed primary and junior secondary school RE syllabuses by 1972 and 1973, respectively. Cambridge Bible Knowledge syllabuses were accepted by both the churches and government as suitable for senior secondary school.

With cultural and religious pluralism on the rise in the country, the educational reforms of the late 1970s and early 1980s were aimed at breaking away from the colonial past and coming up with an education system which had objectives and strategies for an independent, plural, and secular society (Henze, 1994: 19), and which fully met changed aspirations of Zambians (MOE, 1977). This led to the introduction of new multi-faith syllabuses in the mid-1980s, with the inclusion of aspects of Hinduism, Islam, and Indigenous Zambian Religious Beliefs. In line with the secularisation of the education system, aspects of the then Zambian philosophy of Humanism and Socialism were also included in the new syllabuses.

In 1995, as part of his Master of Education degree, Mujdrica evaluated the Zambian RE syllabuses using a set of characteristics of modern RE. He concluded that the syllabuses were mediocre as they were not critical but encouraged mere appreciation and respect for religion. He recommended that the junior secondary RE syllabus, which was more educational than confessional, be extended to the senior secondary school level so that secondary school RE would become more balanced and critical. Our study supports his recommendation for a more balanced and critical RE and will, therefore, build on it by recommending genuine dialogue among religions, especially at curriculum design stage.

The post-1977 Educational Reform RE syllabuses referred to above have been in use in schools since 1985. Therefore, our study supports Mujdrlica's findings and recommendations for a more balanced and critical RE. We will, therefore, build on these findings by recommending for genuine RE syllabuses that meet some international criteria such as inclusiveness, promotion of critical thinking, religious literacy and liberalism.

Starting with Mujdrlica (1995) himself, later including more recent studies on Zambian RE also generally endeavoured to further explain the historical development of the subject the country and attempted to suggest how could develop beyond its current stage. In his 2005 doctoral study, Simuchimba critically discussed the development of RE in the country in the First, Second and Third Republics, paying special attention to the roles played by Church and State. He saw the State as the more active of the two main players in the development of RE as it set the agenda for curriculum reforms and syllabus reviews through its education policy directions. These policy guidelines included the pluralisation of the subject through the inclusion of aspects of other religions, including the non-religious aspects of Zambian Humanism and Socialism. After analysing his own research findings and different approaches to RE in modern democratic countries, Simuchimba concluded that though multi-faith, Zambian RE was still at neo-confessional stage of educational development and therefore needed to develop further. He recommended that the subject should adopt a critical understanding model which would aim at promoting open and critical understanding of religion in the country.

Simuchimba's work above was comprehensive and went beyond earlier studies by suggesting that a multi-faith country like Zambia requires a liberal, plural, and critical form of RE which also promotes religious literacy. His study, however, did not involve evaluating classroom RE teaching practices. Therefore, our study goes beyond his by using both pluralism and religious literacy to assess and evaluate current senior secondary school RE.

Cheyeka's (2006) study discussed the nature of Zambian Humanism and saw it as a catalyst for a pluralist approach to RE in Zambia. In elaborating on pluralism, he referred to Kaunda as relativist who promoted religious equality and neutrality, guided by his understanding and conviction that in a democratic society cultures and religions needed to be accorded equal value. In his conclusion, Cheyeka observed that following Kaunda's defeat in 1991, pluralism was dealt a fatal blow and RE in the country was at the crossroads. The foregoing study by Cheyeka is important in that it highlights an alternative thought on Zambian Humanism which happened to be the only non-religious source of material for RE. The study therefor provided useful background information to our study, particularly with regard to pluralism.

In 2011, Carmody published an article entitled, 'Multi-faith Religious Education in Zambia' in which he noted that as countries became more religiously diverse, there was need to review the RE syllabus to reflect the changes in society. In addition to an account of the religious setting of the country and a historical background to RE, he agreed with the need for a multi-faith approach

to RE. For the elements that would make an educational multi-faith RE successful, Carmody proposed that the Ministry of Education needed to set up an all inclusive task force to look at the syllabuses and that the final approval of textbooks would need agreement than arbitrary Ministry of Education approval. He concluded by stressing the need to look ahead to a more inclusive RE syllabus at all levels. The relevance of Carmody's study to our study lies in its support for an inclusive, multi-faith RE, which we consider to be the basic requirement for successful RE in a plural and democratic country like Zambia.

In an article entitled, 'Pedagogy for Inter-Religious Education,' Carmody (2013) explored religious diversity and plurality which have increased with globalisation. He proposed an approach to inter-religious education for public schools which would allow non-confessional RE in the curriculum. According to Carmody, his proposed approach is anchored on Bernard Lonergan's self-transcendence which falls under critical realism and attempts to solve the problem of subjectivity. The seriousness with which Lonergan's self-transcendence treats a learner's viewpoint leads to an understanding that the pedagogy needed for inter-religious education ought to be learner-centred in order to engage the learners actively and to stimulate genuine interest. Carmody asserts that in this way, a teacher is challenged to present traditions in terms of the learner's present situation and not as static and doctrinally frozen concepts. Thus, the teacher is further challenged to enter the horizons of the learner which is increasingly being made difficult by among other things, increasing class size and performance-based criteria for success. Carmody argued that the concern of his proposed pedagogy was to enable the learner to reach a level of freedom whereby he can be critical of his worldview while appreciating the distinctive perspective of the other as different. This should leave the learner religiously literate, ready to step forward into an increasingly diverse multi-faith and multicultural community, and to choose his worldview responsibly and wisely.

Although Carmody does not mention Zambia directly, the scenario he presents is clearly Zambian. Carmody's study is therefore useful in that it informs our study in terms of his proposed pedagogy which falls under critical realism which underpins the religious literacy approach we are envisaging for Zambia.

Methodology

Research Design

In order to adequately deal with the theoretical issues of religious literacy, pluralism and liberalism in Zambian RE, the study was anchored in the qualitative framework. Additionally, since it was not possible to involve many schools, teachers and pupils across the country, a case study design was adopted. The case study design was appropriate for this study because its overall purpose was to achieve understanding of how people make sense of their lives by allowing for the researcher to undertake an intensive and in-depth study (Cohen *et al*, 2007).

This qualitative approach employed a tripartite data collection mechanism involving in-depth semi-structured interviews, lesson observation and document analysis.

Population, Sample Size and Sampling Techniques

A population is a universe of units from which a sample is selected or chosen (Bryman, 2004). In the study, the population comprised all RE teachers, pupils and stake holders interested in RE. The target population included all teachers and pupils of RE in the selected schools in Ndola district and the RE Curriculum Specialist at CDC.

Since not all pupils and teachers of RE could be involved in the study, the sample comprised eleven pupils from School A which offers RE 2046 only, eleven pupils from School B which offers both RE 2044 and RE 2046, and eleven pupils from School C which offers RE 2044 only, four teachers of the observed classes, and the RE Curriculum Specialist from CDC. Thus, the total number of respondents was thirty-eight.

The study employed both purposive sampling and simple random sampling. Purposive sampling ensured that only rich information was gathered for the research as opposed to having a large number of participants. With this in mind, three schools in Ndola were purposively selected because of their disposition to RE. School A offers only RE 2046, School B offers both RE 2044 and RE 2046, and School C offers RE 2044 only. In the stated schools, simple random sampling was then used to select a class that was to be observed and the teacher responsible, interviewed. The pupils who participated in the focus group discussion at each school were then randomly selected from the observed class in order to provide an equal opportunity to all the pupils in that particular class. The RE Curriculum Specialist was purposively selected because he possessed the experience and knowledge needed to answer the research questions.

Data Collection Methods and Instruments

The semi structured interview guide was the main data collection instrument designed to allow the researchers to probe the interviewee further in an event that clarification of issues was needed. The open ended nature of the questions allowed for flexibility on the part of the researchers who altered the questions depending on the participants' responses. The semi structured interview guide was used for teachers and the Curriculum Specialist. It should be noted that the interview guides were standardised among the teachers so as to increase the comparability of responses while reducing on the interviewer bias.

The focus group discussion guide was employed for the pupils. A tape recorder, notepads, and pens were also used to record the interviews for play back in cases where the interviewers were unable to write down all the responses from the interviewee. These tools were very useful as they were used in making corrections and modifications when need arose (Bryman, 2004).

The researchers started with the designing of the research instruments which included the semi-structured interview guides, focus group discussion guide, and document analysis checklist. The RE syllabuses were analysed followed by non participant observation of actual RE lessons in the selected schools. After observing the lessons, focus group discussions were held with the learners. Data from the teachers was collected through in-depth interviews using a semi structured interview guide. The study employed triangulation of methods which is recommended by many scholars to reduce on the flaws that are inherent in the use a single method (Patton, 1990).

Data Analysis and Variables

Since the study was qualitative, the data gathered from the interviews, observations and document analysis were categorised and arranged according to key concepts which corresponded with research questions, and were presented in a narrative manner. The process of data analysis was informed by the conceptual framework. It was done manually and the variables that were engaged included religious literacy, religious liberalism and religious pluralism. The analysis involved comparing the interviewee responses with observations and the information gathered from related literature. Designation analysis, which is essentially a counting exercise focussing on frequency of mentioned concepts was also utilised (Kombo and Tromp, 2006). Much of the data was analysed as soon as it was gathered so as to reduce on misplacement owing to the large volumes of data that was gathered.

Findings

The first objective of the study was to explore the teaching and learning of RE in selected secondary schools in Ndola district. The data shows that in schools with large class sizes, there is generally little engagement of pupils who are taken to be passive receptors of information by the teachers and although the teachers said that they varied their teaching and learning methods, the methods employed in these schools were mostly teacher-centred among them, the lecture method, teacher exposition, dictation, and question and answer. In the 2044 RE syllabus, the approach taken by teachers was 'selective' and guided by the teacher's interest in that they choose certain sub-themes to be covered in the entire course while in RE 2046, the approach was 'linear' meaning that the teachers followed the syllabus topic after topic with a view to teaching all topics covered by the examination. It was also observed that apart from the traditional teaching aids, such as the chalkboard, all the teachers did not use any teaching aids in their lessons.

The data on the attainment of religious literacy through the current Zambian senior secondary school RE syllabuses indicate that pupils were exposed to Christianity and to some extent, Islam, Hinduism and ZTR. This exposure enabled pupils to question, interpret, and appreciate religious

language and symbolism. However, the Curriculum Specialist's view was that the current syllabuses were too foreign and needed to be revised to encourage meaningful religious literacy.

The final objective of the study sought to establish the values promoted by RE in the light of increasing religious pluralism and liberalism in the country. The data reveals that the pupils, teachers and the Curriculum Specialist were open to the inclusion of other religions in RE and it was evident that despite the bias towards Christianity, the two senior secondary school RE syllabuses included material on Islam, Hinduism and Zambian Traditional Religion. Data further shows that many of the values promoted by the two syllabuses were in conformity to the promotion of religious pluralism and liberalism. They include tolerance, respect, sharing, and self control.

Discussion

RE in Zambia continues to be poorly handled. This inference is drawn from the findings of the study which show that in schools with large class sizes, there was generally little engagement of pupils by teachers who took the learners as passive receptors of information and to a greater extent could be attributed to overcrowding which could not allow the teacher to have good access and contact with individual pupils. Even trying to divide the class into groups for the sake of group work or discussions was a real night mare. It is for this reason that one teacher said she always conducted group discussions outside the classroom. However, this practice has its weaknesses in that the outside environment has its own distractions. As observed by the researchers, the teacher literally had no control of the class during the time the pupils were outside the classroom as they interacted with other learners in the school environment who were not members of their class. Although one might argue that this was one way of making the lesson learner centred, meaningful learning could not be said to have taken place. It is worth noting that the creation of a conducive and ideal learning environment has for a long time been cited by many scholars as a prerequisite for effective learning. Therefore, every teacher as well as any learning institution should endeavour to create an atmosphere that is supportive of the teaching and learning process if any meaningful education is to take place in Zambian schools.

