

**THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF ZAMBIA**

**AFTER INDEPENDENCE**

by

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## **DECLARATION**

I hereby declare that **THE EDUCATION SYSTEM OF ZAMBIA AFTER INDEPENDENCE** is my own work and that all the sources I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.

**M. SANDLANE (Mrs.)**

**December 1989**

**Potchefstroom**

## **DEDICATION**

I heartily dedicate this dissertation to my husband Mxolisi Harvey, my son Sibusiso and my daughter Lindiwe Nomampondomise.

It is especially dedicated in memory of my late father Cleopas Sulumani Ngema and my late mother Grace Mapitso Ngema who always struggled to see me through my schooling.

Finally, I dedicate this dissertation to my thoughtful brother Charles Sombuzi Siphso Ngema who sacrificed his education for mine.

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## **PREFACE**

The Lord is my strength and my shield,  
my heart trusted in Him, and I am helped;  
therefore my heart greatly rejoiceth,  
and with my song will I praise Him.

**Psalm 28:7**

I thank God for guiding and protecting me throughout this research and also for giving me the necessary strength and patience.

**M. SANDLANE**

# **ABSTRACT**

**Chapter 1 looks into the following matters:**

- **Problem of Research**

The problem of research is:

- to determine the changes that took place with regard to the structure of the Zambian Education System with respect to the Educational Reform and needs of the people after independence.
- to determine the changes in educational policy, organizational structure, school system and supportive services as a result of the Educational Reform in the post independence era.

- **Aims of Research**

The purpose of this study is:

- to describe the development of the Zambian Education System in a historical perspective.
- to define the concept of Education for Development (Draft Statement) and Educational Reform and its influence on the educational policy.
- to determine the changes in the organizational structures after independence.
- to determine the changes with regard to the school system and supportive services after independence.

- **Methods of Research**

The following methods of research were used: literature study and interviews.

- Demarcation of the field of study

This study is confined to the education system of Zambia in the pre-independence and post-independence periods.

**The theoretical structure of the education system has been discussed in chapter 2 as well as general information about Zambia.**

- The definition of the education system is given in this chapter as well as the components, namely, the educational policy, educational administration, school system and supportive services of the education system.
- The general description of Zambia includes the geographical situation, the political history, peoples of Zambia, economy and political structure.

**The historical development of the education system of Zambia is given in chapter 3. The following represent the main eras:**

- Missionary education

The Missionaries took a keen interest in the writing of the African languages and started teaching people to read and write.

- Involvement of the British Government in African Education

- The native schools proclamation of 1918.

According to this proclamation schools had to be registered with the administrator and teachers be certified competent.

- The educational policy of 1925

The educational policy of 1925 urged that education should be adopted to the needs of the people.

- Creation of African Education Department in 1925.

G.C. Latham was appointed the first director of African Education Department. He issued mission schools with a school code according to which all mission schools had to function.

- Education under the Federal Era 1953 - 1963.

The Federation of the North and South Rhodesia and Nyasaland brought about changes in the education system.

- Education in Post Independence Zambia

At independence the government aimed at giving education the first priority.

- The Education Act of 1966

In terms of the Act, racially segregated schools had to be abolished and non-free paying schools introduced.

#### **Chapter 4 of this study will look into the formulation of the educational policy.**

The following are the main issues:

- Formulation and content of the educational policy.

The entire nation was involved in the formulation of educational policy in a form of a "National Debate" launched by Dr. K.D. Kaunda in May 1976.

The Educational Reform aimed at providing 9 years of compulsory basic education.

- The third national development plan

The plan aimed at increasing educational facilities.

- The fourth national development plan



This plan aimed at improving the technical and agricultural aspects of education as well as the standard of Mathematics and Science subjects.

**The organisational structures in Zambian Education System are discussed in chapter 5. Attention is given to:**

- Different Education Ministries

The Ministry of General Education and Culture and the Ministry of Higher Education are responsible for the implementation of the educational policy in Zambia.

- Control of education

At the head of each Ministry there is a Minister who is also a member of the cabinet.

The Inspectorate is the professional wing of the Ministries with the responsibility of control and co-ordination of education.

**The school system and supportive services are exposed as follows in chapter 6:**

- The School System

the functional pattern in Zambia is 7 years of primary education, 2 years of junior secondary and 3 years of senior secondary education. The idea is that the quality and quantity of services still leave very much to be desired.

- Supportive Services

The educational system in Zambia uses various supportive services to facilitate effective teaching and learning.

**Chapter 7 summarises all ideas discussed in the afore chapters. Findings and recommendations are made.**

# **OPSOMMING**

**In hoofstuk 1 word aan die volgende aspekte aandag gegee:**

- Navorsingsprobleem
  - Om die veranderinge van die Zambiese onderwysstelsel na onafhanklikheid te bepaal.
  - Om die veranderinge van die onderwysbeleid, organisasiestrukture, skoolstelsel en ondersteuningsdienste, wat plaasgevind het as 'n gevolg van onderwys-hervorming in die tydperk na onafhanklikheid, vas te stel.

- Die doel van die ondersoek

Die doel van die ondersoek bestryk die volgende terrein:

- Om 'n historiese oorsig van die ontwikkeling van die Zambiese onderwysstelsel te gee.
  - Om die invloed van onderwys op die beplande ontwikkeling ("draft statement") en hervorming van die onderwysbeleid te omskrywe.
  - Om die veranderinge van die organisatoriese strukture, na onafhanklikheid, vas te stel.
  - Om die veranderinge na onafhanklikheid, ten opsigte van die onderwyskundige strukture en ondersteuningsdienste, te bepaal.
- Metode van ondersoek

Die metodologie van hierdie ondersoek sien soos volg daaruit:

'n Toepaslike literatuurstudie en onderhoudvoering met betrokke instansies.

- Afbakening van die studie

Hierdie studie is beperk net tot die onderwysstelsel van Zambië voor en na die land se onafhanklikheidswording.

## **Hoofstuk 2**

In hoofstuk 2 word die beskrywing van die onderwysstelsel sowel as die komponente daarvan, naamlik die onderwysbeleid, -administrasie, skoolstelsel en ondersteuningsdienste van die onderwysbestel behandel. Hierdie hoofstuk verskaf ook die algemene agtergrondinligting van Zambië. Die agtergrondinligting verwys onder meer na die geografiese ligging, die politieke geskiedenis, die inwoners, die ekonomie en die regeringstruktuur.

## **Hoofstuk 3**

In hoofstuk 3 word die historiese ontwikkeling van die onderwysstelsel behandel. Die belangrikste fases in die historiese ontwikkeling van die onderwysstelsel is die volgende:

- Tradisionele onderwys

Tradisionele onderwys was daarop ingestel om die kulturele erfenis te beskerm en te hernu.

- Sendelingonderwys

Westerse sendelinge het 'n groot belangstelling getoon in Afrika tale en het begin om die ongeletterde inwoners te leer lees en skryf.

- Die betrokkenheid van die Britse Regering

- Die naturelleskoolproklamasie van 1918

Volgens die proklamasie moes skole geregistreer word by die Administrateur en moes onderwysers as bevoeg vir die onderwys verklaar word.

- Die Onderwysbeleid van 1925

Die Onderwysbeleid van 1925 het die aandrang dat onderwys by die behoefte van die mense moes aanpas vooropgestel.

- Die daarstelling van 'n Departement vir Swart Onderwys in 1925

G.C. Latham is aangestel as die eerste Direkteur van die Departement vir Swart Onderwys. Hy het 'n sisteem ontwerp waarvolgens al die sendingskole moes funksioneer.

- Onderwys tydens die Federale Tydperk 1953-1963.

Die Federasie van Noord- en Suid-Rhodesië en Nyasaland het veranderinge aan die onderwysstelsel gemaak.

- Onderwys in Zambië na onafhanklikheid.

Met onafhanklikheidswording van Zambië was dit die doel van die regering om onderwys prioriteit te gee.

- Die Onderwyswet van 1966

Volgens die wet moes skole wat op rassegrondslag gefunksioneer het, plek maak vir onderwysinrigtings waar gratis onderwys aangebied word.

#### **Hoofstuk 4**

In hoofstuk 4 word die formulering van die onderwysbeleid ondersoek. Die volgende is die belangrikste aspekte daarvan:

- Formulering en inhoud van die onderwysbeleid

Die hele bevolking was betrokke by die formulering van die onderwysbeleid by wyse van 'n "Nasionale debat" wat deur dr. Kaunda geloods is op 24 Mei 1976.

Die onderwys hervorming het as doel gehad om verpligte basiese onderwys wat nege jaar sou duur, in te stel.

- Die Derde Nasionale Ontwikkelingsplan

Die doel van die plan was om die onderwysfasiliteite te verbeter en te vermeerder.

- Die Vierde Nasionale Ontwikkelingsplan

Hierdie plan het gemik om die tegniese en landboukundige aspekte van die onderwys te verbeter asook die standaard van Wiskunde en Wetenskap.

### **Die organisasiestruktuur van die Zambiese onderwysstelsel word in hoofstuk 5 bespreek.**

Aandag is gegee aan die volgende sake:

- Verskillende ministeries van onderwys

Die Ministerie van Algemene Onderwys en Kultuur asook die Ministerie vir Hoër Onderwys is verantwoordelik vir die implementering van die onderwysbeleid in Zambië.

- Beheer van onderwys

Aan die hoof van die ministerie staan 'n minister wat ook lid is van die kabinet.

Die inspektoraat is die professionele arm van die Ministerie met die opdrag om die beheer en koördinasie van die onderwys te behartig.

### **Die skoolstelsel en ondersteuningsdienste word in hoofstuk 6 soos volg toegelig:**

- Skoolstelsel

Die onderrigpatroon op skoolvlak in Zambië lyk soos volg: sewe jaar primêre onderwys, twee jaar junior sekondêre en drie jaar senior sekondêre

onderwys. Verskillende soorte onderwysinrigtings op die verskillende onderwysvlakke word aangetref. Dit word algemeen aanvaar dat die kwaliteit en kwantiteit van die onderwysdienste steeds veel te wense oorlaat.

- Ondersteuningsdienste

Die onderwysstelsel in Zambië gebruik verskillende ondersteuningsdienste om onderrig-leer gemakliker en doeltreffender te maak.

## **Hoofstuk 7**

Hoofstuk 7 is 'n samevatting van alle idees wat in die vorige hoofstukke behandel is. Bevindings en aanbevelings word uit die verworwe navorsingsgegewens gemaak.

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# **CHAPTER 1**

## **ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY**

### **1.1 INTRODUCTION**

At the time of independence in October 1964, Zambians inherited an exceptionally weak education profile. It was woefully inadequate to meet the challenges of the post-colonial society. There were few trade schools and no University Institution. A vexing feature of the Zambian Educational System at independence was the racial segregation of the students (Lungu, 1985:289).

The Education Act of 1966 abolished racial segregation in the education system, introduced non-fee paying school registration in Mission-controlled and Public Schools, nationalized several Mission Schools and abolished the Sixth Form or Advanced Level Certificate programmes. The Act increased access to education. 'Educational Reform' became the national ideal. The changes were brought about because Zambia, like many other developing countries, is addressing itself to the challenges of old and new problems of educational development, for example, a shortage of trained teachers, especially in Science subjects, and the lack of suitable and adequate teaching and learning materials such as textbooks and the availability of educational facilities (Kaluba, 1982:159). The government and the different functionaries of the education system were therefore determined to build a sound and efficient education system for Zambians as advocated by the Phelps-Stokes Commission (Mwanakatwe, 1968:20).

### **1.2 PROBLEMS OF RESEARCH**

The problem of research is located in the question as to what changes have taken place with regard to the structure of the Zambian Education System with respect to the Educational Reform and needs of the people after Independence. Have the education policies, organizational structure, school system and supportive services changed as a result of Educational Reform?

### **1.3 AIMS OF RESEARCH**

This study intends to investigate the education of Africans in Zambia. Most importantly the research will trace the educational changes brought about by independence and point out how these changes were necessitated by the educational needs of the people, as reflected in Educational Reform.

The aims of the research can therefore be put as follows:

- To describe the development of the Zambian Education System in a historical perspective;
- to define the concepts of Education for Development (Draft Statement) and Educational Reform (Functional Policy) and their influence on the educational policy;
- to determine the changes in the organizational structures after independence; and
- to determine the changes with regard to the school system and the supportive services after independence.

### **1.4 DEMARCATION OF THE FIELD OF STUDY**

#### **1.4.1 GENERAL**

This study confines itself to the Education System of Zambia in the pre-independence and post-independence periods, with special emphasis on the post-independence period.

#### **1.4.2 DEMARCATION OF THE FIELD OF STUDY IN TERMS OF THE EXPLANATION OF THE MAIN CONCEPTS CONTAINED IN THE TITLE OF THIS STUDY**

##### **1.4.2.1 Zambia**

Zambia, formerly Northern Rhodesia and a British Colony, became politically independent in 1964, with Dr. Kenneth David Kaunda as the first president. The



name Zambia is derived from the Zambezi River. It lies in the heart of Southern Africa and entirely within the tropics of Capricorn and Cancer with an area of 752,614 sq km. The main ethnic groups include Bemba, Nyanja, Barotse, Mambwe, Jumbuka and Swahili. English is the official language (Britannica Vol. 12, 1988:890).

#### **1.4.2.2 The Educational System**

The term system of education refers to a society's total pattern of formal institutions, agencies and organizations that transmit knowledge and the cultural heritage and that influence the social and intellectual growth of the individual (Britannica Vol. 18, 1988:115).

### **1.5 METHODS OF INVESTIGATION**

The following methods of research have been used:

#### **1.5.1 LITERATURE STUDY**

In this project a literature study was undertaken. The sources were obtained in the libraries of the Potchefstroom University for Christian Higher Education, the University of South Africa, the University of the Witwatersrand, Zambia National Archives and finally largely at the University of Zambia.

An extensive literature study included secondary and primary sources, the latter in the form of Annual Reports, Circulars, Journals and Newspapers.

#### **1.5.2 INTERVIEWS**

During a research visit to Zambia, unstructured interviews were conducted with officials of the Ministry of General Education and Culture, the Ministry of Higher Education and other people concerned with a view to verifying the information gained from the literature study.

### **1.6 STRUCTURE OF THE STUDY**

Chapter 1 is mainly an orientation to the whole study.

To understand the theoretical structure of an education system, Chapter 2

discusses the components of an education system. This section also provides a general description of the country investigated in the study.

The historical perspective on the Zambian Education System is discussed in Chapter 3.

Chapter 4 deals with the formulation of the educational policy in Zambia and indicates how Educational Reform functions.

The organizational structures involved in the implementation of the educational policy are discussed in Chapter 5.

Chapter 6 discusses the school system, from pre-primary school to tertiary level, and it also discusses the Supportive Services in the Zambian Education.

The summary of the study is given in Chapter 7. Findings and recommendations are clearly set out in this chapter. The structural and general overview is briefly discussed.

## **1.7 ABBREVIATIONS**

Abbreviations used in this study are set out below (Coombe & Per Lauvas, 1984:ii-iii).

### **ABBREVIATIONS**

AVS	Audio-Visual Aids Service
BSAC	British South Africa Company
CDC	Curriculum Development Centre
DANIDA	Danish International Development Agency
DTEVT	Department of Technical Education and Vocational Training
EBS	Educational Broadcasting Services
ERB	Educational Research Bureau
ERS	Educational Radio Service
ETVS	Educational Television Service

<b>FINNIDA</b>	<b>Finnish International Development Authority</b>
<b>FNDP</b>	<b>First National Development Plan</b>
<b>GCE</b>	<b>General Certificate of Education</b>
<b>GNP</b>	<b>Gross National Product</b>
<b>GRZ</b>	<b>Government of the Republic of Zambia</b>
<b>K</b>	<b>Zambian Kwacha</b>
<b>MEC</b>	<b>(Former) Ministry of Education and Culture</b>
<b>MGEC</b>	<b>Ministry of General Education and Culture</b>
<b>MHE</b>	<b>Ministry of Higher Education</b>
<b>MOE</b>	<b>(Former) Ministry of Education</b>
<b>NECZAM</b>	<b>National Educational Company of Zambia</b>
<b>NEDCOZ</b>	<b>National Educational Distribution Company of Zambia</b>
<b>NORAD</b>	<b>Norwegian Agency for International Development</b>
<b>PS</b>	<b>Permanent Secretary</b>
<b>PTA</b>	<b>Parent-Teacher's Association</b>
<b>PU</b>	<b>Production Unit</b>
<b>SIDA</b>	<b>Swedish International Development Authority</b>
<b>SNDP</b>	<b>Second National Development Plan</b>
<b>SSG</b>	<b>Supervised Study Groups</b>
<b>TNDP</b>	<b>Third National Development Plan</b>
<b>UNESCO</b>	<b>United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization</b>
<b>UNIP</b>	<b>United National Independence Party</b>
<b>UNZA</b>	<b>University of Zambia</b>
<b>ZBS</b>	<b>Zambia Broadcasting Services</b>
<b>ZCS</b>	<b>Zambia Cultural Services</b>
<b>ZEMP</b>	<b>Zambian Educational Material Project</b>
<b>ZPA</b>	<b>Zambia pre-School Association</b>
<b>ZPC</b>	<b>Zambia Primary Course</b>
<b>ZNS</b>	<b>Zambia National Service</b>

## **1.8 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In this chapter the reader has been orientated to the whole study. The problems, aims and methods of research, demarcation of the field of study and the structure of the dissertation have been discussed.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **THEORETICAL STRUCTURE OF AN EDUCATION SYSTEM AND THE GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF ZAMBIA**

#### **2.1 INTRODUCTION**

In this chapter the theoretical structure of an education system is discussed together with an explanation of the concepts Educational Policy, Educational Administration, School System and Supportive Services. This chapter highlights the situation in Zambia, the country studied, by briefly giving its geographical situation, general history, peoples, economy and the political structure.

#### **2.2 DEFINITION OF EDUCATION SYSTEM**

The education system is an interwoven structure in which social structures of a given society combine with educational institutions so that, by the co-ordination with education of each one's contribution to education, and by organization, they may bring about the accelerated development of the young in the territory of a specific state, in compliance with the cultural and natural demands of time and place (Stone, 1981:130).

#### **2.3 COMPONENTS OF EDUCATION SYSTEMS**

##### **2.3.1 THE EDUCATIONAL POLICY**

The education of the child is a responsibility to be assumed by every community and, as a result, the nature of education envisaged for the non-adult of any target group is determined by the ground-motives or philosophy of life of that particular community. Viewed in this light, the community may decide that education of its youth must be of a religious nature, or it may prefer either a differentiated or integrated education, or it can require a merely vocationally centred or an academic education. These educational desires or expectations arise from man's philosophy of life and are expressed in some form of

educational policy which is put into effect by legislation on education (Van Schalkwyk, 1986:64).

The educational policy is therefore the expression of the manner in which the identified educational needs of the target group can be met. It is binding in nature and entails the fixation of decisions in respect of the structures to be created, the facilities to be provided, the services to be rendered and the actions to be carried out. The educational policy therefore represents the basis, the points of departure for the institution and composition of the education system in order to meet the educational needs of the target group (Steyn, 1988:19).

The educational policy is therefore the product of the community, and Steyn (1988:19) succinctly defines it as "die instrument waardeur verseker moet word dat die gestelde doelstellings en doelwitte van 'n bepaalde onderwysstelsel in die praktyk nagestreef en bereik word".

### **2.3.2 EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION**

"Educational administration" is a very general term which refers to executive or implementary organs as well as their functions. The main and indeed the all-inclusive task of educational administration can be seen as the interpretation and detailed specification of enactments of legislature in order to supply educational practice with useful and necessary guidelines (Rupertli, 1976:57).

In the education system the officials are usually divided into groups responsible for educational management and for carrying out certain identified tasks. Another important task of the functionaries in the education system is to see to it that funds for the financing of education are used effectively. Usually the organizational structures are referred to as control structures, and in such cases structures such as Ministries of Education and Departments of Education are included (Steyn, 1988:26-27).

### **2.3.3 THE SCHOOL SYSTEM**

The "School System" refers to all educational institutions such as pre-primary, primary, secondary and tertiary educational institutions (Steyn, 1988:32). Such

institutions afford the learners an opportunity to be reserated differentiatedly, that is, according to their differentiated educational needs and in accordance with their levels of development.

The primary task of the school system is therefore the creation of a teaching-learning situation in such a way that provision if made for the learner's divergent aptitudes and interests. It is also of vital importance that in the school system facets such as learning opportunities, learners, teachers, medium of instruction and physical facilities should be taken into account (Steyn, 1988:32).

#### **2.3.4 SUPPORTIVE SERVICES**

The school as a place where formative education takes place and where the educator and educand meet each other in a pedagogical-didactical situation, is never self-sufficient. It is part and parcel of the continuously changing worlds and as a result the teacher's knowledge, skills and methods eventually become outdated. On the basis of this fact, formative education depends entirely on organised external help given to individual schools so that teaching and learning can proceed more efficiently in them (Van Schalkwyk, 1986:157).

"Supportive Services" can be categorised as supporting services to the learners such as medical services, guidance, school library services, school music services and school transport services. The second category is supporting services to the teachers, including services like curricular services, examination services, subject advisory services and professional services (Steyn, 1988:39).

## **2.4 GENERAL DESCRIPTION OF ZAMBIA**

### **2.4.1 GEOGRAPHICAL SITUATION**

Zambia is a large land-locked country in the heart of Southern Africa. It has an area of 752 614 sq km, and is one of the largest producers of copper in the world. It is situated entirely within the tropics. Zambia has no fewer than eight neighbours. It is bordered to the west by Angola; to the northwest by Zaire; to the northeast by Tanzania; to the east by Malawi; to the southeast by Mozambique; to the south by Zimbabwe and a small ill-defined border with

Botswana and to the southwest by a thin strip of South West African territory called the Caprivi Strip. The name Zambia is derived from the Zambezi River, which forms a common border with Zimbabwe. The capital is Lusaka (Kay, 1967:15-17) (see Map 2.1).

#### **2.4.2 SHORT GENERAL HISTORY**

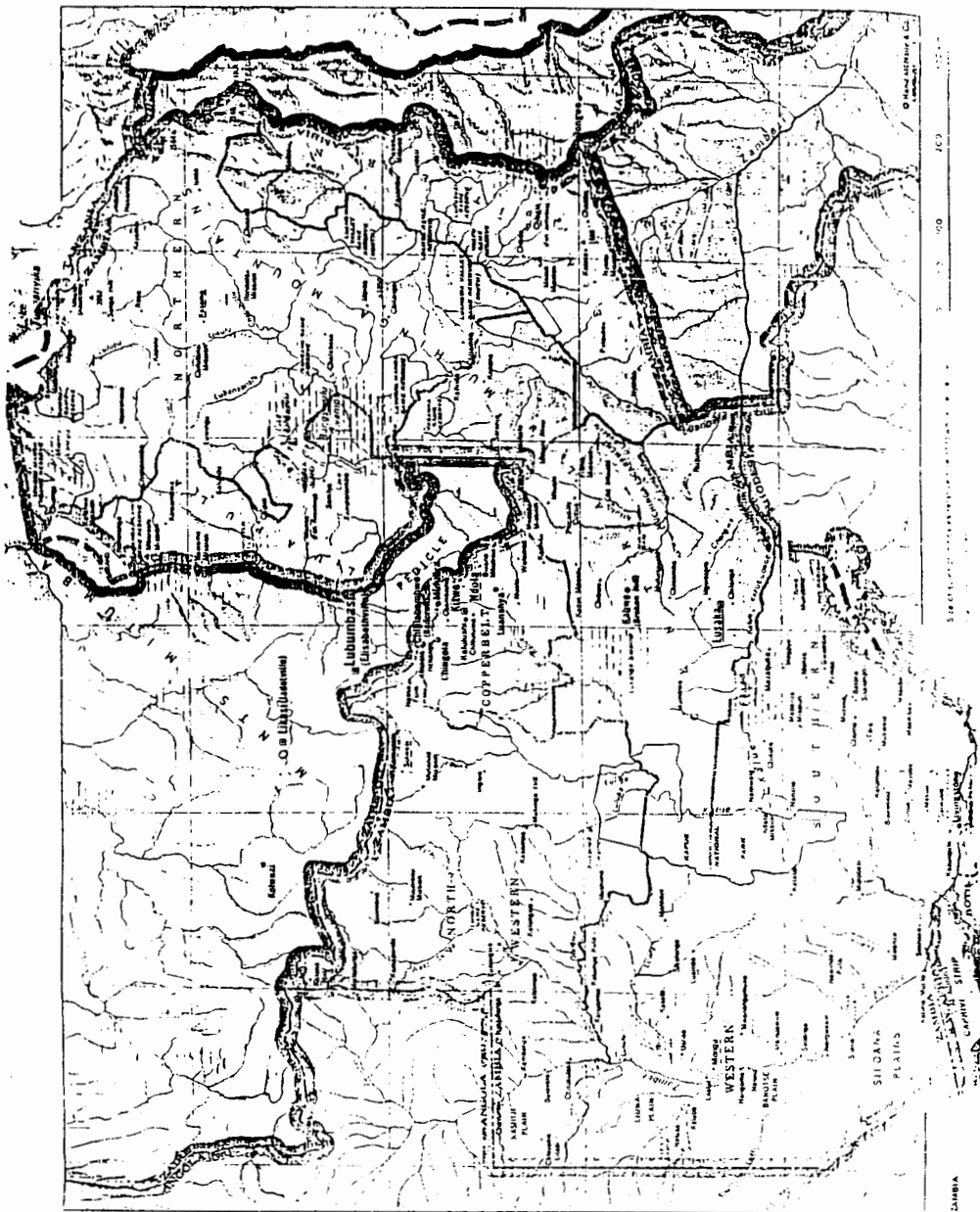
Slightly more than two thousand years ago, Zambia was inhabited by a few thousand people, probably Bushmen and Pygmies, who lived in what is called the cultural era of the Late Stone Age. These Stone Age inhabitants began to be replaced by different peoples with different cultures or ways of life around the time of the birth of Christ. These newcomers, called Africans, did not, like the Bushmen, live in the Stone Age. They grew their own food, kept domestic animals, made tools out of iron and lived in settled villages. It is important to note that the history of Zambia is cut off from outside influences (Langworthy, 1972:8).

In 1798 and 1831-1832 Portuguese trading missions from Tete reached Mwata Kazembe's capital just south of Lake Mweru. In 1835 the Ngoni, in flight from Zululand, crossed the Zambezi in a northeasterly direction. One section of this tribe finally settled on the Lake Nyasaluangwa watershed near the future site of Fort Jameson (Chipata). In the West, the Kololo, a Sotho people under their chief Sebituane crossed the upper Zambezi and made themselves masters of Barotseland (Britannica Vol. 27, 1988:975).

David Livingstone reached the upper Zambezi in 1851 and in 1855 he discovered the Victoria Falls. He subsequently explored the whole Zambezi Basin and the plateau to the south of Lake Tanganyika. During the closing years of the 19th century the British South Africa Company extended its sphere of influence by obtaining numerous treaties and concessions from chiefs north of the Zambezi. The most important and most famous of these is the Lochner Treaty signed in 1890 by Lewanika Paramount Chief of the Barotse nation. This treaty conceded all mineral rights throughout the extensive Barotse dominions to the British South Africa Company and promised Lewanika British protection.



Map 2.1 GEOGRAPHICAL SITUATION OF ZAMBIA (BRITANNICA, Vol. 27, 1988:70)



In this way Barotseland acquired its special status which it retained until the country became independent (Kay, 1967:15).

The outline of Northern Rhodesia (Zambia) had been largely mapped out on paper by treaties signed by European countries, but the British South Africa Company (BSAC) favoured a division of the area into North-Eastern and North-Western Rhodesia because the two parts had different histories. The latter had been occupied by expansion from the south, and all its communications were with Rhodesia and Botswana; the former was associated with routes from the east and north and was administered from Malawi. This division and company rule were formerly proclaimed in the North-Western Rhodesia Order in Council of January 1900. Barotseland remained a protectorate within North-Western Rhodesia. Fort Jameson became the capital of North-Eastern Rhodesia until 1907, when Livingstone became the capital. In 1911 Northern Rhodesia was created as a political entity by the amalgamation of the two territories and it was administered from Livingstone until 1935, when Lusaka assumed the seat of government. Company rule ended in 1924 and the Country then became a British protectorate. From 1953 to 1963 it formed part of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland but the Federation was dissolved on 31 December 1963 and Northern Rhodesia became an independent republic on 24 October 1964 under the name of Zambia (Kay, 1967:15-16).

The United National Independence Party (UNIP) became the party in power and Kenneth Kaunda became President. In 1973 he cemented one-party (UNIP) rule with a new constitution. Kaunda has remained the dominant political figure in Zambia well into the 1980's.