Another area of concern is the way the material is actually handled, presented or taught. Although the material can be described as shallow or low level, the syllabuses are book tailored. The teachers are always tasked to ensure that in their responses, learners strictly adhere to what is in the text books. Citing the 2011 Chief Examiner's report on RE 2044:

Question 13, on African Traditional Religion was another popular question. However, the 'OR' part was poorly done compared to the 'Either' part. This is because candidates gave their own answers which

are not in the syllabus. Teachers are once again reminded to ensure that answers come from the books (Muma, 2013).

Considering the foregoing report by the Chief Examiner, one would have questions that beg more answers. Why should the Examination Council of Zambia (ECZ) restrict learners to text books at the expense of their authentic experiences? What skills does the ECZ expect learners to develop through this approach? How does the ECZ expect the teachers to engage, for instance, resource persons to assist them in areas of the curriculum where they are uncomfortable when they are expected not to go beyond the shallow text books?

This text book approach, which we would rather call 'closed minded,' completely throws away the teachers' as well as the learners' experiences and defeats the purpose of having resource persons in the learning process. To restrict the learners to the textbook is indeed a very sad undertaking following that the subject treasures the learners' experiences as rich resource for learning. It is clear that the curriculum developers and the teachers may not necessarily have the experiences which the pupils have despite coming from the same religious tradition.

Furthermore, the little criticism of religious material exhibited by the learners show that they just take what the teachers say without questioning. This can be attributed to the use mostly of the teacher-centred methodologies, thereby making the attainment of religious literacy through the current senior secondary school RE syllabuses extremely difficult. While the lecture method can be used in different approaches, it is rather inappropriate for the religious literacy approach to the subject in that neither does it take into account nor value the individual pupil's experiences. It is clear that instead of making a critical analysis of an idea, the pupils' responses are mere repetitions of their teacher's arguments which are themselves regurgitations from the text books. Similarly, where the learners show some appreciation, such an appreciation could be said to be ill informed and biased. Such a scenario is unacceptable.

Evidently, the attainment of religious literacy is dependent on the amount of information on different religions that a learner acquires. Thus, exposure to different religious material is essential for the attainment of religious literacy. In the words of Wright (1996), it is not experience that children need as a tool to understand religion but an immersion in the various public linguistic traditions that seek to account for the ultimate nature of reality. The current senior secondary school RE syllabuses are deficient in this aspect. They only qualify to be multi-faith in so far as they have components on the four main religions found in Zambia. This is because in practice, the information covered on the other religious traditions (apart from Christianity) is so meagre that the pupils can barely articulate anything and can subsequently not engage into dialogue with those religions. Actually, the majority of the learners acknowledge that material on other religious traditions is not enough and they lament the lack of depth in the syllabus content and what they learn. It is also clear that the pupils intelligently explain concepts in other religions, especially ZTR beliefs and practices which are actually supposed to inform their identity.

While religious literacy underscores the fact that experience only is not enough, current Zambian RE merely serves to perpetuate the learners' experiences of Christianity. In other words, the little information on other religious traditions is only looked at in comparison to Christianity with little or no much reflection at all. The syllabuses are tailored in such a way that interpretation of religious language and practices is largely focussed on the commonalities between Christianity and the other religions under discussion. As such, learners do not look at religious symbolism and language critically because they neither have the time nor the material to reflect on. In order to encourage critical analysis of religious material which would lead to religious literacy, learners need to be exposed to a wealth of material.

Clearly, the current senior secondary school RE syllabuses in Zambia are still firmly grounded in the neo-confessional models with a small attempt at the phenomenological approach (Simuchimba, 2005) which, to a lesser extent, makes the subject to be educationally accepted. Unfortunately, the phenomenological approach has been said to be weak in that its main focus is empathy for the beliefs of the other. This does not foster the development of higher level thinking skills owing to the important concepts and abstract ideas which are either omitted or watered down (Wright, 1996: 174). It follows that phenomenology does not lead to religious literacy but to a heightened sensitivity. As such, the current RE syllabuses need to move towards the religious literacy approach which has many strengths including inclusiveness and the collapsing of the established distinction between 'learning from' and 'learning about' religion, thereby enabling religious understanding to become simultaneously academic and personal (Wright, 2003; Jackson, 2004). As they stand today, the two senior secondary school syllabuses can be said to contribute very little towards the attainment of religious literacy. In fact, their contribution does not go beyond the most basic level of religious literacy.

Conclusion and Recommendations

With regard to the teaching and learning of RE in secondary schools, it can be concluded that class size plays a very important role. In large classes, there is generally little engagement between teachers and pupils owing to teachers often using the lecture method, which due to its nature imposes religious knowledge on the pupils and puts them at risk of indoctrination. However, teachers defend their choice of the method under the guise of over enrolment in the schools. This method reduces pupils to passive recipients of information who depend on the teacher as the final authority thereby hindering the development of critical thinking skills which are cardinal in the attainment of religious literacy. Through this method, Christian teachings are presented without questioning while those of other traditions, especially ATR, are presented as outdated and without value to the modern society. This confirms Muma (2013)'s observation that ATR in Syllabus 2044 is presented in the past tense in most of the themes and consequently taught like History which may not have direct relevance or impact on present day life.

Furthermore, the teaching of RE is examination oriented. This examination orientation and the desire to cover the huge content of the syllabuses for the sake of capturing all areas perpetuate the teacher centred methods of teaching. This has further created a situation where pupils are expected to memorize specific Bible passages without even thinking about what they have learned, thereby reducing learning to mere memory work as opposed to critical analysis. Henze (2007) observes that the examination system in the country has focused on memory work rather than skills and the format of examinations determines the level of learning in classroom. Like Freire (1994), we do not support the kind of education where knowledge is 'banked' in the pupils' heads so that it can be 'withdrawn' at the time of the examination.

On the possibility of attaining religious literacy, it is clear that the current senior RE syllabuses 2044 and 2046 are clearly Christian oriented and cannot adequately promote pluralism and religious literacy. Three quarters of the content is Christian and the treatment of other religious material is shallow as they just referred to in comparison to Christian values or teachings. As such, the learners are not exposed to enough material to enable them become religiously literate. Denominational rivalries, from missionary times, are still apparent in the two syllabuses with syllabus 2044 being considered Catholic while syllabus 2046 is taken to be Evangelical. Therefore, teachers seem to be influenced by these religious affiliations in their selection of the syllabus to teach. Given their content and the way the current Zambian senior secondary school RE syllabuses are presented, they cannot guarantee religious literacy.

In view of the findings of the study and the conclusions drawn, we recommend that MESVTEE should revise the RE syllabuses so that the subject is made more liberal, critical and educational with equal emphasis on the covered religious traditions so as to reflect the current multi-religious scenario in the country. Furthermore, RE teachers should maintain high levels of professionalism to avoid denominationalism and the urge to proselytise. This can be achieved through in-service training of teachers. In addition, RE teachers should go beyond teaching for examinations if the subject is to contribute to the promotion religious literacy.

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THE CONTRIBUTION OF THE HOLY CROSS SISTERS TO THE EDUCATIONAL EMPOWERMENT OF WOMEN IN THE WESTERN PROVINCE OF ZAMBIA

Judith L. Ilubala-Ziwa and Austin M. Cheyeka

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Dr Judith Ilubala-Ziwa is...



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Abstract

The purpose of the study was to trace the contribution made by the Holy Cross Sisters (HCS) to the educational empowerment of women in Western Province, with reference to perceptions of former pupils of the Sisters. The study focused on examining how the Sisters have promoted the

educational empowerment of women in the colonial and post-colonial periods. To do this, the researcher interacted with sixteen former pupils of Holy Cross Secondary School (HCSS) and one former pupil of Sancta Maria School, a school which was run by the HCS in Lukulu District before it was shifted to Malengwa where it finally became known as HCSS. A qualitative approach to data collection was used. The methods employed were one-on-one interviews and focus group discussions (FGDs). The research instruments used in the study were semi structured interview guide for FGDs, one-on-one interviews and observation guide.

The study population consisted of all former pupils of HCSS and Sancta Maria School. The study captured a total of seventeen participants. A small sample was chosen to allow for the use of in-depth interviews meant to capture the perceptions of the selected former pupils. The major findings of the study were that the former pupils of the HCS perceived the Sisters to be their major agents of education for empowerment. The HCS empowered women educationally through the provision of school education, following the Ministry of Education (MoE) designed curriculum, the hidden curriculum, hard work, good conduct and their emphasis on spirituality. The study recommended that for education to empower women to contribute significantly to the development of the country, there should be more boarding schools for girls. High quality education should be offered in a conducive boarding school environment, in which the social, academic and spiritual well being of the individual are taken care of by teachers and other stakeholders. Such kind of education should meet the ARCCLEIIs of education for empowerment proposed in the study.

Introduction

The belief that education is an engine of growth does not only rest on the quantity but also the quality of education in any country. Formal education is highly instrumental and necessary to improve the personal development and production capacity of a modern nation. The Zambian government, through the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MESVTEE), recognises the need to ‘prepare young people for life by focusing on development of knowledge, good behaviour, competencies and attitudes as the purpose for learning’ (MoE, 2001). In order for learners to acquire these competencies, there is need for an academic and a hidden curriculum which promote the development of cognitive, practical, social and emotional skills. The development of life skills forms an integral part of growing up among senior secondary school pupils as this is the period when they question, explore and begin to cope with personal problems related to adolescence. Adolescence is a critical transitional period when young people want to exercise some form of independence, have to come to terms with their sexuality, and learn to overcome peer pressure influence (*Ibid.*).

The school, being a major socialising agent, is ideally supposed to promote the development of positive attitudes and behaviour through both curriculum and extra-curricular activities. The school combines formal (such as classroom teaching activities) and informal (such as peer and teacher influence activities) processes of socialisation (Datta, 1988). In fact the school could be regarded as more important than family, community and other institutions are in the socialising process because children spend more time in school than they do anywhere else. Teachers, therefore, take the role of counsellors. This means that the school has a major influence on guiding pupils in academic and vocational matters. This is even more evident at secondary school level where pupils are adolescents and ready to interact with their teachers on many issues. As a result of the contact and interaction between the pupil and the teachers, a pupil who is in boarding school might receive more positive influence from the school than one who is in a day school. Additionally, factors that may influence the development of positive attitudes and behaviour among learners include a good learning environment in which there are enough teaching and learning materials and competent teachers. However, not all schools may help pupils, especially girls to development skills that will empower them for their future. Depending on the school they attended, some women may be more empowered than others. The current study was, therefore, conducted to trace the contribution made by HCSS to the educational empowerment of women in Zambia, with reference to the perceptions of former pupils. The following were the objectives of the study:

- a) To trace the contribution made by HCSS to the educational empowerment of women in the Western Province of Zambia.
- b) To examine the views of former pupils of the HCS on their contribution to the educational empowerment of women in Western Province.

Literature Review

Christian missionaries played a pioneering role in bringing Western education to Northern Rhodesia, presently Zambia. A seminal work in documenting this phenomenon is that of Snelson (1974). Snelson makes a thorough but general study of the origins and subsequent development of education in Northern Rhodesia from the arrival of missionaries in 1883 to 1945. Snelson provides an authoritative chronological account of how a score of Western Christian missionary groups provided a break from the traditional oral-based education that prevailed among all local populations prior to 1883 to a written-based education. He rightly points out that it would be naïve and erroneous to assume that education never existed at all among indigenous peoples. A life-long education did exist and one that guaranteed life-long employment. What Western education added was literacy, numeracy and training in some exotic skills that also created unemployment in society. Additionally, the educated local people would be able to read the scriptures on their own and be able to evangelise to others, resulting in an exponential conversion to Christianity.

Carmody's (2004) study shades some insights on the issue of educational empowerment of women. He acknowledges the educational imbalance in favour of boys that prevailed in both the colonial and post-colonial periods in Zambia. Added to this is Gadsden's (1992) study of Chipembi Mission School in which she observes that in the 1930s government participation in education aggravated the differences in educational standards among the schools in different regions.

From the above, I conclude that mission schools for girls failed to empower women educationally because the kind of education they offered enhanced the gender imbalance in traditional education. Women were not educated to be empowered with skills that would enable them to work for the community. Missionaries seemed more involved with women's personal and family welfare than with the welfare of the wider community. Apart from earning income as teachers, the education the women received did not empower them to achieve the ARCCLEIIs of education for empowerment.