### **2.4.3 PEOPLES OF ZAMBIA**

Zambia's population is small in relation to its area, with over 75 per cent of the population living close to subsistence level in the rural areas and a weak mass educational structure. Zambia's human resources had also been neglected during colonial rule. Inevitably and rightly therefore the key word in the national vocabulary since independence has been "development" (Davies, 1972:10).

Radio broadcasting employs seven languages: Bemba, Tonga, Nyanja, Lozi, Kaonde, Lunda and Luvale of which the first four are understood far beyond the mother tongue boundaries. The extended ties of kinship involved in the traditional system of society have continued to exert a powerful influence even in the urban areas.

The traditional regions within the country approximately coincide with the administrative division into provinces. The Western (formerly Barotse) Province is dominated by the Lozi, who chiefly came to live on the flood plain of the Zambezi River. During the 1600's, after conquering the local peoples, they had an unusually mixed economy, based on garden culture, cattle ownership, fishing and hunting (Langworthy, 1972:24). They also had a strong tradition of government and law and a distinct aristocracy (Aldridge, 1978:55).

The Northern Province is dominated by the Bemba, who trace their origins to the Luba-Lunda kingdom and have a strongly centralized chieftainship. Bemba is the lingua-franca of the Copperbelt. The Northern Province is generally poor in soil and there is no tradition of cattle-owning (Aldridge, 1978:69).

The Eastern Province is inhabited by four tribes of which three, the Tsonga, Chewa and Lunda, originated in Zaire. These three were conquered by the fourth, the warlike Ngoni, who are related to the cattle-owning Zulus of South Africa. Many Ngoni customs have disappeared and the Ngoni language has been entirely replaced by Nyanja (Aldridge, 1978:69).

The Copperbelt (formerly the Western Province) is the location of the mining industry. There the population, both densely concentrated and diverse, is composed primarily of Africans from all parts of Zambia, with about a tenth of the total from neighbouring countries. This pattern is repeated among the populations living along the railway that stretches from the Copperbelt to Livingstone.

Most of the white population lives in Kitwe, Ndola and Lusaka or other towns of the railway belt. Since independence restrictions on permanent residence by aliens and the introduction of a contract system of employment for new

residents have engendered instability among the white population. The government policy of Zambianization, aided by the rapid development of education and training, has brought about the gradual decline in the number of whites. There are several thousand Indians, two-thirds of whom are Hindu and the rest Muslim. Most of them arrived in Zambia between 1945 and 1954 after which Indian immigration was severely restricted. There are also a few thousand persons of mixed race, mostly European-African, who are chiefly settled in Ndola, Lusaka and Chipata (Britannica Vol. 27, 1988:972).

#### **2.4.4 THE ECONOMY**

The Zambian government is committed to a policy of rapid social and economic change. In 1964 economic independence was the first priority. It is assumed that the people have an interest in an increased standard of living, even where it signals the end to their traditional way of life, and that the state has an interest in a secure economic base and enhanced economic power capacity. The government also seeks to use economic development as a means of extending its control and of identifying the interests of the people with the state through the distribution of material rewards (Pettman, 1976:14).

Zambia has a mixed economy in which both the public and private sectors participate. It is heavily dependent on the production and export of copper. The government acquired 51 per cent of the copper industry in 1969. Zambia has been one of the few African countries that, since independence, has had sufficient income to finance most of its economic and social development. As the fourth largest copper-producing country in the world, Zambia's copper output is exceeded only by that of the United States, the Soviet Union and Chile. There are ten producing mines Luanshya, Mufulira, Chibuluma, Chambishi, Rokana (near Kitwe), Nchanga (near Chingola), Bwana Mkubwa, Konkola, Lufubu and Baluba, with ore reserves of over 882 000 000 tons, which constitute about one-eighth of the world's known and exploited copper reserves. Significant quantities of coal, zinc, ore and lead ore are mined (Britannica Vol. 27, 1988:973).

The government's effort to increase agricultural and industrial output have had only limited success. Agriculture accounts for approximately one-sixth of the gross national product (GNP) and employs two-thirds of the work-force. Customary tenure predominates; farmers on state land are awarded leases for 100 years. Slash-and-burn agriculture is common. Subsistence farming is widespread and concentrates on the production of corn, cassava, peanuts and sorghum. Large commercial farms are controlled by Europeans and account for up to one-half of Zambia's agricultural output. The raising of cattle is restricted by the prevalence of the tsetse fly in northern and eastern Zambia. Farmers are often reluctant to slaughter cattle, which are a traditional sign of wealth, and the production of beef and milk falls short of domestic demand (Britannica Vol. 12, 1988:890).

The Zambian government's policy is to support selected industries which can make a net contribution to the development and diversification of the economy. Like other developing economies, Zambia wishes to become self-supporting in the manufacture of general consumer goods, thereby reducing imports and saving foreign exchange (London Chamber of Commerce, 1966:2).

Manufacturing industries account for approximately one-fifth of the gross national product and employ more than one-tenth of the work-force. The government owns all or part of most large-scale industries (Britannica Vol. 12, 1988:890). The Industrial Development Corporation of Zambia Ltd. is a wholly Government-owned institution, which with its own board of directors is broadly responsible to the Ministry of Commerce and Industry for the administration of the Government's industrial policy. It is also the holding, financing and management institution for the Government's investments and other interests in industry (London Chamber of Commerce, 1966:2).

#### **2.4.5 THE POLITICAL STRUCTURE**

When the protectorate of Northern Rhodesia became the sovereign Republic of Zambia in October 24, 1964, the new country's Independence Constitution provided for a unitary state. The President is the Head of State, Head of Government and Commander-in-Chief of the Defence Forces. He is also

chairman of the cabinet and, although the constitution does not require it, President Kaunda has stated that he will be subject to the cabinet's advice and influence. The executive functions of the President include the selection, appointment and dismissal of the Vice President, the Cabinet Ministers, the junior and under Ministers, Parliamentary Secretaries, the officers of the Defence Forces, the Attorney General, as well as the appointment and control of the Public Service Commission which directs the operation of the Civil Service. He also appoints the Chief Justice but cannot dismiss him (Kaplan, et al., 1974:203-207).

The legislature, called the National Assembly, includes 125 elected members and up to 10 members appointed by the president. Central Government is represented throughout Zambia by the provincial government system, according to which the President appoints a resident cabinet minister to each of eight provinces (Lusaka excluded). Each resident cabinet minister is the president's direct representative and is responsible for the co-ordination of policy and for liaison with local political parties. Provincial administration is carried out by Central Committee members who each has a senior civil servant as permanent secretary. The nine provinces are divided into 53 districts, each with a district governor responsible to the provincial cabinet minister. Local government is controlled by the Minister of Provincial and Local Government and Culture. Lusaka, Kitwe and Ndola have city councils and there are five municipal councils and 24 township councils. There are also 34 rural councils with a majority of elected members and up to three members (mainly chiefs and government officials in the districts) nominated by the minister. Finally, there are eight mine township management boards that advise mine management on the needs of residents in the mine areas (Britannica Vol. 27, 1988:974).

## **2.5 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

The above discussion has led to a clear understanding of the main concepts of the field of study, that is the education system, educational policy, administration of education, school system and supportive services.

A clear picture and understanding of Zambia is given like its geographical situation, short political history, economy, peoples and its political structure.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **HISTORICAL PERSPECTIVE ON THE ZAMBIAN EDUCATION SYSTEM**

#### **3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The Zambian Education System has evolved through a series of phases since the early beginnings. Traditional education was first on the scene until 1880, when the missionaries penetrated Zambia and decided to concentrate upon the education of Africans (Silanda, 1988:40). This section is concerned with describing how Western education came into Zambia, took root and developed. This doesn't mean that traditional education was totally abandoned.

Though the control of the country was under the British South Africa Company (BSAC) from 1889 to 1924, and under the Colonial Office from 1925 to independence, missionaries continued to dominate the educational scene in Zambia. This chapter also sets out to trace the development of education after independence. This will include the Education Act of 1966 and the First and Second National Development Plans. The names Northern Rhodesia and later Zambia are going to be used in this section to emphasise periods concerned.

#### **3.2 EDUCATION FROM THE 17TH TO THE EARLY 20TH CENTURIES**

##### **3.2.1 TRADITIONAL EDUCATION**

Before the arrival of the Missionaries and Western Colonists, Africans had evolved their own system of education on which cultural transmission and social reproduction of their societies depended. Education was predominantly informal. Children participated in daily family life with the content of education differing from one tribe to another, depending upon the environment and culture of the group. Children were enriched with the history and traditions of the clan and the tribe. The telling of heroic deeds of the ancestors inculcated in them a sense of value, loyalty and pride. The customs and beliefs, a sense of belonging to the tribe were emphasised through dances, games, rites and ceremonies of the tribe. It was a common practice in all tribes that



grandparents would spend the evenings narrating stories to their grandchildren around the fire. This is the part which children enjoyed most because they would repeat the loved stories amongst themselves, and today this is the part taken by grammar books and comprehension exercises. Their education wouldn't be complete if it did not transmit societal values such as obedience to adults and knowledge as to how to behave (Snelson, 1970:1).

A boy was trained in skills which would enable him and his family to earn a living. Fathers would take their young boys on a hunting expedition. There a boy was taught how to follow a spoor, how to set traps, to shoot a straight arrow, how to skin and dismember an animal; and how to find his way. He also learnt the uses and names of many herbs, flowers, fruits, shrubs and trees. He was also taught the art of fishing, of chopping trees, making huts, canoes, nests, mats, ropes, drums and baskets. If he lived in the cattle area, he was taught how to herd cattle, to care for the beasts which were sick or injured and how to defend them against attack. Helping his parents in the gardens, he learned the traditional men's share in the growing of crops (Snelson, 1970:1).

Young men were trained in how to participate in public affairs of the tribe. The chief objectives were to expose these young men to legal principles and procedures of the tribe; to familiarize them with the constitutional framework and power structure of the tribe (Makura, 1978:41).

A significant event in traditional education of boys was the initiation ceremony, where they were secluded from normal life in the society and subjected to severe tests of courage and physical endurance before they were allowed to enter the ranks of adults (Mwanakatwe, 1968:3). In sociological and psychological terms, the aims of the ritual in initiation schools were to strengthen the individual at a time of crisis in his life, to sanction his new status in society after a period of exclusion and instruction, and to assert the authority of society over the individual through the solemnity and rigour of the ritual (Read, 1959:106-107).

Girls' training rested with mothers, aunts and grandmothers. Girls' training greatly prepared them as future wives and mothers. Young girls would be

taught to sweep the hut, wash the pots and calabashes and later they would graduate to drawing water and pounding maize or grinding millet into fine powder. Among the most important things that they were taught was cooking, child minding and their physical growth. Just like boys they had some skills to learn like making pottery, brewing beer, mudding the walls and the floors of the hut and the verandah where their parents lived. In the performance of almost any task the young girl was under the supervision of an experienced woman or older girl who ensured that the task was promptly and adequately accomplished. Insolence or laziness on the part of the young girls was condemned (Mwanakatwe, 1968:4).

Mwanakatwe (1968:5) sees the culmination of education and training occurring when a girl reached the stage of puberty. Immediately she would be secluded for a period of time, the place of seclusion could be regarded as a school in which the final instructions were given concerning her responsibilities which had direct relevance to her marital life in future. She was thus instructed about the obligations to her future husband and his relatives, for whom she was required to provide food regularly; lessons were given to her concerning child-care; the virtues and upright conduct which she was required to uphold were extolled; above all she was instructed about her responsibilities to the whole community and the absolute importance of accepting the authority of her husband.

Snelson (1970:2) maintains that learning was by observation, imitation and repetition. Children were rarely given instruction in an explicit verbal and abstract manner. Traditional education was concrete and non-verbal, concerned with practical activity, not abstract generalization. The young man received no formal lessons in the theory of housebuilding or storing grain he learned these skills by watching until such time as he was able to join in the activity.

However divergent the content and methods of traditional education among tribes, training had one aim, which was to preserve the cultural heritage of the tribe and the clan (Mwanakatwe, 1968:1).

## **3.2.2 MISSIONARY EDUCATION AND THE BRITISH SOUTH AFRICA COMPANY 1883-1924**

### **3.2.2.1 General**

The early history of education in Northern Rhodesia is associated with the work of Christian missions and began before the British South Africa Company (BSAC) extended its administration North of the Zambezi. Towards the end of the pre-colonial era, Northern Rhodesia was penetrated first by missionary explorers of whom Livingstone was the most notable and subsequently by missionary evangelists (Arnot, Colliard, Dephelcin) and later by prospectors and treaty seekers, all in some way representatives of Rhodes' BSAC (Kelly, 1987:9).

A major interest of the missionaries upon their arrival was the writing of African languages of the areas in which they had opened their mission stations. Teaching people to read and write was also in their programme. Frederick Stanley Arnot of the Paris Evangelical Missionary Society was the first Christian missionary station from which the Gospel would spread. He established the school for the Lozi people in 1883 with an enrolment of 3 boys (Shelson, 1970:4).

Actually, the period from 1882 to 1905 was an era of intense missionary activity (Mwanakatwe, 1968:10). Northern Rhodesia was officially created in 1911, when the separate administrations of North-western and North-eastern Rhodesia, first divided by the Kafue River and later by the railway, were amalgamated by the BSAC in order to economize (Rotberg, 1966:25).

### **3.2.2.2 The Barotse National School**

During the period of the British South Africa Company administration the provision of education remained the responsibility of the missionaries. The exception was the Barotse National School established in 1907 following an agreement between BSAC and the Paramount Chief of the Lozi that a proportion of the tax collected in Barotseland (today the Western Province) would be used to provide education for the Lozi people (Kelly, 1987:10). All other educational

developments up to April 1924 depended almost entirely on the initiative, energy, perseverance and financial resources of the missionary societies.

In 1908 Magistrate C. Meckinon laid down the policy that there was to be a system of dual education in the Barotse National School; all pupils were to spend 4 hours each day in school and 4 hours in a workshop. Lessons at the school included the R's (Reading, Writing and Arithmetic), Geography, manual training in carpentry, building, tailoring and typewriting. Industrial apprentices were to work all day as sawyers, carpenters and to attend night school. Selected students from the school were withdrawn from classrooms and engaged for very little pay on public works such as the construction of government offices and residences. People were exploited under the cloak of education (Mwanakatwe, 1968:15).

The first African teachers to be employed in The Barotse National School were Basutos. At that time there was no age restriction for scholars and this encouraged married men to register. To avoid travelling they brought their families to stay with them on the school premises. By 1912 there were 400 persons living on the school site, many of them in grass shelters. Their stay was not without corruption; beer-drinking, disease, immorality, idleness and strikes were prevalent; the morals of the younger pupils were being contaminated by the lack of discipline of their elders. Between 50 to 60 pupils left school every term. A year later (1913) when enrolment was 182, the Headmaster reported that of the boys and men, 6 had qualified as teachers, 4 as government interpreters, 4 as interpreters to the Native Labour Bureau, 2 as Clerks in Government Offices, 3 as hospital Orderlies, 1 as a foreman Carpenter and 1 as a foreman Nurseryman, while many others had obtained situations in shops and offices (Snelson, 1970:125).

### **3.2.2.3 General Missionary Conference of 1914**

The first Missionary Conference on education in Northern Rhodesia was held at Livingstone, 29 June to 2 July 1914. Only 5 of the 14 Missionary Societies in Northern Rhodesia were represented. Their estimated 44 schools, enrolling 1 937 Africans, were a small part of the total Mission School effort in 1914. The

main issue discussed was that of having a common curriculum in their schools. A committee was elected to draw up the uniform curriculum and a uniform scale for teachers' wages. No regulations or support had thus far come from the British South African Company Administration. This conference drew attention in its education resolutions to Africans' rapidly growing desire for schools.

#### **3.2.4 THE NATIVE SCHOOLS PROCLAMATION 1918**

The 1918 proclamation was the first educational legislation for Natives in Zambia. The government's first interest in African education came from a desire to curb subversive teaching by unauthorised persons. Added to this sudden flurry of Government interest in mission schools was District Circular No. 12 of 1918, exempting mission school pupils from tax payment. Magistrates were directed to report on the number of schools, the pupils of taxable and non-taxable age, the nature of their attendance, and the estimated amount of revenue to be lost through exemption (Parker, 1962:85).

According to the new proclamation schools had to be registered with the administrator. Teachers had to be certified as competent and of good character and were to be married and residing with a wife in the village served by the school. £25 fine and 3 months' imprisonment with or without hard labour could be imposed on unauthorised teachers. Schools were to be inspected frequently by Magistrates and Native Commissioners (Snelson, 1970:130).

The 1918 Proclamation was met with opposition from the missionaries. The impression that missionaries got was that they were taken as criminals instead of fellow-workers. Reverend Robert Laws of Livingstone Mission, who had been concerned with African education since 1875, said: "These regulations look upon the educational work of the missionary with suspicion instead of recognising such work as an important asset in the progress of civilisation in the country" (Parker, 1962:87).

In 1918 the Southern Rhodesia Education Department, which had annually inspected Northern Rhodesia's European schools since 1914, recommended that Northern Rhodesia appoint its own Inspector of Schools. Latham, then a District Officer at Sesheka and not an educationist, was sent to Salisbury for

training. On his return he was appointed part-time Inspector of both European and African schools. Latham was appointed Inspector of schools in 1921 and destined to be the Director of African Education (Parker 1962:89).

### **3.2.5 GENERAL MISSIONARY CONFERENCE ON EDUCATION, 1922**

Eleven missionary societies were represented at Kafue, and amongst other things discussed included the fact that an agricultural expert had to be appointed to advise the missionaries on agricultural education. The government was requested to subsidize the salary of that expert by a third and the rest would be paid by the missions. Dr. Loram, an educationist from Natal, emphasized that primary education should remain under missionary control but supported by the government financially. He requested that secondary education should be funded by the state. G.C. Latham, a former district officer, suggested that the curriculum should be well balanced between religious, academic and industrial elements (Snelson, 1970:134-135).

It was during this conference that it was decided to invite the Trustees of the Phelps-Stokes Fund to undertake major responsibility for carrying out an education survey in East and Central Africa (Snelson, 1970:138).

## **3.3 MISSIONARY EDUCATION AND THE COLONIAL GOVERNMENT 1924-1952**

### **3.3.1 INTRODUCTION**

In 1923 the Secretary of State of the Colonial Government appointed an Advisory Committee to advise him on any matters of Native Education in the British Colonies in Tropical Africa. This committee was expected to be well versed about education in British Africa. At the same time the Phelps-Stokes Commission was visiting countries in East Africa and visited Northern Rhodesia in January 1924 to hold extensive meetings with the Missionary bodies at their General Missionary Conference and with Government Officials. The commission's tasks were (Lewis, 1962:39) to:

- inquire into the educational work done in each of the areas to be studied;

- investigate the educational needs of the people in the light of the religious, social, hygiene and economic conditions;
- ascertain to what extent these needs were being met; and
- to make available to the full the results of the study.

### **3.3.2 THE EDUCATIONAL POLICY OF 1925**

The Educational Policy of 1925 came out as the result of the Phelps-Stokes Commission. The commission urged that education should be adapted to the needs of the people for example to African conditions; that there should be organization and supervision in African education, the Government and missions had to apply sound principles of administration on educational work; co-operation should be promoted amongst missions, government and commercial concerns concerned with African education (Lewis, 1962:10-11).

In the opinion of both the Phelps-Stokes Commission and the Advisory Committee, education should aim at advancing agriculture; developing industries; improving health; training people in the management of their own affairs; inculcating true ideals of citizenship. Specifically, the Phelps-Stokes Commission advocated that a Director of Native Education be appointed and that an education advisory board representative of all interested parties be established (Kelly, 1987:11).

### **3.4 CREATION OF AN AFRICAN EDUCATION DEPARTMENT AS A RESULT OF THE PHELPS-STOKES COMMISSION IN 1925**

In 1925 the Governor, Sir Herbert Stanley, created a sub-department of Native Affairs and G.C. Latham was appointed the first Director of Native Education. The control of the Barotse National School shifted to the Colonial Government. At this time 50 000 Africans out of the estimated 200 000 school age population were in some kind of schooling. Out of 50 000 in school all but 600 were in mission schools (Silanda, 1988:42).

Latham aimed at creating a coherent and comprehensive system of education suited to the needs of the country and its African people. It is during this period that plans for developing African education were created. Shortly after taking up his appointment in 1925, Latham issued to all Missions a School Code. This consisted of a suggested curriculum. Latham stressed the importance of character development. Teachers had to keep constantly in view the inculcation by example, training and precept of the qualities of truth and honesty, reverence and obedience, purity and self-control, unselfishness, courtesy and perseverance (Native Education Circular No. 2. 1925: File 2/1/1).

At the end of 1930, there were three superintendents on the headquarters staff of the Department. At the end of 1931, however, three additional Superintendents of Native Education had been appointed, and by the end of 1938 each major region in the territory was under the charge of a Superintendent of Native Education responsible primarily for co-ordinating missionary activities in the sphere of education, disbursing funds allocated by the Central Government for educational work, supervising school activities and advising Government concerning educational needs of the people in his own area. In 1938 the superintendents of Native Education in the territory held their first conference (Mwanakatwe, 1968:19).

The first examinations conducted by the Department of African Education were held in 1933 for Standard IV's when 183 boys and 3 girls wrote examinations, during which 110 passed. The delay in secondary schools was caused by:

- The world economic depression of 1931;
- The fear of the Colonial Government of producing an unemployed educated class. This fear even dictated some misgivings about the provision of higher levels of primary education, as can be seen from a 1930 report. "With a regular supply of Standard IV candidates available for vocational training the problem will be to make sure, as far as is possible that no more pupils are trained in each line than can be readily absorbed in the country (Northern Rhodesia Government, 1930:17).



New girls' schools were opened at Kayambi, Chilubula and Mabumbu in 1926. Chipembi and Mwenzo were opened in 1927 and 1928 respectively. Most of the girls in these schools were boarders and some grants were designated to them. Some of the Girls' Schools were beginning to train teachers. At Mbereshi, a Maternity Training and Child Welfare Clinic was established in 1929 in close association with Mabel Shaw's girls' school, and gave training in nursing and midwifery to the girls in their final year at school (Snelson, 1970:162).

The syllabus for normal schools was approved by the Advisory Board in 1929. The working week had to have 40 periods of 45 minutes each. Five periods each were to be devoted to religion, educational methods and English; 4 each to vernacular and arithmetic, 2 to geography and history, one each to singing, drawing, general knowledge, hygiene and the theory of agriculture; two to carpentry and other handwork and no fewer than 8 to practical agriculture. 20 Minutes was given to drill 4 times a week (Snelson, 1970:153-154).

In 1930 the Department of African Education was separated from the Department of Native Affairs and it acquired new premises in Mazabuka for the headquarters previously located in Livingstone. From the time of his appointment as Director Latham began to build up a cadre of qualified educationists, recruited mainly from the United Kingdom, for the posts of Superintendents of Native Education (Mwanakatwe, 1968:19). Teacher training facilities were organised and Superintendents of Native Education were appointed to undertake administrative and inspection duties and the training of African supervisory staff in the Jeans College and agricultural schools at Mazabuka. Latham made it his task that all schools should be supervised. In his longterm project he advocated opportunities for higher education in the fields of medicine, education, commerce, surveying, agriculture and engineering. Generally, he recommended that education for Africans should mainly consist of manual work and practical skills (Snelson, 1970:170).

A development of the 1930's was the opening of the Central Trades Schools in Lusaka in 1934. Frederick Hodgson was the first principal until 1944. The school was founded for the specific purpose of training African craftsmen and over the years it achieved a high standard of craftsmanship due to the able

leadership of the principal. The course lasted for three years and apprentices who showed exceptional ability were selected for a further period of training which enabled them to qualify as instructors or foremen. Students who qualified as instructors were able to obtain employment as teachers of practical subjects - carpentry, building and leatherwork. They could be teachers in upper primary schools, junior secondary and junior trade school and in teacher training institutions. Minimum entry for this course was Standard IV and was later raised to Standard VI (Mwanakatwe, 1968:32).

In 1938, the first junior secondary class in the territory was opened at Lubwa Mission in the Chinsali district with the approval of Government. However, when the Government opened its own junior secondary school at Munali with 11 (eleven) pupils in 1939, the Lubwa scheme for secondary education was abandoned. Though the expansion of Munali was very slow at the start it later became a household name. Its reputation in Northern Rhodesia and in many African countries was high because it became the alma mater of the nation's distinguished scholars (Mwanakatwe, 1968:29).

Munali Training Centre was opened in 1938. This was the partial fulfilment of a dream of Latham, whose proposals of 1929 had foreseen the need for a central institution to train Africans for Government Departments and for the Private Sector. Latham's scheme included the training of teachers, of medical assistants, of agricultural demonstrators, of clerks and tradesmen (Snelson, 1970:216).

Steady progress was made in the training of teachers. In 1939 the minimum qualification for an elementary school teacher was Standard IV plus two years' professional training. Later recruits into the teacher-training institutions were required to possess the Standard VI Certificate. There were 13 training schools in the territory in 1939 but the output from these schools was insufficient for the requirements of the teaching service. Some of the colleges were under-enrolled and 33 women obtained their provisional teachers' certificates, qualifying them to teach in lower primary schools. In 1949, 225 men and 42 women completed the junior teachers' course (T5) (Mwanakatwe, 1968:34).

As early as 1938, Tyndale Biscoe advocated the formation of a Publications Bureau with adequate editorial and translation staff, but it was not until 1948 that this became a reality, when a grant from Colonial and Development Welfare Funds was used to establish the Bureau in Lusaka.

Books in schools continued to be written by missionaries and increasingly by education officers. Tyndale Biscoe also foresaw the need to exploit radio as a medium of education. Experimental broadcasts were first made from the Copperbelt in 1939 on a transmitter loaned by the local radio society (Snelson, 1970:245).

The formal education of Africans was mainly in the hands of the missionary societies assisted by large Government grants and supervised by the Department of African Education. In 1951 there were 1 380 government native authority and mission-aided schools and training schools with a total roll of 146 909. Primary education was in three stages. Elementary (Substandards to Standard II) Middle and Upper primary up to Standard VI. There were 6 secondary schools, one of which the Munal Secondary School, giving the full range of secondary education up to school certificate and the others a two-year junior secondary course. A total of 337 pupils were registered at secondary schools in May 1951 and a further 196 entered in August. Vocational Training was provided at 19 training colleges for teachers, 13 trade schools, a survey school and medical, agricultural, veterinary, forestry and postal training schools controlled by the Government Departments concerned (Northern Rhodesia Information Department, 1953:112-113).

The expenditure on African education has kept pace with the growing general territorial prosperity. It was £7 000 in 1927, £28 680 in 1937 and no less than £245 538 in 1947. In 1951 the current expenditure on African education had risen to £458 162. The estimate expenditure for 1952 was £609 141 (Northern Rhodesia Information Department, 1953:110).

In 1949 the Central African Council - a body set up to advise the governments of the North and Southern Rhodesia and of Nyasaland on matters of common concern, appointed a committee (the Cartinel-Robinson Committee) and re-

appointed it in 1951 to report on the need for higher education for Africans. Upon the committee's advice a commission, the Carr Saunders Commission, was established in 1952 to look more thoroughly into the question. The Commission unanimously urged that a University College be started without delay. The establishment of the University was delayed by the establishment of the University College of Nyasaland and Northern Rhodesia (Kelly, 1987:14).

Rounding up the section on Colonial Education it is worth mentioning that the system of education continues to be highly centralised and highly selective. The curriculum for all schools was uniform and was centrally designed and imposed. It was selective in the sense of examinations for progress from one grade to another.

### **3.5 EDUCATION UNDER FEDERAL ERA: 1953-1963**

The creation of the Federation of the Rhodesia's (North and South) and Nyasaland in 1953 brought about some changes in the educational system. In 1954 education in all three territories was put under the Federal Ministry of Education, but African Education remained the responsibility of each territory until the passage of the Federal Education Act in 1957. The Act provided that education in Government schools be free to all residents of the Federation and that English was to be the official language of instruction, although the use of local languages was permitted for a limited time (Kaplan et al., 1974:165).

The aim of African Education during the first years of the Federation was to consolidate and improve the primary school system, to develop secondary education and trades training schemes and increase the supply of trained teachers. By 1955 there were almost 200 000 children in primary schools, only 8% of these being girls. By this time it was estimated that over half the children in urban areas could not find places in schools. Although administrative and organisational measures, such as the extension of double session teaching, the question of adequate facilities in urban schools remained grave, as it continues to be today (Kelly, 1987:17).

In 1958 it was estimated that less than 26% of enrolled African pupils completed the full primary course and that under 2% of the total number enrolled in African schools was being admitted to secondary school (Kaplan, 1969:165).

By 1960 enrolment on primary schools was 287 536 and in secondary schools was 2 602. The total enrolment in technical and vocational classes was 1 445. The number of trained teachers had risen to 5 936 (Triennial Survey, 1961 - 1963, 1964:2).