Regarding secondary education, Maina (2010) hints on the differences between girls' and boys' education when she observes that some parents have negative attitudes to secondary education for their daughters owing to the presumption that girls cannot contend with the rigours of secondary schooling. Maina (*ibid*) argues against the co-education system when she states that "African Traditional Religion discourages unrestricted freedom between the sexes. It forbids casual intermingling of sexes with the intention of guarding society from sexual immorality." Gender segregation in schools is meant to protect men and women from engaging in sexual relationships outside marriage. In Western Province where there is one mission school for girls, opposition to mixed schools limits girls' potential to educational empowerment. The HCS took into consideration the negative factors related to co-education when they vehemently opposed government policy to turn some mission schools into co-education schools.

McDough (1984) gave a comprehensive social history of the HCS in Zambia during the period spanning from 1936 to 1944. Her work covers the Sisters' efforts in education and salvation in their various host communities, particularly in the then Barotse Province. The book aims at providing a "Salvation History" for the benefit of future generations who may draw lessons from the Sisters' lives, failures, challenges and successes. The book is also useful to researchers investigating how early Christian Missionary Sisters strived to offer minimal education to girls. According to McDough, the HCS established their presence in modern Zambia's Western Province in 1936 following an invitation from Fr. Killian Flynn, then Superior of the Barotse Mission. The reason for the invitation was obvious and from the observations of other scholars, it was meant to meet the gender inadequacies faced by the male-dominated Barotse Mission.

Henkel (1989), Mwanakatwe (1974) and Carmody (1992) have all noted that the presence of female missionaries helped attain some gender equality in empowering host communities. Female missionaries were able to cross the traditional gender barriers that inhibited indigenous females from accessing the knowledge and skills taught by male missionaries. Hence, the

invitation extended to the HCS by Fr. Flynn can be seen as a prudent and positive decision towards empowerment of women.

The HCS made some reasonable impact towards the empowering of women in Western Province. Soon after their arrival, the first three HCS “began teaching and sewing for the Barotse girls.” This signified their intent to empower women. In 1940, the Sisters went on to found a boarding school for girls which was then upgraded to a girls’ secondary school. McDough (1984: 14) has succinctly summed up the work of the HCS at Maramba in Livingstone by stating that due to their efforts, “Maramba went ahead in girls’ education and at first under the HCS had the distinction of being the first Catholic boarding school for girls in Zambia.”

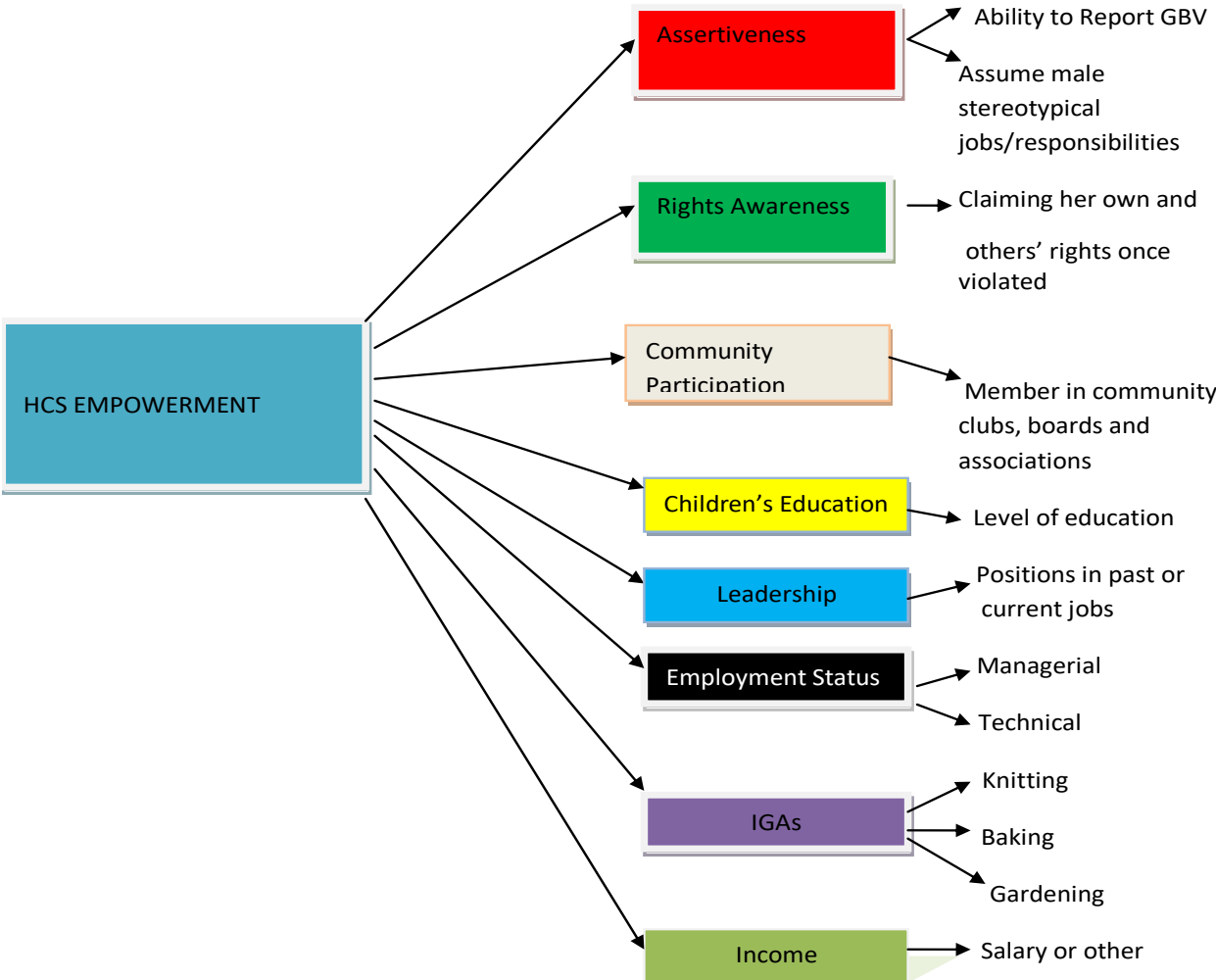
McDough (*ibid*) mentions Lukulu as yet another place where HCS made a monumental contribution towards women empowerment, especially through education at Sancta Maria, a school which was opened in 1937 and offered lessons in the traditional three R’s (writing, reading and arithmetic) and dressmaking. As a consequence of the work of the HCS, education in general at Lukulu flourished but “that of girls was always a priority”. Earlier, the balance was tilted towards boys’ education but with the work of the HCS, “prejudice against girls attending school diminished and more girls qualified for admission to the mission school for Standard III and IV” (*ibid*: 30). This helped to boost the girls’ confidence and boldness, making them believe that they were at par with the boys. This laid a strong psychological foundation for women empowerment. Thus, it could be said that the HCS were “appointed to improve their acquaintance with the inhabitants and to engage them to apply themselves to industrial pursuits...” (David Livingstone’s letter to Richard Thornton, 1858).

Though comprehensive, what seem to be lacking in McDough’s work are views of former pupils of the HCS. This study therefore complements McDough’s work by bringing in perceptions of former pupils. The silent voices of individual women who personally benefited from the HCS’s efforts needed to be heard. Only then could we have a complete and reliable account of the HCS’ contribution to women empowerment through education in Western Province.

Conceptual Framework

In the study, empowerment was taken to be a function of different indicators or factors (Zimmerman, 2000). Empowerment was the independent variable whereas the different indicators were the dependent variables. Another interpretation of this was that: Empowerment (independent variable) is determined or measured by a number of factors or indicators (dependent variables). A woman who is empowered should show these indicators while a non-educationally empowered woman may not manifest them.

ARCCLEIs OF EDUCATION FOR EMPOWERMENT



To clarify the independent and dependent variables further, a more elaborate list is given in the framework above where Empowerment is an **independent variable** and Assertiveness, Rights Awareness, Children's education, Community participation, Leadership qualities, Employment, Income and Income Generating Activities (ARCCEIs) are **dependent variables**:

These indicators are like rays of the sun which collectively produce light or improve lives for women as a result of empowerment. The indicators are among other critical components through which it can be justified that a woman is empowered through education.

The study aimed to establish whether women who were pupils at HCSS possessed the traits or indicators explained above.

Methodology

The study was premised on qualitative approach because qualitative data collected "lays emphasis on people's lived experiences and are fundamentally suited for locating the meaning and experience people place on their lives and for linking these experiences to the social world around them" (Asiinwe, 2010: 70). The researcher opted to use qualitative data collection methods (that is, document analysis, interview, focus group discussion (FGD), narrative and observation) which allowed for in-depth exploration of the issue regarding women education for empowerment and captured former pupils of the HCS' experiences in their own terms or contexts. By using different methods of data collection, the researchers collected a variety of qualitative data from various sources so that a broader view of the problem could be achieved (Creswell, 2009).

Sampling and Sample Size

The sample was purposefully selected by using the snowball sampling technique. The technique works by an interviewee identifying other possible respondents for the researcher (Newby, 2010: 249). The snowball sampling was preferred because it aided the researcher to identify former pupils of the HCS who would otherwise be difficult to locate. Known respondents were, therefore, used to identify other possible participants because they were more likely to know their former school mates. The sample consisted of sixteen former pupils of the HCS.

Findings

This section presents the findings of the study in relation to the objectives.

a) The Curriculum used by the Holy Cross Sisters in the Colonial Period

According to the former pupil of Sancta Maria, the subjects the HCS taught included housewifery, laundry work, needlecraft, cookery, mother craft and child welfare, first aid and sex hygiene. The HCS encouraged pupils to maintain their integrity as proud, confident, honest and

hard-working wives who provided for the needs of their families and community. The findings further indicated that there were no extra-curricular activities women took part in. The curriculum had a heavy emphasis on evangelisation or religious instruction and practical skills, especially those related to home management and childrearing.

b) The Curriculum in the post-Colonial Period

Data from former HCSS pupils indicated that several subjects were taught. Apart from the subjects taught in class, there were also co-curricular activities. The findings further showed that the HCS had their own hidden curriculum which encompassed religious activities, marriage counselling, good conduct and behaviour, discipline, worship and prayer, ways of being assertive, leadership skills, and care for humanity. The former pupils also indicated that the Sisters paid school fees for some of the pupils whose parents or guardians could not afford to pay.

The fifteen former HCSS pupils who completed senior secondary school said that attending the school was a form of empowerment because of its nature. They acknowledged that it was not the peers, community and tertiary institutions they attended that educationally empowered them but the HCS' approach to education. This approach included financial support in terms of money for school fees and material support in terms of school uniforms, books, pens and other essential commodities. The former pupils said that this support by the Sisters facilitated needy girls' retention in school. The responses by the eight participants who took part in the Focus Group Discussion (FGD) indicated that the school infrastructure was well maintained, the library was well stocked with books, sporting grounds and facilities were attended to and there was also a religious place of worship. They further stated that the Sisters helped to instill a sense of high self-esteem in the girls. The former pupils observed that being girls, they were not allowed to make decisions pertaining to the family and community at home. However at school, the Sisters allowed them to make decisions pertaining to choice of monitors and sometimes prefects at school. So from the fifteen former HCSS pupils' point of view, they were grateful to the HCS for enabling them to have access to school education in an environment which was better than home.

Five of the eight participants who took part in the FGD stated that although the HCS played a significant role in their lives, other teachers and parents also contributed to their success in that teachers advised them to study hard while parents mainly offered material support in terms of provision of food as well as shelter. The five stated that they attended HCSS when it was a day school; so if their parents had not provided them with food and shelter and other necessities, they would not have managed to go to school.

The responses of fourteen of the former pupils indicated that the HCS's empowerment of women was emphasised in their being role models in the way they behaved, dressed and lived their lives. They were punctual for work, spoke to pupils kindly and could easily be approached. Three mentioned that the Sisters were not only approached by pupils but also parents who faced

challenges in the upkeep of their children. The Sisters allowed the parents to express their feelings to them. This helped them (the Sisters) to resolve issues without necessarily showing any remonstrance. Two former pupils said that the Sisters attended to matters with urgency, which showed that they were serious minded people. The responses of all the former pupils also indicated that the Sisters taught them good conduct by showing them how important it was to respect other people and practicing what they taught. Two of the former pupils stated that there were no fights at HCSS because the girls imitated the Sisters' way of life.

Furthermore, the responses of three former pupils indicated that through the gardens they had at the production unit, they acquired new ways of doing some things, an opportunity they did not have at home. At HCSS the seed beds had to be neatly done and sprayed with chemicals for better production. These activities were done with close supervision by the Sisters. The former pupils of HCSS pointed out that the HCS contributed to the educational empowerment of women in Zambia since the women who had been educated by them worked in different provinces, not only in Western Province. The women were also involved in different religious and secular community participation activities. This is in line with Zimmerman's (*Ibid.*) view that empowerment is a function of different indicators or factors.

c) Community Participation through Religious Activities

Three former pupils who were members of the Dorcas Mothers said they were engaged in charity work involving making garments and supplying food to needy families and widows and ministering to the sick. Similarly, the two former HCSS pupils who were members of the Girls' Brigade said they helped in training girls in religious and sports activities, cooking, beads and doormat-making and sewing. As members of the Parish Coordination Committee, two of the former HCSS pupils said they worked hand in hand with members of the grassroots, the Small Christian Communities (SCC).

d) Other Organisations

Two of the former HCSS pupils said that they were members of the Civil Servants and Allied Workers' Union of Zambia (CSAWUZ). The responses from the two former pupils indicated that advocacy and campaigns against violation of labour and human rights were some of the ways through which women attached to the CSAWUZ participated in their communities. The data further indicated that participating in the community as members of the CSAWUZ was an important endeavour for the two former HCSS pupils who were members of the organisation.

Additionally, ten of the former pupils who took part in community activities said that they were members of Forum for African Women Educationalists of Zambia (FAWEZA), a Non-Governmental Organisation (NGO) whose mandate is to advocate for policies that promote gender equity at all levels of the education system in Zambia. They also said that the Re-entry policy, which allowed girls who fell pregnant to go back to school after delivery and when the baby was old enough to be left in the care of other people, was one policy whose enactment FAWEZA advocated. Data further indicated that the ten former HCSS pupils paid for membership and were involved in FAWEZA through initiatives that the organisation put in place such as strengthening partnerships between the ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MESVTEE) and other Ministries and organisations that enhanced the effective implementation programmes aimed at promoting the education of girls in Zambia.

e) Employment Status

Data showed that fifteen of the respondents said that they were engaged in formal employment, thirteen in both formal and self-employment, two in self-employment and one was not engaged in either of the two forms of employment.

f) Income

From the data collected, fifteen of the sixteen former HCSS pupils indicated that they earned a monthly income (salary). Of the fifteen, thirteen indicated that they earned above two thousand kwacha (approximately US\$ 366) while one indicated that she earned less than two thousand kwacha. The thirteen former pupils whose salaries were above two thousand kwacha, said that the income helped them to meet the cost of living. They further stated that through their salaries they were able to send both their children and their dependants to school, pay household bills and save money to start small businesses which acted as income generating activities for them to earn additional income.

The former pupil whose salary was below two thousand kwacha said that her salary was so low that she could only afford to pay for dependants' school fees and meet the 10 % tithe contribution at church, something she felt was more important than social amenities.

g) Income Generating Activities (IGAs)

Fifteen former HCSS pupils said that they were engaged in different IGAs including poultry farming, selling maize and second hand clothes (salaula), gardening, baking, buying shares in companies and leasing houses.

h) Observations

The observations I carried out at HCSS showed that the school had a duty rota strategically located at the administration block. It consisted of dates, names of teachers and prefects on duty, and also indicated whether the head and the deputy were in or out of the school.

Discussion

It is evident from the findings that the curriculum used by the HCS in the colonial period was underpinned by the gender stereotype that the woman's place was in the home. However, emphasis on home management and maternal issues helped in empowering women to solidify the family, which is the foundation of every society. Empowerment for the girl-child had come through the curriculum offered in previously boys-only boarding schools. It was not the kind of empowerment which the researcher proposes in the study.

Snelson (1974) asserts that "the educational story of less fortunate children, who had no close relative in the wage-earning economy, could not have a happy ending, no matter what sacrifices their parents might be ready to make on their behalf." By paying fees for the less privileged girls, the HCS contributed to their (the girls') 'happy ending'. Otherwise they would forever have forfeited the privilege of education.

The hidden curriculum encompassing extra-curricular activities and social and spiritual skills related to worship and good conduct helped to empower women educationally. Additionally women are better empowered when they are given opportunities to participate in different activities they are good at as well as ensuring that the school environment is conducive for learning. In the case of HCSS, it can be argued that the HCS played a major role in the empowerment process because they were the ones in charge of the day to day activities of HCSS. They contributed greatly to the spiritual and social upbringing of girls who might turn up to be responsible members of the community.

Cheyeka (2002: 178) asserts that "Small Christian Communities can be empowered or empower themselves to reflect about how they are governed and to influence governance in their favour". It is therefore a community participation venture which calls for interaction with people in the community. Community participation through religious organisations working to emancipate women is important as it has an effect on human rights awareness, promoting unity and harmony in society. As former HCSS pupils participate in community activities, their awareness of one's and others' human rights is enhanced. A nation which respects human rights is actually on the

path to social, religious and spiritual development as these tend to ensure holistic development and hence individual empowerment.

With particular reference to civil society organisations, a key function has been advocacy. Advocacy involves education, persuasion, and the public shaming of violators (Claude & Weston 1992). Thus the former HCSS pupils who were involved in community activities helped to advocate for a better Zambian nation. Out of the sixteen former pupils captured in the study, seven held leadership positions in different organisations. It is important for women to hold leadership positions because this empowers them to become assertive and make decisions on behalf of the organisations for which they work. To have women in leadership positions in private, public institutions and NGOs also enables women to fight stereotypes that are associated with women taking on leading roles in society, thus, changing public perception of women. Referring specifically to the teaching of Zambian RE, Katulushi (2000) says that if Zambian RE is to promote real appreciation of religious values and behaviour, then efforts should be made to include in RE syllabuses names of women models who are active and in leadership in various church organisations. Doing this might strengthen efforts by missionary Sisters, like the HCS, to empower women educationally.

With regard to employment status, the study established that the majority of the former HCSS pupils were engaged in formal as opposed to self-employment. Thus, the HCS' contribution to the educational empowerment of women in Western Province can be seen in the fact that most women who attended school at their institutions managed to attain tertiary education, which further enabled them to get into formal employment either as managers or technicians.

The study further established that the skills former HCSS pupils used to enhance their professional careers had much to do with the education they received at secondary school. The Lozi say '*mutu a koni ku ziba kwaya a sa zibi kwa zwa*' translated in English as 'to know where you are going you must know where you have come from'. Similarly, tertiary education alone cannot be a contributing factor to one's career choice. Career choices are best made at senior secondary school level. Those made at pre or primary school are usually abandoned along the way. Besides, at college and university level, students are normally left to do their work with less influence from the lecturers. I do not dispute the fact that the higher one goes in the education ladder, the higher the employment status. However, this might not work where there are not many opportunities for employment. In such cases one needed to use skills learnt from teachers to employ her/himself.

The question that arises though is, what about the values and skills learnt from parents? Muzumara (2011: 139) asserts that values are influenced by many factors including parents, friends, teachers, religious organisations, the media and many other factors. Thus the HCS could not be the only group that shaped the values and skills of their former pupils. However, the

former pupils of HCSS perceived the Sisters to be the ones who had much influence in their lives.

Focus on employment status of women who acquired their education at HCSS revealed that the Sisters played a significant role in the empowerment of women to respond to family needs and contribute to national development through formal and self-employment. At secondary school level, empowering girls with different home management skills is of great benefit to the women and society as it paves way for community participation through IGAs.

The study established that all the former pupils of the HCS engaged in various IGAs in order to earn income for sustainable livelihood for their families and community. The pupils had some background knowledge and skills which they acquired from the HCS who worked with them in various school projects. Though the former pupils engaged in different IGAs to raise money to support their families, it would not be uncommon for them to use the resources to help needy members of the community.

Furthermore, the findings established that HCSS had a duty rota, which showed names and persons and the duties to be performed in turns by each member and office bearers available at any given time. This served as an important tool of time management. In today's world where equal opportunities are supposed to be given to each member of an organisation regardless of their gender, race religion and background, the duty rota ensures that each member is given chance to perform duties and share knowledge and skills with others. The duty rota at HCSS helped to train women and men to do different responsibilities, giving each member of staff and pupil a sense of value, joy and belonging. It also helped to bring about a sense of competitiveness, allowing pupils to do better and show others how good they were. Additionally the rota gave pupils on duty a sense of responsibility and feeling that they were also important individuals in the school. This enhanced their self esteem, individual awareness and assertiveness. They felt to be part of the school community. The school also benefited through the pupils' determination to work hard. Finally, the duty rota ensured that the hard working and lazy staff and pupils were equally involved.

Conclusion and Recommendation

The purpose of the present study was to trace the contribution made by the HCS to the educational empowerment of women in Zambia, with reference to the perceptions of former pupils of HCSS. What has emerged from this study is that even if the HCS have assisted only a small percentage of women in Western Province, they have helped to empower many women who work in different organisations in Zambia. Like the sun which produces yellow rays to light the entire universe, the HCS have lived in a sunset hour of time and have heard the authentic voice of eternal renewal call them: 'You must henceforth be the moon. You must shine at night. By your shining shall you lighten the darkness until the sun rises again to light up all things for [women]' (Van der Postin quoted in McDonagh,1983: 93).

Educational empowerment of women was a major step towards addressing the systemic and cultural practices that left women to remain underprivileged. Thus the kind of education for women envisaged in this work is that which leads to empowerment, which relates to the achievement of the ARCCLEIIs of education for empowerment. This is a model of education that requires that girls are taught in boarding schools so that their social, spiritual and educational needs are satisfied effectively.

In line with what has been discussed in this article, we make the following recommendation:

The HCS should advocate for land tenure in Western Province so that land issues are not entirely in the hands of the chief but should be left for the people as well. Chiefs should open up their minds regarding land issues and allow investors to settle in the province. Investors could help the HCS, the government through the MESVTEE and other stakeholders interested in the education of women to establish more schools for women in the province.

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David Livingstone's letter to Richard Thornton dated 16 April 1858. The letter is in the Livingston Museum. The researcher partly read through the letter on 12 February 2011.

MENTORSHIP OF NOVICE LECTURERS AT THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA AND THE COPPERBELT UNIVERSITY

Madalitso Khulupirika Banja, Daniel Ndhlovu and Peter Mulendema

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Abstract

This article draws on the findings of a study conducted in 2011 to examine perceptions of lecturers towards mentorship of novice lecturers at the University of Zambia and Copperbelt University. Data were collected from 47 respondents. Two separate self-completion questionnaires, one for senior academic staff and another for novice lecturers, both with quantitative and qualitative elements, were used to collect data. Data revealed that both the senior academic staff and novice lecturers perceived mentorship to be necessary for the professional development of novice lecturers. However, the data further revealed that the absence of policy on mentorship of novice lecturers, indifferent attitudes by senior academic staff, overrunning programme schedules encountered by both senior academic staff and novice lecturers and unwillingness by some novice lecturers to be mentored negatively affected the mentorship of novice lecturers. Those who provided mentorship did so informally on humanitarian grounds. On the basis of these findings, the study recommends that the University of Zambia and Copperbelt University should develop policy on mentorship and that mentorship be included among the duties of senior academic staff to avoid unscheduled work overloads. In so doing, the two universities might establish mentoring of novice lecturers as a norm. To achieve this the paper recommends that senior academic staff should be trained in various aspects such as purposes of mentorship, needs of novice lecturers and benefits of mentorship. Lastly, the two universities should consider making mentorship of novice lecturers count towards one's promotion.