The final phases of the Federal Era dated from 1959 when the Department of African Education was replaced by a Ministry. Plans were then completed for a 1959-1963 capital development programme under which £2.4 million would be allocated to education. But within a year, financial stringency had slowed down the educational effort. Later the Government programme was increased once more (£4.5 million being allocated in the 1961-1965 Development Plan). To enable progress, the copper groups created the Northern Rhodesia Educational Trust, financed on a half-grant, half-loan basis, to a total which eventually reached £2 million. Educational expansion continued on the Copperbelt and around Broken Hill to the point where nearly all children there got six years of primary schooling, and facilities for upper primary and secondary education were much more plentiful than elsewhere (Economic survey mission, 1964:98).

In an effort to raise the level of education available to Africans, four secondary schools were built in 1961, one in each of four copper-mining centres. A last effort by the Federal Government to develop secondary education in Northern Rhodesia was made in 1959 when the Four-Year Development Capital Plan was launched. When the plan was completed, secondary school enrolment of Africans increased by 171% from 2 599 to 7 090 (Kaplan, 1969:165-166).

The emphasis on the rapid expansion of secondary school facilities was stimulated by political events within the territory, since it was clear that the Federation could not prevail and that its place would soon be taken by an independent territory. But the priority given to secondary school facilities in urban areas involved a curtailment in the development of primary education in

rural areas. This in turn led to an increase in the migration of rural children to the town in search of education (Kelly, 1987:17-18).

When the ill-starred and unpopular Federation came to an end in December 1963, there were about 342 000 children in primary schools and 7 050 in secondary schools under the Federation. A significant development towards the end of the federal era was the series of requests by the Northern Rhodesia Government to the United Nations and to the British Government to assist it in planning the future development of its education system (Kelly, 1987:18).

### **3.6 EDUCATION IN POST-INDEPENDENCE ZAMBIA: 1964-1976**

#### **3.6.1 GENERAL**

In 1964 January, Northern Rhodesia gained independence and Dr. Kenneth Kaunda was appointed Prime Minister after the victory of the United National Independence Party (UNIP) in the general elections. The main aim of UNIP was an accelerated expansion of educational facilities at all levels in Northern Rhodesia, which became known a few months later as the Republic of Zambia (Mwanakatwe, 1968:36).

At the time of independence in October 1964, Zambia inherited an exceptionally weak educational profile. In 1963 there were about 100 university graduates and under 1 000 secondary school graduates. There was shortage of manpower to man Zambia's copper industry. The Zambians wanted to do something different from the previous regime. Education was to get first priority and demand for it was predictably high. Against this background stood an educational system that was woefully inadequate to meet the challenges of the post-colonial society. There were a few schools which were run by Christian Missionaries whose modest budgets could not allow large enrolments. There were a few trade schools and no university institutions (Lungu, 1985:289).

### **3.6.2 THE TRANSITIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN: 1965-1966**

The Transitional Development Plan for education was to cover the period 1 January 1965 to 30 June 1966. During this period, the Government expected to assess the country's long-term need and evaluate in detail all the implications of major educational policy decisions. In framing the Transitional Development Plan for education, planners looked beyond the limits of the period of the plan accordingly, development proposals for the period up to 1970 were prepared (Mwanakatwe, 1968:47-48).

It was the government's policy to move towards a system of universal primary education; to reduce the 8-year primary course to seven years, and to improve the general quality of education provided. The new Primary Course would consist of 2 sections, a Lower Primary Course of four years and an Upper Primary of 3 years. The main emphasis of the education programme under the Transitional Development Plan continued to be on the development of both the Primary and Secondary School systems. To carry out this plan, it was planned to establish larger secondary schools, increase the number of teachers by building more training colleges. This plan also looked into the field of higher and technical education. More bursaries and scholarships were made available for students who wanted to study abroad (Annual Report for 1964, 1965:11).

### **3.6.3 THE EDUCATION ACT OF 1966**

The first major attempt at reforming the Zambian education system was undertaken in April 1966 when the Education Bill was passed by Parliament. The Education Act came into operation on 2 September of the same year. The Act replaced most provisions in the African Education Ordinance of 1952, which was repealed. It also replaced the Education Act of 1956, as amended, under which the defunct Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland Government had administered and controlled European, Asian and Euro-African schools on a racial and discriminatory basis (Mwanakatwe, 1968:197).

Among other changes brought about were the abolition of racially segregated schools and the introduction of non-fee paying school registration in mission-controlled and public schools. The mission schools were to be nationalized

thus labelling them as grant-aided schools. Further, the Sixth Form or Advanced Level Certificate programmes had to be replaced by an Ordinary Level School Certificate in order to enter the newly-established University of Zambia.

Automatic promotion was introduced in urban areas in 1966 for Grades one to five. This expansion had other consequences, for example secondary schools had been provided for each of the fifty districts, as opposed to five government institutions that had existed in the entire country in 1964. The act increased access to education, it also helped to create a system that, a decade later was viewed by policy-makers as a very problematic one because of increased enrolments (Lungu, 1985:290).

Under this Act, the Ministry of Education was given power to establish a new structure of educational authorities corresponding to administrative divisions: the Local Councils of Education, the Regional Councils of Education and the National Councils of Education. It was also given the responsibility for all school and adult education in the country. The mass literacy programme was put under the Department of Community Development, and youth education controlled by the Zambian Youth Service, was under the Ministry of Co-operatives, Youth and Social Development (Kaplan, 1969:166).

The Act also provided for the establishment and registration of private schools under such conditions as might be laid down by the Minister; for the cancellation or registration of private schools by the Minister if he were not satisfied in regard to any registered private schools in terms of the matters specifically laid down in the Act, which the proprietor of the school might have failed to discharge. The Minister might refuse to accept an application for the registration of the private school (Mwanakatwe, 1968:204).

#### **3.6.4 FIRST NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN: 1966-1970**

The basic aims of the First National Development Plan (FNDP) were (First National Development Plan, 1966:55):

- To make space available for all age 7's by 1970;



- to provide an opportunity for all upper primary school children in urban primary schools and 75% of children in rural areas;
- to expand secondary schooling and provide the manpower needed; this included preparing people for higher education, teacher training and technical training;
- to improve the quality of primary education by expanding teacher training and upgrading the standards of existing teachers;
- to make resources available for the University of Zambia to expand its enrolment to 1 600 students in 1970, and develop it to take a leading part in the educational professional and cultural life of the nation. A broad range of useful research and scholarship would be encouraged and a National Council for Scientific Research established; and
- to develop facilities for adult education (including classes for women, regional libraries, educational broadcasting) in order that the opportunities of education be made available to Zambians of every age in every part of the country.

Under this plan, double sessions in primary schools were emphasised to allow increased enrolment. The plan also aimed at restructuring the primary syllabus so that school leavers were introduced to the skills and attitudes needed to make a useful start after school. Expansion at secondary levels was equally important in the sense that the country would be provided with manpower it needed. To adhere to this expansion schools begun under the Transitional Development Plan had to be completed and others expanded to accommodate 840 students which was set as the target number. To cope with the expansion, 45 new Form I classes had to be built each year and Form II classes had also to be increased to allow 2/3 of all entrants to complete the full course (First National Development Plan, 1966:55-57).

The year 1970 was the last year of the four-year First National Development Plan, but due to the large number of uncompleted projects in the plan, His

Excellency the President extended the plan period by a year, that is to 1971, in order that projects for the First National development could be completed before the Second National Development Plan. However, because of various problems resulting from or aggravated by the Unilateral Declaration of Independence in Rhodesia, leading to a search for new supply routes for building materials and equipment, it became clear towards the end of the year that it was unlikely that all projects would be completed at the end of 1971. Because of these difficulties, the Ministry slowly slipped behind the record set in 1968 when it claimed that every seven-year old who had access to a school could get a place in Grade 1 (Annual Report 1970, 1973:5).

At secondary level too, there was a significant drop in the proportion of children going from Grade VII to Grade VIII. The FNDP provided for an average progression of 33 $\frac{1}{3}$ % of the qualified Grade VII pupils going to Form I, but by 1970 the progression rate was 25%. In spite of these problems, there was a small but significant increase in enrolments at most levels of the education system as compared with 1969. Primary enrolment increased from 661 281 to 694 670. Secondary School enrolment increased from 48 157 to 52 472 in the years 1969 to 1970 (Annual Report 1970, 1973:5).

The Plan also aimed at increasing adult centres: six new centres were underway with increased adult education staff. Centres with a population in excess of 2 000 would be provided with branch libraries. The proposed timetable was that Mazabuka, Abercorn and Chibulame would get libraries in 1968, Monze, Kalomo and Kalobo in 1969, Kafue and Chilanza in 1970. Districts with a population of 100 000 required a branch library at the district Headquarters. These were to be established as follows: 1970 it would be Kawamba, 1971 Lundazi, Petauke and Samfya. TV and Broadcasting Services already provided to upper Primary and Secondary had to be extended to Lower Primary (First National Development Plan, 1966:59).

### **3.6.5 SECOND NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN (SNDP) 1972-1976**

Although primary enrolment doubled between 1964 and 1972 and rose by 48.2% between 1966 and 1970 (see Table 3.1), it became apparent that the goal of

Table 3.1

PRIMARY SCHOOL ENROLMENT, 1964-1972

(Annual Report 1972, 1976:21)

YEAR	SEX	GRADE I	GRADE II	GRADE III	GRADE IV	GRADE V	GRADE VI	GRADE VII	GRADE VIII	ESN	TOTAL
1964	B	38 414	38 427	38 626	39 081	20 035	20 261	9 903	9 234	—	214 881
	G	36 229	33 641	32 221	28 673	12 885	11 341	4 878	3 768	—	163 536
	T	74 643	72 068	70 847	67 654	33 820	31 602	14 781	13 002	—	378 417
1965	B	43 745	40 073	39 676	40 194	23 943	21 648	12 146	9 186	—	320 631
	G	41 151	35 851	33 274	31 387	16 368	12 742	5 926	3 763	—	179 462
	T	84 896	75 920	72 950	71 581	39 311	34 390	18 090	12 949	—	410 093
1966	B	53 410	44 508	41 886	42 488	34 400	24 078	23 672	—	—	265 583
	G	50 297	40 151	35 498	32 474	22 523	14 552	12 404	—	—	207 849
	T	103 707	84 749	77 348	57 023	39 430	36 076	36 076	—	—	473 432
1967	B	59 714	52 635	45 215	43 076	36 795	35 388	27 781	—	—	300 660
	G	56 159	48 375	39 087	34 723	24 806	21 324	14 192	—	—	238 692
	T	115 903	101 010	84 302	77 799	61 601	41 973	41 973	—	—	539 352
1968	B	63 954	60 297	53 929	46 875	37 826	37 816	39 331	—	—	339 928
	G	58 909	54 828	47 404	38 406	26 651	23 116	20 011	—	—	268 965
	T	122 863	115 125	101 333	85 281	64 477	60 932	59 242	—	—	608 893
1969	B	65 870	64 114	60 903	55 199	40 229	38 701	42 801	—	169	367 980
	G	61 293	57 280	53 036	46 397	29 039	24 877	21 858	—	116	213 295
	T	127 163	121 394	113 938	100 690	69 868	63 578	64 659	—	285	661 281
1970	B	66 162	64 486	64 698	62 120	43 435	40 896	43 811	—	69	385 676
	G	61 197	58 489	65 264	50 782	32 306	27 506	23 411	—	39	308 994
	T	127 359	122 794	119 962	112 902	75 741	68 402	67 222	—	108	694 670
1971	B	66 730	65 403	66 092	66 793	46 298	43 723	47 219	—	73	492 331
	G	62 601	59 269	57 704	54 990	35 112	31 105	26 640	—	49	327 470
	T	129 331	124 674	123 796	121 783	81 410	74 828	73 859	—	122	729 801
1972	B	73 418	63 353	67 132	69 319	51 854	48 214	51 289	—	114	428 693
	G	69 127	61 591	59 095	57 182	38 972	33 917	29 217	—	79	349 180
	T	142 545	128 944	126 227	126 501	90 826	82 131	80 506	—	193	777 873

universal primary education was more difficult to achieve than had been expected. The First Plan never took into consideration the migration of people within rural areas and between rural and urban areas. This resulted in bad siting of schools and serious under-estimation of requirements, especially in towns. The Second National Development Plan aimed at looking into migratory problems in urban and rural areas, especially Grade 5 classes. The SNDP concentrated on restructuring the curriculum to suit Zambian needs, concentrating on Social Studies, Environmental Science, Homecraft and Manual Craft training. The curricula in pre-service and in-service teachers colleges would be re-assessed and adapted in line with the changing orientation of the schools (Second National Development Plan, 1971:29).

The Second National Development plan noted the cost of the achievements of its predecessor as "large scale over enrolment, triple sessions in some urban primary schools and widespread use of temporary, incomplete and dilapidated buildings" (Second National Development Plan, 1971:24).

While the previous Development Plans emphasised quantitative aspects of educational development, the Second National Development Plan concentrated on both qualitative and quantitative aspects, but still could not satisfy the needs nor the demands of society. Energies could now be directed not only towards increasing numbers, but also towards re-shaping objectives and curricular and this led to the reform of the education system in conformity with Humanism (Educational Reform, 1977:1).

### **3.7 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

Chapter 3 highlighted the historical development of education through various periods, for example traditional education, missionary education and government education.

The work of the missionaries has been discussed in detail. Included in the discussion are the recommendations of the Phelps-Stokes Commission that education should be adapted to the needs and conditions of the Africans.

The education of the British South Africa Company, the Federal Government and the Independence Government has been discussed. Changes brought about by the Education Act 1966, First and Second National Plans have been cited.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **THE EDUCATION POLICY AFTER INDEPENDENCE: EDUCATIONAL REFORM**

#### **4.1 INTRODUCTION**

At the time of independence, Zambia was characterized by imbalances and inequalities in the government system with regard to different races and different sections of the population. Africans were not represented in government. Education was used in an attempt to redress these imbalances from becoming manifest in the society. Dissatisfaction in all sections of the society led to the introduction of Educational Reform. This chapter will look into the Educational Reform in detail in terms of proposals and recommendations. Among other things it will show the differences between Education for Development (Draft Statement) which was the initial draft, and the finally adopted recommendations (Educational Reform), which is the functional policy.

#### **4.2 ORIGIN OF EDUCATIONAL REFORM**

Educational Reform in Zambia came about because of the poor quality and relevance of what transpired in the schools. This expressed itself in dissatisfaction with the academic skills displayed by school children, with their level of performance in examinations and with their inability to find employment or fit suitably into the community when they had left school (Kelly et al., 1986:4).