Introduction

This study set out to examine the perceptions of lecturers of the mentorship of novice lecturers at the University of Zambia and the Copperbelt University. Mentorship is a professional relationship between a mentor and a mentee for the purpose of professional instruction and guidance. In other words, mentoring describes a process by which a more experienced or knowledgeable individual offers assistance to a less experienced individual. On the level of terms used in the study, it was felt there was huge potential for ambiguity in meaning and therefore it is necessary to explain how we used the terms 'novice lecturer' and 'senior academic staff'. Throughout this study, the term novice lecturers is used to describe first time university lecturers who are still at the level of Lecturer III; and have between 3 months and three years of university teaching experience, and include both Masters and PhD holders. The term senior academic staff refers to lecturers at the level of Lecturer Grade One, Senior Lecturer, Associate Professor and Full Professor.

Trends in higher education in Zambia reflect a significant change of values commensurate with the liberalisation of the education sector. This has given birth to a massive boom in higher education that includes both public and private universities. However, these universities suffer from lack of appropriately qualified academic staff, low faculty salaries, poor libraries and teaching resources, poor infrastructure, over enrolment of students and lack of financial resources for research and for attendance and presentation of papers at international conferences.

The new private universities especially have had issues surrounding the quality and experience of teaching staff, as well as logistical and administrative hiccups. The public, established universities and education authorities have been sceptical about these emerging universities. This scepticism has been aided by uncoordinated expansion in the programmes on offer. However, in recent years the credibility of some of these new universities has been growing as more and more

people get attracted to their range of programmes, especially business-oriented programmes that they offer.

The competition brought by the private (and church-run) universities through the programme range they offer has compelled public universities like the Copperbelt University and the University of Zambia to respond by reviewing their own programmes. To cope with this expansion, which has put pressure on the lean staff available, the universities have employed two strategies; firstly advertise to employ already qualified staff and secondly employ Staff Development Fellows (SDFs). The second option is often seen as more ideal. As such SDFs are recruited enmasse and being locally trained, they graduate in huge numbers and upon joining their respective institutions as novice lecturers, they take on the responsibility of teaching most courses at first and second year levels, usually without any mentorship.

And yet novice lecturer mentorship forms a central part of university education in many countries. Mentorship can make the difference between motivated, happy lecturers in a academic workplace that is usually rife with issues of stress. However, interactive observations and discussions with both novice lecturers and senior academic staff at the University of Zambia and the Copperbelt University point to the absence of a systematic mentorship programme for novice lecturers to support, nurture and foster growth of teaching. As a result, novice lecturers face numerous challenges that include: inadequate knowledge and mentorship on preparation of assessments, teaching, professional conduct, and professional development. The current study was therefore conducted to examine the perceptions of lecturers concerning the mentorship of novice lecturers at the University of Zambia and the Copperbelt University. The study's objectives were to:

- (i) determine existence and nature of policies or programmes for mentorship of novice lecturers at the University of Zambia and Copperbelt University
- (ii) examine perceptions of lecturers concerning the mentorship of novice lecturers.
- (iii) establish the benefits of mentorship among academicians.

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Review of Literature

Since the seminal work of Kram (1985) many authors and scholars have been interested in the role of mentorship of novice employees in their career development. The range of mentoring functions possible, however suggests that developmental relationships vary in the ways they support individual development.

As Kram (1985) has contended, individuals are more likely to build supportive relationships at work if they consider what their needs are, which career and psychosocial functions would respond to those needs, and who in the organization might be available and capable of providing those mentoring functions. After a systematic diagnosis of this kind, it is possible to outline with

whom to initiate and build a relationship. Such strategy enables an individual to assume responsibility for relationships at work and to direct one's energy in positive directions. Those who feel isolated or "disconnected" from the organization will feel empowered as they build relationships that support their career advancement and personal development.

Moir and Stobbe (1995) assert that it is equally important to recognize the potential reciprocity of a developmental relationship. When a manager at midcareer, for example, provides sponsorship, coaching, counselling, and friendship, he/she not only furthers a junior colleague's growth and development but her own as well. By offering career and psychosocial functions the midcareer manager satisfies generative needs, stays in touch with a younger generation, and if the junior colleague advances, the manager receives recognition and respect from peers and superiors for developing younger talent.

Mentoring relationships have led toward a higher satisfaction, trust, self-efficacy, and achievement of career goals. These have led to better performance and encouraged individuals for higher commitment to the organisational development. The bottom line is that the mentor helps the mentee to negotiate his/her environment in the organization that he/she has joined. Through this relationship, mentors afford opportunities to the mentee to excel by eliminating barriers to their professional development.

As a novice, a lecturer is a long way from being a skilled expert and is, therefore in need of guidance. In the initial stage of their teaching the lecturer is more of an apprentice, someone who is unaware of their inexperience and eager to profit and learn the art of teaching from the advice of those who are already qualified.

A mentorship programme can provide for forums for faculty members to describe and reflect on their professional lives and issues. Mentorship can lead to, amongst others, a strengthened understanding of the roles of faculty members and to sustainability and enrichment of their place in the profession.

For benefits of mentorship to be realized, senior academic staff must play their role in supporting novice lecturers and avoid giving novice lecturers the most difficult courses and the most demanding related activities. In addition, they need to help poorly performing novice lecturers instead of despising and ridiculing them.

This process should lead to a culture in which senior academic staff and novice lecturers work together on shared inquiry into effective practices to improve student achievement. These systems work on the assumption that the development of lecturer proficiency is acquired not through solo study but via collegial deliberations. They seek to guide and facilitate the learning paths of novice lecturers as they become rooted in the professional culture of their academic discipline. Methods of teaching, student counselling and guidance and evaluation such as quality assurance methods, learning diaries, various learning assessment methods, ways to evaluate institutional structures and conditions of learning are important to a novice lecturer (North-South-South Higher Education Institution Network Programme, 2009).

The purpose of mentoring is to promote the newcomer's career advancement, personal development and education. The outcomes of the mentoring process are accomplished goals, role fulfillment and self-efficacy. Therefore, mentoring is a process that can encourage self-efficacy that enables one to take on a new role successfully and become a fully committed professional (Lawson, 1992). Mentoring researchers have empirical evidence that support the role of mentoring for career advancement. Many countries have adopted mentoring as a tool for career advancement. In Japan, mentoring relationships have been incorporated into the working culture. Mentoring emphasizes high value on continuity, obligation and duty between individual, the notion of respect for elders and the concept of seniors protecting novices from failure. These indicate that mentoring has been accepted more than a tool in Japan since it is already embedded in their culture (Enerson, 2001).

This review clearly indicates that mentoring is an important tool for career advancement among employees, including the academics. From the professional perspective, the discussion tries to establish the roles and outcomes of mentoring that eventually leads to positive individual career and organisational outcomes. Studies around the world have come to a conclusion that there is a strong connection between mentoring and career advancement. However, as mentioned earlier no literature exists on the subject of mentorship of novice lecturers in Zambia. It was therefore necessary to conduct a study of this nature and examine the perception of senior academic staff and novice lecturers about mentorship of novice lecturers in tertiary institutions in Zambia and particularly at the University of Zambia and Copperbelt University.

Methodology

Since the researchers sought to obtain in-depth understanding of the topic being studied, a case study design was used. This study design enabled the researchers to understand the perceptions of senior academic staff and novice lecturers about mentorship of novice lecturers. A combination of quantitative and qualitative techniques were used to collect the data.

The target population for this study were lecturers at the University of Zambia and the Copperbelt University. The study used purposive sampling to select the four schools. Purposeful sampling involves selecting respondents that manifest the characteristics that are of greatest interest to the researcher. The senior academic staff selected for the sample were those willing to be part of the sample and were able to provide information on mentorship. The novice lecturers were chosen by using the proportional simple random sampling procedure. This procedure was used because it provides respondents equal chance of being selected for the sample and reduces researcher biasness.

The sample comprised forty-seven (47) respondents, consisting of twenty (20) senior academic staff at Lecturer 1, Senior Lecturer, Associate Professor and Full Professor and twenty-seven (27) novice lecturers at the level of lecturer Grade III. These were drawn from the Schools of Education and the School of Medicine at the University of Zambia (UNZA) and the School of Mathematics and Natural Sciences and School of Engineering at the Copperbelt University (CBU).

The distribution of respondents was as indicated in table 1:

Table 1: Distribution of respondents

School	Senior Academic Staff	Novice Lecturers
Education (UNZA)	10	12
Medicine (UNZA)	4	5
Mathematics and Natural Sciences (CBU)	3	5
Engineering (CBU)	3	5
Total	20	27

Primary data for this research were gathered in 2011. Two separate self-completion questionnaires, one for the senior academic staff and another for novice lecturers, were used to collect data. These different instruments facilitated the collection of in-depth data from the respondents. Responses from qualitative data were coded and tabulated and interpretation analysis used, inter alia, to establish and describe themes and sub-themes emerging from the data. Data analysis further consisted of item analysis of the questionnaire responses. The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) was used to analyse the quantitative aspects of the data to generate frequencies, percentages, figures and tables.

Findings and discussion

This study set out to examine the perceptions of lecturers about mentorship of novice lecturers at the University of Zambia and the Copperbelt University. This next section presents the findings of the study with regard to the existence and nature of policies or programmes for mentorship of novice lecturers at the University of Zambia and Copperbelt University, the perceptions of lecturers concerning the mentorship of novice lecturers with specific focus on novice lecturers' areas of need, obstacles to mentorship and benefits of mentorship among academicians. Concurrently, a discussion of these aspects is done.

Given the nature of the topic, the analysis presented in this article needs to be exploratory so as to illuminate in detail the existing viewpoints of academic staff on the mentorship of novice lecturers.

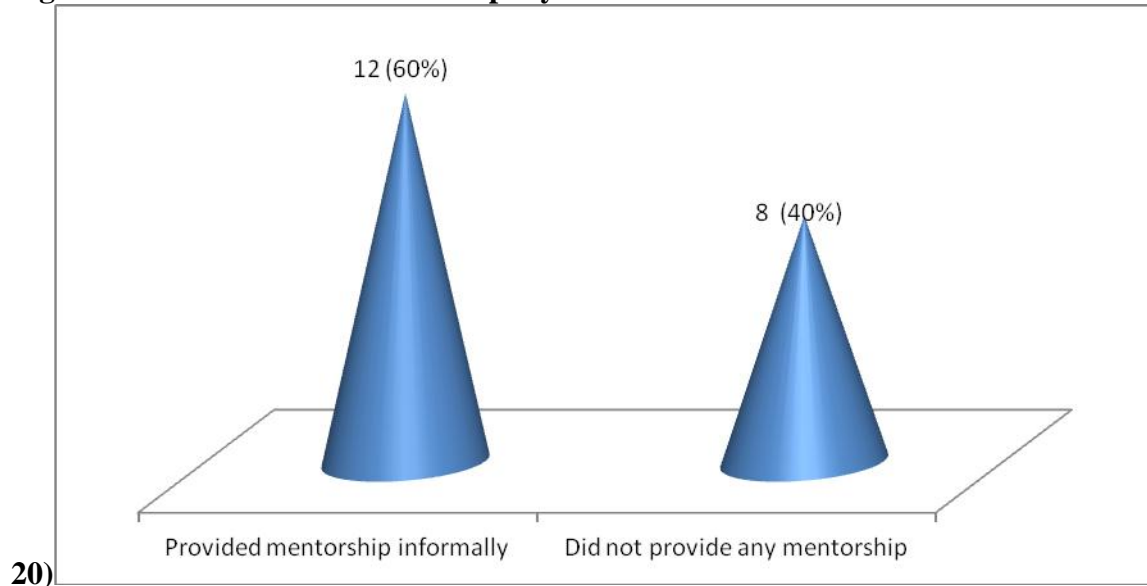
Primary data for this study were gathered from 27 novice lecturers (17 male and 10 female) of varying ages who had been lecturers for periods between six months and thirty-six months. Demographic characteristics analyzed included the age, gender, duration of teaching at university, and qualifications of novice and senior academic staff. In addition, the sample consisted of twenty senior academic staff (15 male and 5 female) all of whom had university teaching experience of not less than 6 years. The research sites were the School of Education and the School of Medicine of the University of Zambia and the School of Mathematics and Natural Sciences and the School of Business of the Copperbelt University.

Existence of policy on mentorship of novice lecturers at the UNZA and CBU

The results show that the UNZA and CBU had no statutory policy or programme for mentoring novice lecturers. None of the senior academic staff provided formal mentorship. Eight (40%) of the respondents admitted to not providing any mentorship to novice lecturers at all while twelve (60%) said they provided informal mentorship to novice lecturers. Seven (35%) of the twenty senior academic staff indicated that novice lecturers did receive mentorship from senior academic staff, ten (50%) said they did not while three (15%) were not sure.

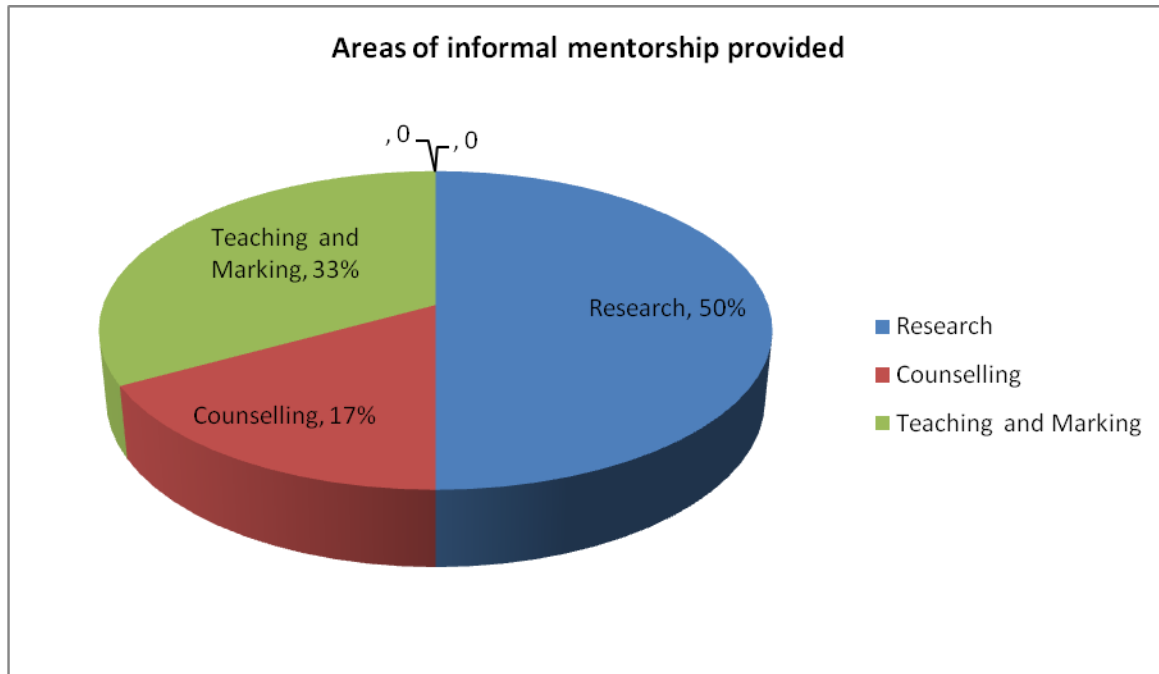
In response to the question ‘Why have you not provided mentorship to any novice lecturer?’, the senior academic staff who did not provide any mentorship to novice lecturers attributed this to the lack of a policy and formal programme on mentorship of novice lecturers. They added that their job description did not include formal mentorship of novice lecturers. See figure 1.

Figure 1: Provision of mentorship by senior academic staff at UNZA and CBU (n =



As revealed in the findings the commitment of parties to the mentorship relationship was highly questionable. When mentorship was provided it was at the goodwill of the senior academic staff. The twelve respondents who provided informal mentorship to novice lecturers indicated that they were motivated to do so out of a sense of responsibility and obligation to novice lecturers and provide professional support that would help novice lecturers acquire research and other skills and thereby ensure that quality education was provided and high professional standards upheld in the university.

The twelve respondents who attested to providing informal mentorship indicated that they offered mentorship in the areas indicated in the following chart:



Regarding formal training in mentorship, 3(15%) of the senior academic staff indicated having been trained, while 17(85%) said they had not received any formal mentorship training at all. Ten (50%) of the senior academic staff expressed willingness to be trained in formal mentorship while the other ten (50%) did not express interest in such training, and yet scholars such as Williams (2001) and Ganser and Koskela (1997) have emphasised the need to have trained mentors. As Ganser and Koskela have observed:

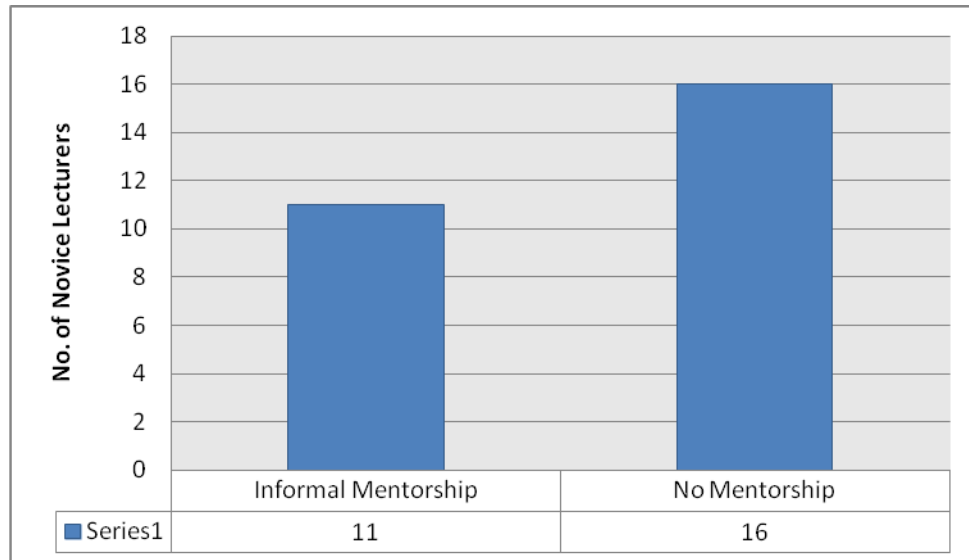
the success of mentor programmes was dependent upon the quality of training afforded to mentors. A mentor also needs to have thorough understanding of mentorship and thus, needed to have some form of mentoring training. (ibid: 54).

In addition to the reasons that have already been discussed, it appears at least to a certain extent, that the lack of training in mentorship could be behind the indifference senior academic staff did not offer mentorship to novice lecturers. But the lack of interest in being trained shows clearly the other reasons are equally a factor.

Similarly, the novice lecturers alluded to the fact that there was no policy on mentorship with eleven (41%) indicating they had an informal mentor while sixteen (59%) said they had no formal mentor since they joined the university as a lecturer. Those who received informal mentorship attributed it to a sense of personal obligation by the senior academic staff.

See figure two.

Figure 2: Nature of mentorship received by novice lecturers at UNZA and CBU (n=27)



Among the novice lecturers, five (18.5%) of the respondents reported that the level of mentorship provided was adequate, ten (37) felt it was inadequate, seven (25.9%) indicated that mentorship was non-existent while four (14.8%) were not sure. Among the senior academic staff, five (25%) and twelve (44.4%) reported that the current level of professional mentorship offered to novice lecturers at their university was adequate and not adequate respectively while 3(15%) were not sure.

In terms of who had provided the most beneficial professional help since joining the university, eight (29.65) of the novice lecturers indicated fellow novice lecturers, three (11.1%) pointed to their mentor while nine (33.3%) revealed that they did not receive any help at all.

The novice lecturers were asked about the extent to which they needed professional help. Senior academic staff were also asked about the extent to which they felt novice lecturers needed professional help. The responses are indicated in tables 2 and 3 respectively.

Table 2: Novice lecturers’ perceptions of the extent to which they needed professional mentorship in the first three years of teaching (n = 27)

Item	Never	Sometimes	Often	Considerable	Total
Understanding job demands	4(14.8%)	13(48.1%)	4(14.8%)	6(22.2%)	27(100%)
Preparing lecture notes	7(25.9%)	14(51.8%)	1(3.7%)	5(18.5%)	27 (100%)
Conducting research	3(11.1%)	15(55.5%)	1(3.7%)	8(29.6)	27 (100%)
Teaching effectively	5(18.5)	13(48.1%)	2(7.4%)	7(25.9%)	27 (100%)
Counselling students	4(14.8%)	15(55.5%)	2(7.4%)	6(22.2%)	27 (100%)
Developing course materials	4(14.8%)	15(55.5%)	3(11.1%)	5(18.5%)	27 (100%)
Writing journal articles	8(29.6%)	7(25.9%)	4(14.8%)	8(29.6%)	27 (100%)

Evaluating student work	2(7.4%)	13(48.1%)	6(22.2%)	6(22.2%)	27 (100%)
Practising self-reflection	4(14.8%)	12(44.4%)	7(25.9%)	4(14.8%)	27 (100%)
Participating in departmental tasks	4(14.8%)	10(37.0%)	7(25.9%)	6(22.2%)	27 (100%)
Managing personal stress	4(14.8%)	14(51.8%)	2(7.4%)	7(25.9%)	27 (100%)
Motivating students	3(11.1%)	14(51.8%)	3(11.1%)	7(25.9%)	27 (100%)
Writing conference papers	4(14.8%)	13(48.1%)	4(14.8%)	6(22.2%)	27 (100%)
Understanding work ethics	3(11.1%)	9(33.3%)	6(22.2%)	9(33.3%)	27 (100%)
Awareness of promotional requirements and procedures	2(7.4%)	12(44.4%)	5(18.5%)	8(29.6%)	27 (100%)
Participating in professional associations	5(18.5%)	8(29.6%)	10(37.0%)	4(14.8%)	27 (100%)

The data in table 2 shows that on most of the items, novice lecturers needed help in executing most of their duties and roles. This agrees with their assertions regarding their displeasure or dissatisfaction with the inadequacy and/or non-existence of mentorship.

Table 3: Senior academic staff perceptions of the extent to which novice lecturers need professional mentorship in the first three years of teaching (n = 20)

Item	Never	Sometimes	Often	Considerable	Total
Understanding job demands	6(30%)	1(5%)	4(20%)	9(45%)	20(100%)
Preparing lecture notes	5(25%)	4(20%)	4(20%)	7(35%)	20(100%)
Conducting Research	5(25%)	3(15%)	3(15%)	9(45%)	20(100%)
Teaching effectively	5(25%)	2(10%)	5(25%)	8(40%)	20(100%)
Counselling students	5(25%)	2(10%)	8(40%)	5(25%)	20(100%)
Developing course materials	6(30%)	3(15%)	6(30%)	5(25%)	20(100%)
Writing journal articles	5(25%)	4(20%)	4(20%)	7(35%)	20(100%)
Evaluating students' work	5(25%)	3(15%)	7(35%)	5(25%)	20(100%)
Self evaluation	6(30%)	3(15%)	4(20%)	7(35%)	20(100%)
Managing personal stress	6(30%)	4(20%)	6(30%)	4(20%)	20(100%)
Writing conference papers	8	3(15%)	5(25%)	4(20%)	20(100%)
Organising workshops and conferences	5(25%)	4(20%)	5(25%)	6(30%)	20(100%)
Awareness of promotional requirements and procedures	6(30%)	3(15%)	6(30%)	5(25%)	20(100%)
Participating in professional associations	5(25%)	5(25%)	6(30%)	4(20%)	20(100%)
Participating in departmental tasks	5(25%)	4(20%)	6(30%)	5(25%)	20(100%)
Motivating students	5(25%)	5(25%)	6(30%)	5(25%)	20(100%)

Senior academic staff indicated higher scores in the category 'never' and lower scores in the category 'sometimes'. This is consistent with the earlier findings which show that there was little professional interaction between senior academic staff and novice lecturers.