#### **4.3 PREPARATION OF THE EDUCATIONAL REFORM IN ZAMBIA**

##### **4.3.1 INTRODUCTION**

It was the government's theory to involve the public in the formulation of the educational policy. The Reform took three distinct phases to formulate: firstly, the formulation of proposals by the Ministry of Education; secondly, the consideration of those proposals in the National Debate; and thirdly, the

revision of the proposals in the light of responses in the National Debate (Clarke, 1978:19).

#### **4.3.2 FORMULATION OF PROPOSALS**

The Zambian Government sent out study groups to the Republic of Cuba, the Republic of Ghana, the People's Republic of China, the Co-operative Republic of Guyana, the Federal Republic of Nigeria, Jamaica, the Republic of Kenya, the Republic of Sierra Leone and the United Republic of Tanzania between May and December 1975 to study the educational systems (Educational Reform, 1977:10).

The four study groups that visited other countries identified many problems concerning the Education System of Zambia. Most common among the problems found by the Study Groups were the following:

- The system encouraged young people to seek white collar employment to the exclusion of jobs requiring manual and technical skills.
- The system of education responded to the reward system of society, thus encouraging individualism and social stratification based on educational attainment and income.
- The curriculum was too bookish and theoretical, with too little attention to practical and useful skills. Most educational institutions are non-productive because many children are ejected without the necessary skills.
- The system did not involve the community in educating and training the youth. The community was divorced from the education system, which was regarded as a closed and alien world.
- The system had relied too heavily on foreign cultural influences and had deprived itself to a great extent of Zambian cultural forms. The education system diminished Zambian culture and had little sense of direction in trying to discover Zambian values. Cultural education was not often enough seen as a creative enterprise building on tradition (Ministry of Education, Briefing Seminar 29-30 April 1975).

The said study groups prepared and submitted reports which together with special investigation reports constituted working papers for the Report Back Seminar opened by His Honour the Secretary-General of the Party on 30 December 1975. These reports were carefully analysed by the Ministry and other sectors (Educational Reform, 1977:2).

A 'retreat group', led by the Permanent Secretary of the Ministry of Education prepared a Draft Statement. This group completed its work in late March 1976 after having produced the document "Education for Development" (Draft Statement on Educational Reform). 40 000 Copies were distributed throughout the country - also to the missions and other agencies. Summaries of the Draft Statement in local languages were prepared and distributed to each province to be debated (Educational Reform, 1977:2).

The entire nation had to be involved, and had to be geared towards debating the Draft Statement. To facilitate this, members of the Central Committee in the provinces had to be briefed about the Draft Statement so that they in turn could brief people at the provincial headquarters, districts and other centres. The Ministry of Education arranged special briefing meetings for provincial officers in Lusaka.

All educational institutions, ministries, churches, trade unions, voluntary associations and other public bodies were requested to organize discussions among their members. The daily newspapers serialized the document and provided space for letters, views and reports on the Draft Statement. Radio and television broadcast special programmes in English and the other seven official languages, namely Silozi, Chitonga, Chibemba, Luvale, Chinyanja, Kukaonde and Lunda (Educational Reform, 1977:2).

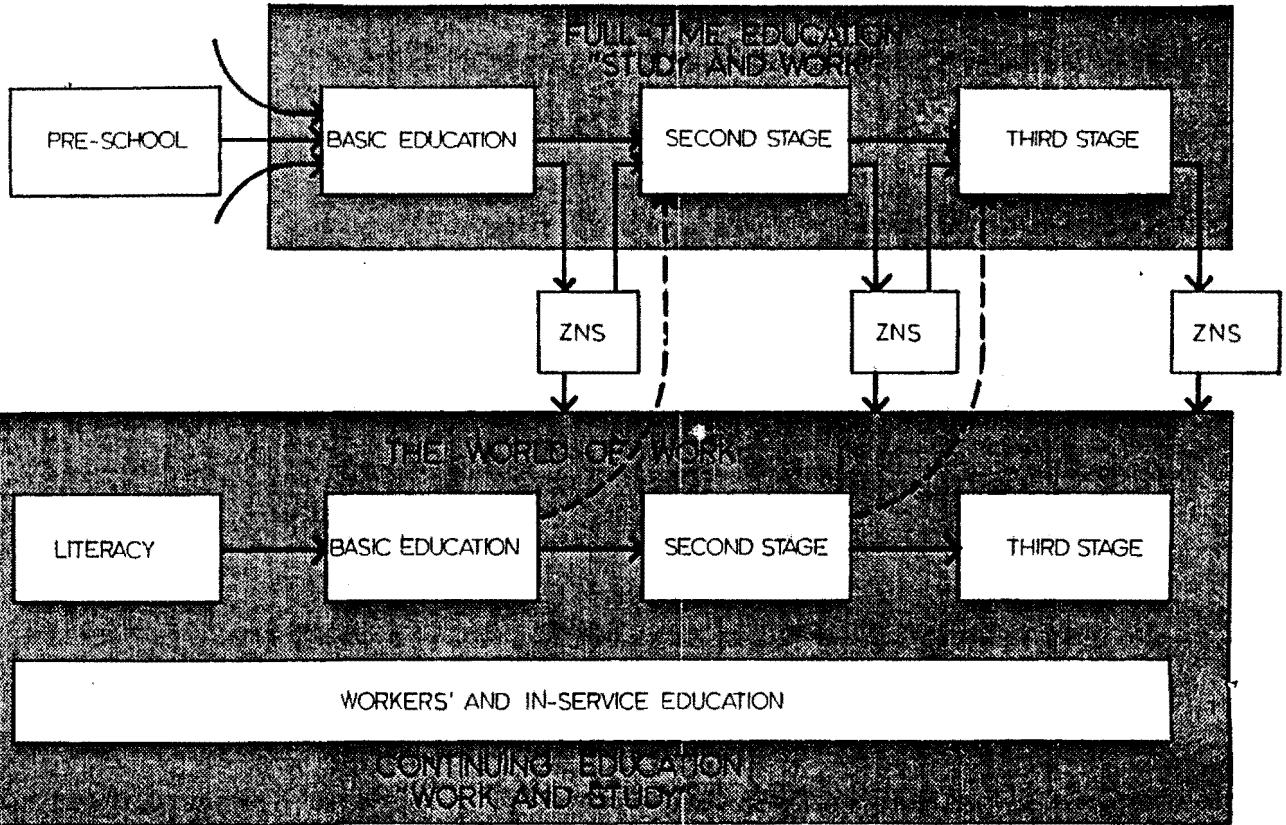
#### **4.3.3 EDUCATION FOR DEVELOPMENT: DRAFT STATEMENT**

It would be of great benefit to take a quick glance at the Draft Statement before discussing how the National Debate was conducted. A discussion of the New Structure on Education for Development (National Education) as seen on Organogram 4.1 will bring an understanding of the ideas that were criticized and abandoned during the National Debate. According to this new structure,



Organogram 4.1

STRUCTURE OF NATIONAL EDUCATION (Education for Development 1976:4)



the education system had two main parts which were of equal value (Education for Development, 1976:5):

- Full-time Education or "Study and Work" - this part would consist of three stages. The first stage (Basic Education) was supposed to provide full-time basic education for all, lasting for ten years. It also provided functional education and occupational competence. Children ejected at this stage would join the Zambia National Services (ZNS) and later join the "World of Work". Children who successfully completed the first stage would get into the second stage, which provided vocational specialization and general education. Also here children ejected would join the ZNS and later the "World of Work". On completion of the second stage a child would proceed to the third stage, which provided professional specialization and general education. At the end of this stage children would join the ZNS. Full-time education was mainly for young children.
- Continuing Education - "Work and Study". People in this part were workers, mainly adults and young people. This package offered basic skills of reading, writing and numbers (literacy). On completion of this stage one would continue into basic education and then the second and finally the third stage as in 'full-time' education. Workers would also receive in-service education.
- The ZNS was a gateway. This part of education would cater for all young people at the point when they could become workers.

According to the new structure, the school year was to be divided into four terms of twelve weeks each. Each term would be followed by a rest of one week. Each school week would comprise five and a half days, including Saturday morning. Each student intake would follow a programme comprising two terms of in-school education per year. While one group of students was following its in-school programme, another would be following an out-of-school programme. This system known as Rotating Intake will enable the schools to enrol twice the number of grades 8-10 without increasing the faculties. During the out-of-school

programme students could be employed or could work on the land (Education for Development, 1976:9).

#### **4.3.4 THE NATIONAL DEBATE**

The National Debate was launched by Dr. K.D. Kaunda at a press conference held at the State House on 24 May 1976. This debate revolved around the Draft Statement. About 1 500 written comments from individuals, schools, associations and various groups were received from all over the country (Educational Reform, 1977:2). Seminars were held at different institutions and from there they were discussed at district level. From the districts debate proceeded to provinces. All evaluations from individuals, institutions, district and provinces were sent to the Evaluation Group, as seen on Figure 4.1.

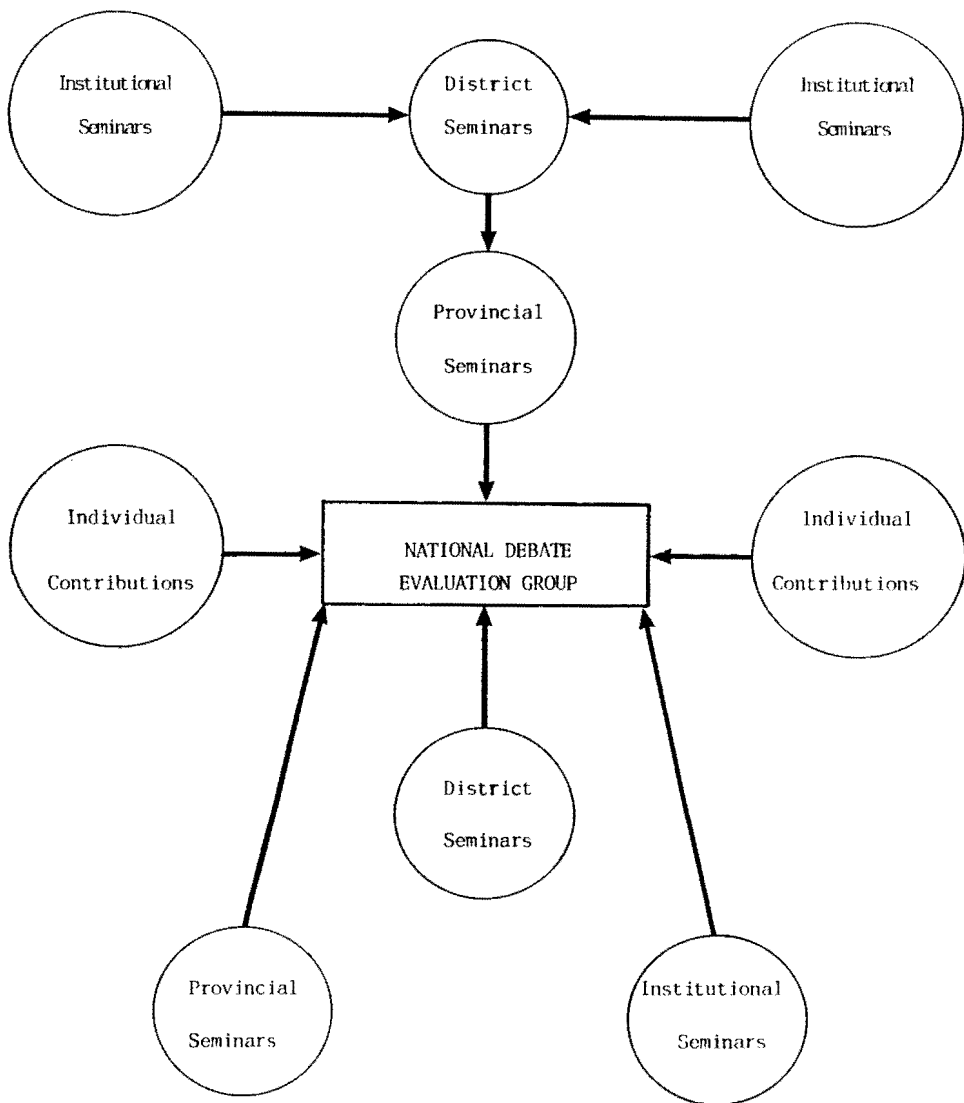
The following are some of the comments made by the public. The Standard Bank Chairman, Mr. Elfas Chipimo said that '**SCHOOL REFORMS ARE A SCAPEGOAT**'. Mr. Chipimo described the proposed educational reforms as a scapegoat for the 'bungling failures' of the Government over the past 12 years. On Political Education, which was incorporated in all stages and programmes of reforms, Mr. Chipimo warned that unless care was taken, this could degenerate into sheer political indoctrination set either against other systems or directed at the current leadership. The Standard Bank chairman said the nation should look at the present structure, see where it had failed and make deliberate and progressive reforms. He disagreed that the newly-adopted reforms would create a humanistic society (Sunday Times, 05-09-1976).

Mr. Charles Mukula (an individual), commented in **The Sunday Times** on 12-09-1976 that manual work in the Basic Education should include things like mechanics and elementary book-keeping.

Another comment came from B.M. Musole. He attacked the methods of assessment. He in fact complained that the new method would encourage bribery and corruption by teachers. Parents felt tests should be given at set periods and marks be allocated for practical work (Sunday Times, 05-09-1976).

Figure 4.1

SOURCE AND FLOW OF NATIONAL DEBATE CONTRIBUTIONS (Kaluba, 1982:78)



The Minister of Education (Prof. L. Goma) responded to some of the comments made. He denied that the reforms were introduced to exploit the teachers as suggested because of rotating intake. He also responded to the fact that teachers were not consulted at the initial stage. He maintained that the Teachers' Union had had the right to draw up its own programme freely (Sunday Times, 29-08-1976).

After the Public Debate, which ended on 30 November 1976, the Ministry arranged for submissions to be studied and objectively summarized in twelve reports covering the full range of discussions. These reports comprised the working papers for the Evaluation Seminar which started on 31 January 1977. The 'retreat group' was re-convened in mid-February 1977, to prepare the final Statement on Education Reform for submission to the Party and to Government. Educational Reform represents a substantial revision of the Draft Statement published in 1976, taking into account the outcome of the National Debate (Educational Reform, 1977:2).