Perceptions of senior academic staff and novice lecturers about novice lecturer mentorship

It is not new that the study found that both the senior academic staff and novice lecturers perceived mentorship to be necessary for professional development of lecturers in universities. In the current study, age, gender and duration of service did not influence perceptions towards novice lecturer mentorship. Sixteen (80%) of the senior academic staff regarded mentorship of novice lecturers, as important. The reasons for this included the need to help novice lecturers fit in, settle and adjust to occupational demands at the earliest possible time. However, others, four (20%) felt that mentorship kills individual initiative and pressurised the novice lecturers to conduct their professional affairs in more or less exactly the same way as the senior academic staff. Twenty-six (96%) of the 27 novice lecturers deemed novice lecturer mentorship to be very important as they needed experienced lecturers to mentor them. In this vein, the majority (22) representing 81.5% of the novice lecturer respondents indicated they were in favour of formal mentorship being instituted in their school. In what follows, we consider the areas in which novice lecturers indicated that they needed help from their senior colleagues.

Areas in which mentorship was needed

The areas where novice lecturers needed mentorship included: preparation of teaching notes, research, teaching, development of course materials, counselling students, writing of journal articles, evaluation of students' work, self evaluation, organisation of workshops and conferences and writing conference papers and creation of awareness about promotional requirements and procedures. The creation of awareness about promotional requirements and procedures was singled out as particularly affecting the promotion prospects of novice lecturers in a number of ways. Significantly, seventeen (63%) of the novice lecturers felt that the lack of mentorship had affected their prospects for promotion. They felt that not knowing how the system worked, how to handle stress and how to manage time and work towards a goal had affected their prospects for promotion. In addition, because of the absence of mentorship, novice lecturers felt they could not competently write conference papers nor could they execute research appropriately. Others indicated that they had found it very hard to fully grasp the full range of the pre-requisites for promotion. This illustrates the difficult terrain that novice lecturers have to navigate. In support, some of the respondents linked promotion to mentorship as one novice lecturer lamented:

Mentorship is very important for our professional development. Lack of it can be disastrous. Lack of mentorship at the University of Zambia contributed to my staying for seven years without promotion.

Viewed in this way, it might be the case that had there been mentorship, vis-a-vis research and publications, the novice lecturers' curriculum vitae would have been enhanced, thereby facilitating promotion. In other words, the lack of mentorship was perceived to lead to stagnation in academic prowess hence the delay in promotion. This tallies with global literature on the topic which asserts that a satisfied mentoring relationship will eventually help towards a better career

goal and career advancement among academicians. The absence of mentorship leads to stagnated career progression. A wide variety of studies demonstrate the efficacy of mentorship in work places. For instance, researchers such as Ismail and Arokiasamy (1983) have argued that employees with a mentor support gain more promotions, higher incomes and more work satisfaction than employees without a mentor. Hence, it is argued that mentoring, too, has a great impact on career advancement of academics. William and Blackburn (1988) studied faculty mentoring in eight nursing colleges and found that mentoring types of role specific teaching, and encouragement were related to the research productivity of the novice lecturers. In the best of circumstances, the process of mentoring is mutually beneficial to both mentors and protégés in ways that include personal and career advancement for the mentee and professional stimulation for mentors. Having a mentor who would help guide a novice lecturer through the job demands and help him/her to reconcile theory and practice thus becomes extremely important.

Obstacles to mentorship of novice lecturers

On why they had not provided mentorship to novice lecturers, the senior academic staff reported several obstacles to the mentorship of novice lecturers. In a multiple response to the question, the respondents indicated that they did not provide formal mentorship because the University of Zambia and Copperbelt University lacked a mentoring policy and programme to guide the mentorship of novice lecturers at the two universities. In addition, they did not have adequate time (because of schedule overruns) to spend on mentoring novice lecturers. Furthermore, the expectation that senior academic staff would mentor novice lecturers was not accompanied by monetary and other incentives. Other reasons were that novice lecturers did not see the value of mentorship. Inadequate time caused by schedule overruns on the part of both senior academic staff and novice lecturers stood out as the most outstanding challenge to their mentorship endeavours.

Apart from the lack of a policy on mentorship, another core problem reported by the novice lecturers was that of indifference by senior academic staff to the mentorship of novice lecturers. It is worth pointing out, however, that this indifference can be understood in the context of the lack of motivation to provide mentorship. The combination of lack of a policy, lack of training in formal mentorship, and lack of incentives for mentors, coupled by a heavy work schedule, compels senior academic staff to spend their precious time on activities they considered more worthy. Other lecturers simply lacked basic knowledge of mentoring practices. As discussed earlier, only three (15%) of the senior academic staff in the sample had been trained in mentorship. Under these circumstances, novice lecturers simply did not have a choice of people to mentor them.

When the twelve senior academic staff who offered informal mentorship to novice lecturers were asked about the response of the mentee(s) to the mentoring relationship, eight (40%) said it was very good, two (10%) said it was bad and two (10%) said it was very bad. To this effect, one of the senior academic staff pointed out:

Novice lecturers need to show willingness to a mentorship relationship. Some of them behave as if they know it all. As a result, I concentrate on my other duties of my profession.

The lecturers who provided mentorship indicated that mentorship thrived in an environment of openness seven (25%) and collegueship four (15%). On their part, the novice lecturers identified numerous factors that determined mentoring relationships between senior academic staff and novice lecturers. Seven (25.9%) indicated a two-way communication, five (18.5%) indicated humility while eleven (40.7%) indicated joint research activities with senior academic staff as key to the mentoring relationship.

Benefits of mentorship

The responses point to the fact that there was no significant difference between the views of senior academic staff and novice lecturers regarding the benefits of mentorship. Under ideal circumstances, the process of mentoring is mutually beneficial to both mentors and novices in ways that include personal and career advancement. Nine (33.3%) of the novice lecturers felt that mentorship gave them confidence to teach effectively and interact with colleagues at a professional level, eleven (40.7%) indicated that the guidance novice lecturers received from mentors helped them settle down quickly in their job, five (18.5%) indicated benefits in terms of acquisition of skills on time management and goal-setting as the benefits which they derived from the mentorship. Further to this, ten (50%) said mentorship led to capacity building or professional development skills in the mentee while fourteen (51.9%) of them indicated that it helped them to understand their job descriptions. Novice lecturers further felt they had developed collegueship with their mentors.

The twelve senior academic staff that were in favour of mentorship indicated that it would quickly help develop new lecturers and improve the quality of services they offered, support professionalism and promote improved collegial relationships. They added that mentorship should therefore be part of an induction programme in university teaching which would support professionalism.

With regard to the benefits that the mentors derived from the mentorship relationship, five (25%) of the senior academic staff indicated that it helped them to evaluate their own professional status, four (20%) indicated that they learnt new concepts and ways of doing things from the mentee, three (15%) indicated that it accorded them the opportunity to help novice lecturers in their research when called upon, while others derived job satisfaction from being a role model.

In summary, the biggest contribution of this article then is to locate the perceptions of lecturers towards novice lecturer mentorship and analyse how these perceptions affected their attitude and behaviour towards mentorship of novice lecturers. This article has shown that the need for formal mentorship of novice lecturers at UNZA and CBU is well recognised and, is considered important, yet is still missing from the two institutions. This has caused a lack of interest in mentoring novice lecturers. The article has further demonstrated that where it is provided, even if informally, mentorship has benefits for both the mentee and the mentor. Most importantly, the article has discussed the negative consequences of the lack of novice lecturer mentorship on novice lecturers. Clearly, the position of both the novice lecturers and senior academic staff at the two universities agrees with the relevant literature regarding the efficacy of mentorship practices on novice academic staff in tertiary institutions. These are all issues that have been raised by previous research globally on mentorship in academic circles.

Conclusion

The main objective of this article was to examine the perceptions of lecturers towards mentorship of novice lecturers at the University of Zambia and the Copperbelt University. In numerous ways, the findings of the study show that although the benefits of novice lecturer mentorship are well appreciated there are still numerous bottlenecks to successful mentorship of novice lecturers at the two universities. Top on the list of these challenges is the lack of a mentorship policy at the two universities. Our core argument is that the lack of policy and strategy on mentorship of novice lecturers has negative consequences for novice lecturers, students and the universities as a whole and yet university authorities did not seem to fully appreciate the consequences of the lack of mentorship on novice lecturers' performance and student learning outcomes as one senior academic staff member pointed out:

Here at the University of Zambia, we now have more novice lecturers including Staff Development Fellows who have not been mentored but they stand in front [of class] to teach. What is supposed to happen is that novice lecturers must first observe long-serving lecturers [senior academic staff] teach then they teach under observation of the long serving lecturers [senior academic staff]. Without mentoring, as a university we are compromising the quality of training.

Much of the focus of this research has been on understanding the professional needs of novice lecturers and how the lack of mentorship negatively affects their professional development. The many areas of professional work in which novice lecturers indicated that they needed help from senior academic staff confirms the universally held notion that most professionals irrespective of their academic qualifications and professional skills require mentorship upon entry into a new working environment. This mentorship was also recognised by senior academic staff as being very necessary for professional development; hence the majority (60%) of the senior academic staff provided informal mentorship to novice lecturers despite the various obstacles like inadequate time and lack of institutional policy on mentorship.

Recommendations

Our analysis of the perceptions of lecturers towards mentorship of novice lecturers at the University of Zambia and Copperbelt University suggests the need to develop a policy on mentorship to take care of formal mentorship training programmes that are designed to assist novice lecturers have a successful start to their career. Under this arrangement every novice lecturer should have a mentor who would assume responsibility for initiating them into their job. This must include mentorship for research activities, publication and teaching. This might help university authorities become aware of issues surrounding the expectations, experiences and challenges of novice lecturers and might help novice lecturers to clarify and manage their dilemmas as they settle in their jobs. There is need therefore, to have mentorship that is designed to assist novice lecturers have a successful start in their career.

A key feature is that once instituted the suggested policy should ensure that mentorship is included among the duties of senior academic staff to avoid unplanned work overloads. The two universities should consider making mentorship of novice lecturers count towards one's promotion. In so doing, the universities should be able to establish, through mentoring, the norms of collegiality, collaboration, and continuous professional development and establish mentoring

of novice lecturers as the norm in universities beyond simply providing emotional support or professional socialization.

Finally, for maximum efficiency and effectiveness, it is desirable that mentors should be accordingly trained. Mentorship researchers have consistently suggested that mentors need preparation and training in various aspects such as purposes of mentorship, concerns and needs of novice lecturers, patterns of mentorship and so on as spelt out by Williams (2001).

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TEACHER TRAINING SYLLABUS REVIEW PROCESS

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Photo

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Abstract

This article describes what a syllabus is and outlines its characteristics. It briefly covers the teacher training curriculum of which the syllabus is an accompanying document. Further, the article looks at the principles for reviewing the college curriculum and the teacher training or education syllabuses. The elements to consider when revising the teaching syllabus are also outlined. What is involved in developing a scope and sequence chart for use in reviewing the instructional syllabus is stated. The values of the scope and sequence chart are also described. An illustration of the scope and sequence chart based on a subject called, Environmental Studies, is given. An exposition follows on the sequencing of content and learning experiences for influencing student teachers. Finally, the article deals with the monitoring system for ensuring efficacy of the instructional syllabus.

Introduction

A syllabus is described as a concise written outline of a course of study. It is a curriculum document which outlines topics or concepts to be covered in a particular subject. Thompson and his associates (1977) proposed that a good syllabus must have aims and objectives which determine the content of the syllabus. The content should be clearly linked with such aims and objectives and should be logically organized. A syllabus should indicate method of teaching (e.g. two lecture hours per week and one tutorial hour per week). Also, it should include prescribed and recommended readings and staffing should be incorporated in it. A good syllabus must be related to the age and aptitudes of the students for whom it is designed. Many syllabuses fail to lead to effective teaching and learning because their material is not related to

the points just mentioned. A good syllabus must be sufficiently flexible to be used effectively by the lecturers and student teachers of different abilities and interests. Finally, a good syllabus should enable learning to take place.

Development and Implementation Period for the College Programme

Having developed the teacher training curriculum which is consistent with the educational policy and which comprises teacher competences, areas of study or learning, aims, introduction, structure or framework and admission requirements, and evaluation procedures and soon, we should have implemented it for five or so years before reviewing it.

When it is time to revise the curriculum and its accompanying syllabuses we should take into account the following principles:

1. **Assessment of Needs:**

We should carry out a situation analysis which would enable us derive the rationale for our instructional syllabuses. The situational analysis would assist us determine needs and goals for the nation and students.

2. **Topics base on areas of learning**

We should write a statement of what each topic intends to accomplish. Topics and competences or goals would then be derived. What must students know and do to accomplish goals?

3. **Learner Characteristics**

Here, we need to take into account the learner's age, capabilities, interests, attitudes and values.

4. **Content**

We should list or consider items of subject content. Task analysis should be done and a scope and sequence should be carried out in order to indicate how the content should be organized and sequenced. Subject content items should be related to stated goals.

5. **Learning Outcomes**

These should be stated indicating what a student teacher should be able to do after completing a unit of instruction. Learning outcomes should be well sequenced and organized so that advanced ones receive appropriate attention. Also, levels of objectives should be considered in terms of cognitive, affective and psychomotor domains.

6. **Learning Experiences**

The learning activities should be selected based on the content and for the purpose of achieving the goals.

7. **Resources**

Teaching and learning materials should be suggested in the syllabus in order to help the lecturer in planning and conducting learning activities, and also in motivating and attracting the student teachers' interests.

8. **Support Services**

Here, we should specify the requirements for implementing the syllabus such as equipment, library, staff, etc. Instructional strategies should be considered as well.

9. **Evaluation**

Evaluation devices should be suggested in the syllabus in order to determine whether goals are being achieved.

10. **Pre-testing**

This principle entails the determination of skills, knowledge, attitudes and values already mastered by the student teachers in order to be able to cope with the next topics or learning activities. At every stage of syllabus review, prerequisite knowledge should be provided for the students to have before tackling a new topic or learning activity. Competences students may already possess should be determined so that the design of new materials is properly done.

The revised instructional syllabus document should therefore include the following elements:

1. Rationale
2. Goals
3. Teaching/learning activities or experiences
4. Teaching/learning materials
5. Assessment procedures
6. Scope and sequence chart
7. Term by term sequence/year by year sequence
8. The instructional syllabus
9. Topics
10. Goals
11. Content
12. Teaching/learning experiences and the strategy of presentation
13. Teaching/learning materials
14. Assessment

Scope and Sequence Chart

Let us now turn to what is involved in developing a scope and sequence chart as one of the elements of syllabus review. A scope and sequence chart is concerned with the arrangement of content in terms of breadth both from a particular class level or year and from one class to the next. Such orderly arrangement of content is generally designed to facilitate teaching and learning.

The learning experiences and content are determined and prescribed for each class level on the basis of interests, needs and mental capacity of the student teachers to comprehend at that particular level of teacher education.

The following procedures should be followed when developing a scope and sequence chart:

1. Consider the breadth and depth of the subject
2. Determine the major topics or ideas or elements to be covered in the subject
3. Determine major concepts belonging to each topic
4. Arrange major concepts into a proper sequence using the following principles:
 - a. simple to complex
 - b. concrete to abstract
 - c. specific to general
 - d. practical to theoretical
 - e. facts to generalizations
5. Sequence the content appropriately within the class level or progression year.
6. Correlate concepts integrating across topics-consider prerequisites between topics and subjects
7. Consider horizontal correlation with related fields
8. Check for continuity, articulation, balance and integration.

Scope

We should ask ourselves the following questions;

1. Have we selected the entire breadth of coverage of the subject?
2. Have we selected only the essential facts, concepts, themes, skills and values?
3. Are the topics selected relevant in terms of life and living of the students and in accordance with current research on the particular subject?
4. Are the topics selected significant, i.e. do they apply to a wide range of subject goals and learning experiences?

Sequencing the content

We should ask ourselves these questions;

1. Are the topics arranged in an order, which facilitates teaching and learning?
2. Which piece of content is pre-requisite to which?
3. What learning experiences should precede which and when?
4. Are the various elements of the content to be taught and learned arranged in a meaningful order of difficulty from one level to the next?
5. Does the sequence take into account the mental capability of the students?

Continuity

1. Is each topic developed further at each class or year level?
2. Is there a gradual development of each topic from one class or year to the next?
3. Are there any gaps in the progression of knowledge and understanding and skills?
4. Is there an acceptable rationale for any apparent lack of continuity?

Articulation

1. Is there any connection between one topic and another?
2. Do theory and practice go together?
3. Do students experience content as a unit? (Content treated as a whole)
4. Does learning include both interpretation as well as application?
5. Does College learning relate to current life outside the College?

Balance

1. Is there reasonable balance in terms of order in scope and sequence? (i.e. how much is quantity and depth?)
2. Is there a balance between breadth and depth of content and the amount of time available for coverage of material or content? (Content prescribed is sometimes too much for the available time)
3. Is there a reasonable balance on the time allocated for each subject in the curriculum?

Integration

1. Does scope and sequence take into account the fact that learning is more effective when content from one subject is related meaningfully to content in another subject in the curriculum?
2. Are contents, themes, ideas and facts interrelated?

Values of the Scope and Sequence Chart

The objective of a scope and sequence chart is to help the lecturer with the following:

1. Preparation of an instructional syllabus or scheme of work which is based on an orderly arrangement of the topics and content which has its basis on the principles of teaching and learning.
2. A sequential arrangement of the topics for the purpose of learning and teaching and the mental development of the students.
3. A clear statement of the content to be covered in each topic at different years of teacher education.
4. Determination of which topics are an essential prerequisite to which topics.
5. Ensuring that there is continuity of topic and content between any three years of training.
6. Ensuring that there is articulation of content and learning experiences within and between topics at a particular year level and also between and among class levels or year levels
7. Ensuring that there is a reasonable balance between breadth and depth of content between and among class or year levels.

Please note that a scope and sequence chart derives its topics or strands from the goals of teaching that particular subject. Therefore, in order to develop a scope and sequence chart it is necessary to examine the goals of the subject.

* An illustration of a scope and sequence chart on Environmental Studies is as follows:

Strand	Basic Human needs	Health and Safety	Our home and family	Our environment
I	The food	Eating good food	Finding and storing food	Growing good crops
	The home	keeping our bodies clean	keeping our home clean	keeping our surroundings clean
	The clothes	Keeping our clothes clean	Purchasing clothes for the family	Mending Clothes
II	Why we eat food	Keeping our teeth clean	Ways of preparing food	Farming methods and land usage
	Types of homes	Keeping homes tidy	Home maintenance	Landscaping
	Importance of clothes	Modes of storing clothes	Extended family values versus Nuclear family values	Environmental pollution and its consequences

The real strength of a Teacher Training programme lies in how the syllabus is devised and renovated. The key is in the word syllabus.

In a syllabus, student teachers receive a carefully considered sequence of experiences designed to influence them at teachable moments. Pre-requisites mean something and student teachers are held accountable for minimum levels of achievement before going on to advanced levels or goals.

Sequencing and ordering of instructional materials for student teachers is our primary focus in syllabus review. As we do so, we take into account what items we have already identified; which competences, objectives and activities we want to include in a syllabus.

It is proposed that an ordered choice of experiences for student teachers be given around Fuller's concern model for purposes of illustration. Fuller (1969) in work done at the Research and Development Centre for Teacher Education in Texas noted that there is an ordered sequence of concerns that most professional teachers pass through. A modification of this order is as follows:

Phase I: Concerns about Self

Level 0 – concerns unrelated to teaching

Level 1 – Concerns about self as a teacher

Phase II: Concerns about Task

Level 2 – How adequate am I?

Level 3 – How do my pupils feel about me?

Phase III: Concerns about Task

Level 4 – Are they learning what I'm teaching?

Level 5 – Are they learning what they need?

Level 6 – How can I improve as a teacher?

According to Fuller, these concerns are developmental. For instance, most teachers will not be concerned with impact questions until they have dealt with self and task concerns effectively.

What would a teacher education syllabus look like if it were modelled after Fuller's concerns theory? First and foremost, a careful study would be made of the concerns of beginning student teachers. Careful consideration would also be made of the order of attaining competences. The ideal, of course, would be to allow student teachers to acquire the skills and competences they were concerned about or those that would help them alleviate their concerns when they needed to.

For example, the teaching skill of questioning, particularly the use of probing questions, is one of those special few competences identified by Rosenshine (1971) as being a skill demonstrated by

effective teachers. The use of probing questions must obviously be preceded by knowledge of what a probing question is, in keeping with the sequencing alluded to.

However, the question remains, when should a student teacher be expected to acquire these skills so that they will be of maximum benefit? Obviously almost anybody could be trained to identify probing questions in a relatively short period of time. Asking the questions might be a slightly more difficult skill. What does the Fuller model imply for the prescription of learning this skill? The student teacher who is still at Level 3 of the Fuller model (“How do my pupils feel about me?”) would be most hesitant to use probing questions in a teaching situation. By asking probing questions he/she is placing his/her pupils in a position of possible embarrassment and awkwardness, of not knowing the answer. As a result, many student teachers would rather answer their own questions.

Another example of the Phase II concern with respect to teacher skills is classroom management. A student teacher who is interested in being liked by pupils would find it difficult to enforce classroom management rules. This skill normally happens late in a teacher education syllabus. The skill of classroom management occurs when the student teacher becomes concerned with his or her impact on pupils.

As for the monitoring system for the syllabus, we have to evaluate all its major components such as goals, content, pre-test, teaching/learning activities, resources and support services in order to determine if there are any weaknesses in the instructional syllabus so that revisions are done to improve it. During the implementation stage of the syllabus, formative evaluation of every aspect of it is carried out. And after the implementation of the syllabus, summative evaluation is done. The results of which are fed back in the instructional syllabus to sharpen it further. In this case, the student teacher serves as the primary resource for evaluating the syllabus. An analysis of his or her results of tests and other evaluation measures, as well as direct observations, made while the student teacher works, can indicate deficiencies in the learning sequence and the need for corrections. For example, the instructional pace may be too fast or too slow, or the student teacher may find a sequence uninteresting, confusing, or too difficult.

This phase of evaluation also permits the lecturer to determine if, at any point in the instructional sequence, too much previous student knowledge has been assumed or if the emphasis is on material that the student teacher already knows, therefore not requiring a high level of attention. Because of these possibilities, one or more try out phases of teaching and learning should be made before a syllabus is actually utilized. A syllabus should be tested on a representative sample of the student group under what will be normal conditions. The information obtained, known as feedback, from the evaluation of this pilot test may indicate that one or more revisions in the syllabus should be made before it is used with the whole student group.

The procedure of trial testing and revision is important to the success of the syllabus. It should relate not only to the suitability of goals, subject content, learning methods, and materials, but

also to the roles of lecturers, the use of facilities and equipment, timetables, and other factors that all together affect the optimum performance for the achievement of goals.

There are times when a new syllabus must be implemented without testing the procedures and materials in advance because there may be no time or funds for doing so. In that case, the College lecturers must rely on their observations of student performance during the first period that the syllabus is in actual use for the purpose of finding out if any revisions are needed.

In conclusion, the University Senate has stipulated the required specifications for devising the teacher education programme called Secondary Teachers Diploma. As applicants for affiliation to the University of Zambia, you are required to present a document or programme outline and accompanying syllabuses of subjects you intend to offer and the rules and regulations for the conduct of the programme and its examinations. When the curriculum and the syllabuses have been approved by the Senate, you implement the programme for five years before reviewing it. During the implementation of the programme each course lecturer should play a role of observing and recording shortfalls of the course and present these to the Head of Department (HoD) and Curriculum Review Committee of the College. The latter will consider proposals for changing programme and syllabuses. The proposals will be presented via the Advisory Unit for Colleges of Education who will in turn present the revised programme and syllabuses to the Professional Committee and the School of Education Curriculum Review Committee and the Board of Studies.

Conclusion

The procedure of trial testing and revision is important to the success of the syllabus. It should relate not only to the suitability of goals, subject content, learning methods, and materials, but also to the roles of lecturers, the use of facilities and equipment, timetables, and other factors that all together affect the optimum performance for the achievement of goals. There are times when a new syllabus is implemented without testing the procedures and materials in advance because there may be no time or funds for doing so. In that case, the college lecturers must rely on their observations of students' performance during the first period that the syllabus is in actual use for the purpose of finding out if any revisions are needed.

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