#### **4.3.5 THE OUTCOME OF THE DEBATE: EDUCATIONAL REFORM**

##### **4.3.5.1 Aim**

"The aim of 'National Education' (as it was termed) in the Zambian Humanistic Society, is to develop the potential of each citizen to the full for his own well-being as well as that of society and for selfless service to his fellow men. Such education should thus be true to the integrity of individuals as well as to the needs of our society and our common humanity" (Educational Reform, 1977:5).

##### **4.3.6 MAJOR RECOMMENDATIONS**

The United Independence Party policies entailed that every child should receive compulsory basic education for ten years within the decade 1974 to 1984. While the general policy to provide basic education would remain unchanged, the goal should be to provide 9 years of universal basic education, whereby a child entering Grade I at the age of seven would remain in school until the age of sixteen. It was hoped that seven years of primary education and two years of junior secondary would make the child sufficiently able to enter the next stage,

or to leave school. It was taken that the child would be mature enough to play a useful role in his community after nine years of learning. On the other hand, those who continued to Grade 10 would receive in-depth study in each field so that those who had the opportunity to specialize in technical, scientific and artistic fields during the next stage of education would have a good grounding (Educational Reform, 1977:7). This was a temporary measure whilst working towards implementation of Universal Education (see Organogram 4.2). This structure is referred to as the "Interim Structure" and it runs according to a 7+2+3 pattern.

When Universal Education is finally achieved the structure would be 6+3+3, for example six years of primary education, 3 years of junior secondary and 3 years of senior secondary (see Organogram 4.3). This system would have a terminal point at Grade 9. It would even make it easier to rationalize teacher-training programmes. For example, the teachers of the pupils in the first six grades would be Grade 9 graduates who would have 3 years more educational background than the pupils they would be teaching. Grade 7 to 9 teachers would be Grade 12 graduates and Grade 12 teachers would be university graduates or their equivalent in a specialized field (Educational Reform, 1977:8).

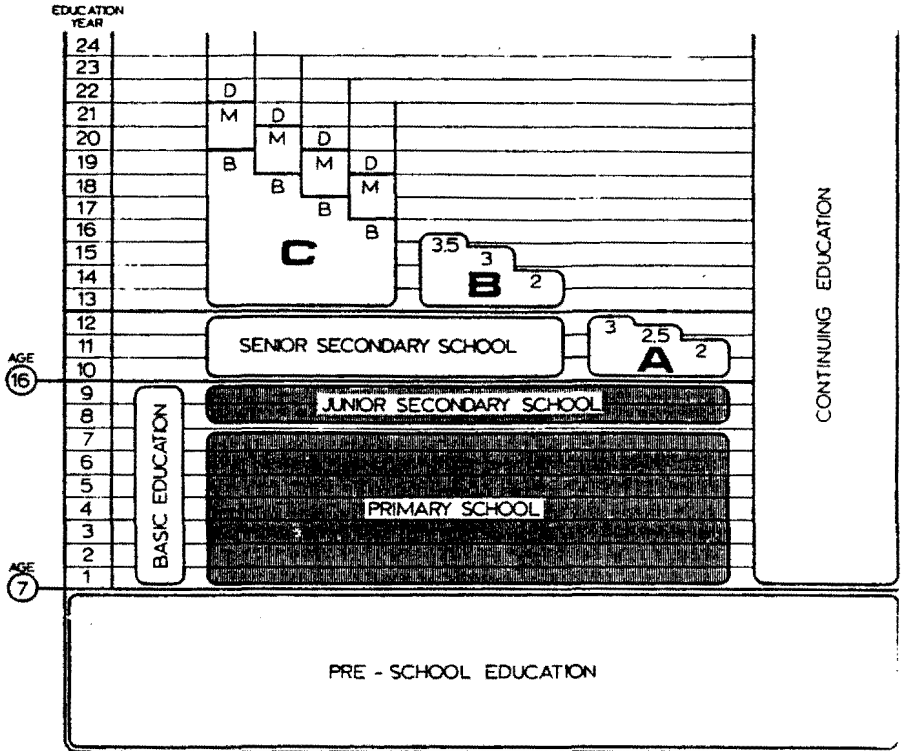
#### **4.4 CONTENTS OF EDUCATIONAL REFORM**

The salient features of the approved educational reforms are that:

- The aim of education is to develop the potential of each person to the full for his own well-being as well as that of society and for selfless service to his fellow-men. Education must reflect the characteristics of society, but society must also be influenced by education.
- Production work and service to the school, community and nation are to be emphasized in curriculum organizations. But production is to be used principally as an educational tool and not as an economic means.

Organogram 4.2

INTERIM STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION (Educational Reform, 1977:10)



NOTES

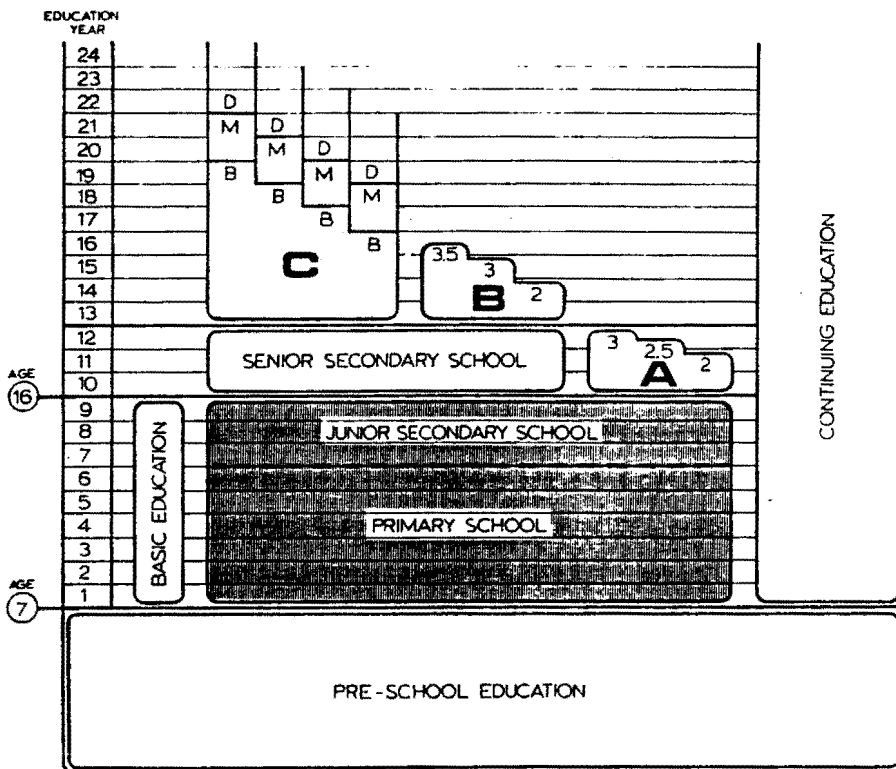
- A** Various vocational programmes, e.g., Trades, Nursing, Teacher Training, etc., leading to a certificate.
- B** Various programmes, e.g., Agriculture, Technology, Commerce, Nursing, etc., leading usually to a diploma.
- C** University degree:
  - D = Doctorate
  - M = Master
  - B = Bachelor: 4 years – Ordinary.  
5 years – Engineering, Agriculture, etc.  
6 years – Veterinary Science.  
7 years – Medicine.

NB

In A and B there are also some courses which take less than 2 years.  
From primary to senior secondary an education year represents a grade.

Organogram 4.3

FINAL STRUCTURE OF EDUCATION (Educational Reform, 1977:11)



NOTES

- A** Various vocational programmes, e.g., Trades, Nursing, Teacher Training, etc., leading to a certificate.
- B** Various programmes, e.g., Agriculture, Technology, Commerce, Nursing, etc., leading usually to a diploma.
- C** University degree:
  - D = Doctorate.
  - M = Master.
  - B = Bachelor: 4 years – Ordinary.
  - 5 years – Engineering, Agriculture, etc.
  - 6 years – Veterinary Science.
  - 7 years – Medicine.

NB

In A and B there are also some courses which take less than 2 years.

From primary to senior secondary an education year represents a grade.



- Universal Basic Education is to be provided through nine years of school for every child from the age of seven, the first step in attaining this goal being to enable every child to enter Grade 1 and proceed through Grade 7. The then existing structure of seven years primary, three junior secondary and 2 years senior secondary 7+3+2 was to be changed in the interim into a 7+2+3 system but eventually into a 6+3+3 pattern.
- Responsibilities for programmes outside the formal educational system, such as literacy programmes or those for out-of-school youths, should rest with ministries other than education.
- Curricula should consist of core subjects which give general education and suitable optional subjects, including practical subjects that are to be studied in great depth.
- English should continue to be the medium of instruction from Grade 1. The status of Zambian languages should be improved and the University should extend its work here.
- Examinations would continue to be used for Certification and selection. They should serve to test knowledge and understanding, to provide an incentive for hard work and to improve quality. Continuous assessment should be used in teaching-learning process. It could also play a part in certification, in borderline cases and in selection. Attitudes could be assessed, but such assessment should play no part in certification or selection.
- Pre-service training of teachers should be for 2 years on a full-time basis. In-service training programmes should be intensified. Because the success of the system depended on the competence, commitment and resourcefulness of the teachers, efforts should be made to improve their status and to encourage them to remain in the system.

- Voluntary organizations and mission agencies should be encouraged to continue with their valuable services of rendering education. Private schools would be allowed, subject to compliance with regulations.
- The policy of decentralization and community involvement should be practised. Responsibilities should be devolved on to the local communities. Local communities should be mature enough to run self-help projects.
- The Education System should also provide schooling for handicapped children (Kelly, 1987:236-237).

## **4.5 IMPLICATIONS FOR THE SCHOOL SYSTEM**

### **4.5.1 FULL-TIME EDUCATION: FIRST STAGE**

The first stage provides nine years of basic education starting from age 7 when they enter Grade 1 up to Grade 9. In the period, pupils progress from Grade 1 to seven. At the end of Grade 7 they sit for a selection examination so as to enter Grade 8. Those who leave full-time education after Grade 7 would have the opportunity to enter available appropriate programmes in continuing education or join other fields of training and productive activities, such as the agricultural sector and various skills training programmes (Educational Reform, 1977:8-9).

### **4.5.2 SECOND STAGE**

This is after Grade 9, when students are selected to enter full-time general education programmes for Grade 10-12 (Form III to V). They may also be selected to pursue specialized training programmes such as the Zambian Enrolled Nurses' Course or traders' training courses. Some of those who leave full-time education at this stage may join the world of work, pursue training programmes in various sectors of the economy and may take advantage of Continuing (part-time) Education programmes (Educational Reform, 1977:9).

### **4.5.3 THIRD STAGE**

This stage provides a wide variety of the fields of study, such as advanced specialised programmes leading to either the Diploma in Teaching, Technology, Nursing and in Agriculture and programmes to be taken at university level. Some candidates for these programmes would be Grade 9 graduates who, through further study or other appropriate training, may meet entry requirements to such programmes (Educational Reform, 1977:9).

## **4.6 EDUCATION FOR DEVELOPMENT AS AGAINST EDUCATIONAL REFORM**

It would be of great importance to compare the initial Draft Statement with functional "Educational Reform".

- The 1976 and 1977 proposals were both flexible, allowing access to formal education at many points.
- The strategy (Rotating Intake) adopted in 1976 to enrol twice the number of children who would otherwise be without school places was dropped in 1977 proposals.
- Education for Development was against the idea of Zambians sending their children abroad for primary, secondary education and Educational Reform accepted the idea.
- According to the 1976 proposals, Institutions of learning were to become 'Production Unites' (PU), combining study and work. In 1977 the study and work programme was retained, but educational objectives had priority over production objective.
- The 1976 proposals emphasized that the teaching staff should be mobilized. Volunteer teachers had to play a big role in the new expanded educational structure. The new corps of volunteer teachers were to come from the ranks of workers. The whole idea of teacher mobilization and volunteer teachers was dropped following the 1977 proposals.

- According to the 1976 proposals, the selection function of the examination had to be eliminated, while the 1977 proposals retained the idea.
- Continuous assessment of many forms and in which the community takes part was encouraged. This was discouraged by the 1977 proposals because it presented enormous evaluation difficulties to the teachers.
- The 1976 proposals aimed at abandoning the Pass/Fail concept. This was retained by the 1977 proposals (Kaluba, 1982:36).

#### **4.7 INFLUENCE AND ACHIEVEMENTS OF EDUCATIONAL REFORM**

Twenty years ago Zambia had a tiny secondary school system, a handful of colleges that prepared low-level primary school teachers, a nascent university, non-existent secondary school training facilities and a very rudimentary technical training sub-sector. All of these areas have been considerably developed in the years since and in particular the need for high level manpower has been met in many critical areas where posts had been held by whites. In addition, much development has taken place in the design of the curriculum and curricular materials, in the administration and processing of examinations, in the production of educational books and literature. During a period of phenomenally rapid expansion the secondary schools for all their deficiencies were reasonably well staffed, especially in the crucial areas of English, Mathematics and Science (Kelly, 1987:88).

The policy to provide universal primary education was envisaged to be achieved through a process of increasing facilities and increased enrolment of Grade 1, although it had a catch-up later. Large numbers of Form 1 classes were created, though demands could not be met. Self-help activities (sponsored by Norway, Sweden and Finland) helped to improve the quality of education in a time of economic crisis. In this spirit all support, whether material or technical, is provided directly in response to initiatives by teachers in conjunction with pupils, parents and community at large (Banda: 17-10-88).

To overcome the problem of Grade 8 places, certain measures have been taken towards the full implementation of Basic Education. Building of classes by the

Community for Grade 8 level is paying dividends. Many primary schools have been upgraded to Basic Schools (Grade 1-9) due to the committed effort of communities in building classroom structures. The rate of increase in Basic Schools has been particularly high since 1984 (Chetu 19-10-88).

The Interim Structure of Education, which provides for 7 years of primary education, two years of junior secondary and three years of senior secondary was implemented in 1983 together with the revised curricula. A further point to mention is that the central theme in the revision of Basic Education curricula is productive skills. All subject areas are expected to prepare teaching/learning programmes which will equip pupils with appropriate productive skills that will enable children who complete Grade 9 but do not proceed to Grade 10 to engage in productive ventures and hence make themselves self-reliant in life (Katillilo: 22-10-88).

#### **4.8 PROBLEMS OF THE EDUCATIONAL REFORM**

New problems were that government had assumed for itself almost the entire responsibility for the financing of education, without any contribution from the recipients. Education at the primary and secondary level is taken to be the sole responsibility of the Government. It also financed the system by providing all inputs in terms of personnel, curriculum, material, maintenance and even boarding provisions. By giving the widest possible meaning to the concept of free education an increasing burden was assumed by the government to meet many of the personal costs of pupils in primary, secondary and in all higher education institutions. These funds could have been available for other more directly educational purposes. Spending money on things that concerned the parents, the government could not attend to things that were more directly concerned to it like giving education to every eligible child (Kelly, 1987:22).

There has been a decline in the allocation of textbooks, especially at primary school level, since the introduction of the 1977 reforms. Almost two-thirds of the schools (127 out of 196) did not have a single English textbook for Grade 1, while 80% (153 out of 196) schools did not have a single Mathematics book. The

dominant view of schools about the supply of books the past five years has been that the situation is becoming worse. The supply of teaching materials in schools is in a critical state. There are schools without any of the necessary textbooks and even where they can be found they do not exist in numbers equal to the number of pupils and are not sufficient for class use (Kelly, 1987:73-76).

The financial situation was so bad that in 1981 it was not possible to open Form I classes and it was not known what funds would be available for 1982. Public examinations and selection examination have been retained. Control over profitmaking private schools has been relaxed and these are mushrooming at present with little control from the inspectorate (Alexander, 1981:210-211).

The permanent Secretary mentioned also that administratively it was very expensive to implement all the decisions of Educational Reform. At the implementation date things went smoothly because funds were still available. Longterm projects were hampered by the unavailability of funds (Banda: 17-10-88).

To accommodate more pupils in primary schools, a system of double session is in operation. In primary schools, what is officially designated as double session is an arrangement where a teacher handles one class in the morning and another class of the same grade in the afternoon. This means, as an illustration, a teacher would teach Grade I B in the morning and Grade I H in the afternoon. This arises from the rapid expansion of the primary sector without a corresponding increase in the number of teachers and classroom space; it is also because the primary sector has fewer subjects per class and fewer subjects than the secondary sector. This system overburdens the teacher. Double sessioning is a problem that will exist in Zambia for a very long time (Kanduza: 25-10-88).

The educational reform movement of 1974-1978 was the culmination of efforts to expand educational provision in the immediate post-independence years, to remove conditions that lead to inequality of access to schooling especially children in rural areas where some schools ended with Grade 4 and to relate the content of education to independent Zambian society. The very

development of the system in the years after 1964 had created a host of problems. The speed of its growth outstripped the supply of qualified and experienced teachers, particularly at the secondary level. After the first few years of massive growth, the rate of expansion slowed down, to the consternation of the public. Fears were expressed that there was a serious decline in educational standards, judging by examination results (Kelly, 1987:231-232).

In an interview on school leavers, the Permanent Secretary mentioned that the government was concerned about the increasing number of school leavers who were being eliminated from the school system without adequate preparation for adult life. He was mostly worried about great numbers of pupils who could not get places for Grade 8. These children were ejected after the Grade 7 selection examination. He mentioned that  $\pm 20\%$  of Grade 7's proceeded to Grade 8. Only 17% of Grade 7's who write the selection examinations get places in Grade 8. He referred to this as a "volcano" (Banda: 17-10-88).

A further point on school leaving is made by Molotsi (17-10-88) who made a large contribution to the making of Educational Reform. He explained that the actual number of places in Grade 8 would determine the number of Grade 7's who should proceed to Grade 8. He referred to this system as a "Cut-Off-Point". After the selection examination two schedules were drawn up for boys and girls according to their merits. The cut-off-point would be at the number required for Grade 8. This system leaves thousands of pupils without schooling beyond Grade 7.

A Secondary Inspector for Mathematics, when interviewed on Basic Education, maintained that Basic Education had not yet been fully implemented mainly because of financial constraints in providing enough places for all Grade 7 pupils to proceed to Grade 8 (Kalililo: 22-10-88).

In an attempt to solve the Grade 8 problem a phenomenon approximating the double session system has arisen in the secondary schools since 1985. For example, from 1985 to date Munali and Kabulonga Secondary Schools in Lusaka have had an intake of 15 Grade 8 classes. It has been found convenient,

that is not a matter of policy, to have Form I classes from mid-day to about 17h00 and reduce the number of lessons for non-examination subjects for Grade 10 and 11.

The Grade 10 and 11 classes would end at about 13h00 or get involved in activities needing fewer teachers and reduced supervision while the 15 Grade 8 classes use classrooms for academic activities. Since junior secondary school classes are usually taught by diploma holders, these teachers may have no class in the morning but only teach the Grade 8 classes in the afternoon (Kanduza: 25-10-88).

These are varied arrangements that can be referred to as "double session". In the first case (Primary) teachers and pupils in class at a particular grade have double sessions. In the secondary case, most of the teachers would teach only in the afternoon as a result of over-enrolment in a situation of limited classroom space.

Another problem is lack of suitably qualified staff to man Basic Schools, mainly Grade 8 and 9 classes. This has distorted the teaching and learning of most subjects, especially in areas such as science and mathematics. However, as from 1989, a project has been set up to provide in-service training or one year upgrading course to this group of teachers (Kalililo: 22-10-88).

There is lack of equipment and other facilities in specialised subjects such as Science and Home Economics in most, if not all, Basic Schools. For example such schools have no laboratories because junior secondary classes were added to a primary school. This has caused difficulties in the teaching and learning of such subjects. One of the implications is that pupils from Basic Schools find it difficult to cope with the normal curriculum (Kalililo: 22-10-88).

#### **4.9 THE THIRD NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN**

The development and increase of educational facilities became the objective of the Third National Development Plan which was launched in 1979. This plan provides the opportunity for re-orientating the education system towards the needs and aspirations of the nation. The planned goal of consolidating the



physical plan of the primary school system failed because of lack of capital. In urban areas overcrowding continued, tripled sessions were not eliminated in lower primary classes and double sessions continued in upper primary. The programme of replacing decrepit school buildings and teachers houses, especially in rural areas, made slow progress, as did the provision of water, electricity and sewage systems (Third National Development Plan, 1979:337).

The objectives of the Third National Plan on education were:

- To improve the quality of education and services
- The quality of teacher education and the professional development of the teacher were to be improved.
- Imbalances in education and educational facilities were to be removed.
- Use of facilities to be maximised.
- New buildings were to be simple, durable, functional, low in maintenance and local material was to be used.
- Provision for continuing educational facilities will be expanded and diversified.
- Self-help projects were to be encouraged.
- Recurrent and capital expenditure on educational institutions were to be consolidated to bring out educational values, develop correct attitudes and production skills.
- Localisation of the School Certificate Examination will be completed by appointing Zambians in the Examination Council.
- Development of resource centres and teachers' centres were undertaken.
- Development on the new curricula that will accommodate the educational reforms were undertaken (Third National Development Plan 1979, 342-343).

#### **4.10 THE FOURTH NATIONAL DEVELOPMENT PLAN**

In March 1985, Guidelines for the Formulation of the Fourth National Development Plan were published. This plan had to consider the possibility of converting some of the existing secondary schools into technical and agricultural schools. The Guidelines stated that the plan should assign a high priority to raising standards of education in Mathematics and Science subjects. The guidelines also state that the implementation of the Educational Reforms should continue through the Fourth National Development Plan (Kelly et al., 1986:6).

#### **4.11 NATIONAL POLICIES FOR THE DECADE 1985-1995**

The implementation of the Educational Reform never stopped, it continued to be implemented through various documents such as the Third National Development Plan, Fourth National Development Plan and the Policies for the Decade.

During the mentioned decade the aims of the educational system will include (UNIP, National Policies for the decade 1985-1995:34):

- Developing the potential of all citizens to think independently and to find the bearings among problems as they arise; and
- training highly skilled manpower capable of solving complex tasks and the production of citizens loyal to the Party and the Philosophy of Humanism.

The aim of the United National Independence Party is to introduce compulsory schooling which will combine 7 years of the present Primary system with 2 years and then 3 years of the present Junior Secondary school in progression with the productivity of the Zambians. To this end the Party pledges to remove all the anomalies of the present educational system which have tended to encourage students to believe that they are not entitled to work because they are students, thereby depriving society of the energy and skill of hundreds of young people. Technical education at secondary level will be major emphasis of the policy. The young must learn skills that will help them after school.

#### **4.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

The task of exposing the formation and acceptance of the Educational Reform which is the functional Education Policy in Zambia has been reached in Chapter 4.

This section also discussed the implementation of the Educational Reform and how it was retarded by insufficient funds in the country.

Chapter 4 has also looked in detail into the Third and Fourth National Development Plans which were introduced to eliminate problems that retarded the progress of Educational Reform.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES IN THE ZAMBIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM**

#### **5.1 INTRODUCTION**

After having discussed the introduction and implementation of the educational policy of 1977 (Educational Reform) in the previous chapter, it will be legitimate to discuss the organs and nodal structures that are responsible for carrying out the new educational policies. The major emphasis in this section is to look into the organisation, administration, control and funding of education.

#### **5.2 MINISTRIES OF EDUCATION**

In 1982 September, President Kaunda reshuffled the Ministry of Education and Culture by splitting it into two, one being the Ministry of General Education and Culture and the other being the Ministry of Higher Education. Each ministry has a minister as its political head. Details on both Ministries will be given in paragraphs 5.4 and 5.5.

#### **5.3 THE POWERS AND DUTIES OF BOTH MINISTERS OF EDUCATION**

Under Section 4 of the 1966 Act the Minister of Education was empowered to:

- promote education of the people of the Republic of Zambia;
- further the development of institutions which have been established for the purpose of promoting the education of the people;
- make sure that children are educated in accordance with the wishes of their parents;
- close any government school or hostel, or change the site of such school or hostel, whenever he considers it necessary or expedient to do so;

- recognize any association representing teachers, just as he may also recognize any association of parents and teachers formed in connection with any school;
- prohibit in writing the use in any school of any book or material for any reason which he may think fit;
- cause inspections to be made of any school, and
- make grants or loans to educational institutions.

## **5.4 MINISTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION AND CULTURE**

### **5.4.1 GENERAL**

The Ministry of Education and Culture is responsible for formal education such as Pre-primary, Primary and Secondary Education, continuing Education and Special Education, including culture (Annual Report for the year 1983, 1986:1).

The political head of the Ministry is the Minister of General Education and Culture who is a Cabinet Minister and a member of Parliament. He is assisted by two Ministers of State. One Minister of State is responsible for Education and the other for Culture. (Annual Report for the year 1982, 1986:1); (see Organizational Chart - Organogram 5.1.)

The permanent Secretary is the head of administration assisted by the under-Secretary who in turn is assisted by assistant Secretaries, each responsible for:

- the Administration Section - in matters pertaining to general administration and organisation of the ministry;
- the Staffing Section - for staff recruitment, appointment, conditions of service, general staffing matters and re-current estimates;
- the Finance Section - which is responsible for capital programme in terms of development and research;



- Professional and Technical Assistance - which deals with legislation.

Chief Education Officers, Senior Education Officers, Education Officers in the personnel and Accounts Sections are responsible to Assistant Secretaries.

#### **5.4.2 INSPECTORATE**

The Inspectorate Division is the professional arm of the Ministry and is headed by the Chief Inspector of Schools. Inspectors for Primary and Secondary Schools are responsible to the Chief Inspector (see Organogram 5.1; Organizational Chart).

The key role of the inspector is to inspect schools and advise the Ministry and other concerned bodies on a wide range of matters which include:

- Curriculum - liaising with the Curriculum Development Centre, Colleges and the University of Zambia on curriculum matters; keeping in touch with new curriculum developments elsewhere which could be through meetings, seminars, workshops and conferences and also through studying papers and publications; staffing, posting and promotions of teaching personnel.
- Renewals and extension of appointments of teachers.
- Examinations - liaising with the Examination Section on matters such as setting, marking and moderating of Junior Secondary School leaving Examination; appointment of Chief Examiner, Deputy Chief Examiner, Chief Marker and Deputy Chief Marker.
- Liaising with the University of Cambridge Syndicate on problems and standards of examinations; analyses of examination results - this is normally done through meetings, letters and circulars.
- Teaching materials, including sources, costs and reviewing of textbooks, and to liaise with National Education Distribution Company of Zambia (NEDCOZ) and the National Educational Company of Zambia (NECZAM).

- Advise Subject Associations on general policy and to assist with general organisation. This is normally done through meetings, letters and conferences.

There are two types of inspection, an Inspector may undertake:

- Routine Inspection,

an ordinary inspection where no advice reports or complaints have been received on any particular school or teachers, or

- Special Inspection,

which takes place where reports or complaints on a particular school have been received. An inspection on a school, whether routine or special, is the key to the whole job of an inspector. The concern of the Ministry is that teachers should be assisted to make pupils learn (Kalilio: 22-10-88).

#### **5.4.3 SPECIAL EDUCATION UNDER THE MINISTRY OF GENERAL EDUCATION AND CULTURE**

- Providing relevant education for disabled children at Pre-school, Primary and Secondary level.
- Providing awareness in disabled children to fully participate in National Development.
- Providing an opportunity and facilities for an all-round development of the disabled child.
- Promoting public awareness about special education.
- Providing appropriate teaching staff.
- Collecting data on the number of disabled children in order to plan appropriately.



- Organising in-service training programmes.
- Monitoring the quality of special education provided.
- Ordering and distributing specialised education materials to schools: and
- Providing appropriate guidance and counselling to the disabled (Pensulo: 29-09-88).

The special Education Inspectorate has, among other things, been ensuring the provision and maintenance of special education, opening up units, basic schools and hospitals, teaching services and Basic schools where such facilities are needed. Apart from providing such services, the special education inspectorate has addressed itself to the maintenance of standards by conducting in-service training programmes and carrying out school inspections in Primary and Secondary Schools. It has also been engaged in carrying out the programme of integration of disabled children into ordinary schools (Pensulo: 29-09-88).

## **5.5 MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION**

### **5.5.1 GENERAL**

The Ministry of Higher Education has been charged with the responsibility of administering the Third Level of Education which includes all forms of College Education and University Education. Under the same Ministry there are the Department of Technical Education and Vocational Training, the Examination Section, the Curriculum Development Centre and other related educational services (Annual Report for the year 1982, 1986:4).

The Minister of Higher Education is the head of the Ministry of Higher Education and also the member of Cabinet. He is assisted by the Minister of State who is also a member of Parliament. Under the Minister of State there is the permanent Secretary who is assisted by the under-Secretary in the overall administration of the Ministry, and they are further assisted by the following heads of sections (Annual Report for the year 1984, 1987:1):

- Assistant Secretary (Administration)
- Assistant Secretary (Staffing)
- Assistant Secretary (Technical Assistance and Planning)
- Senior Inspector for Teacher Training.

(The Organisational Chart for the Ministry of Higher Education was not officially released during a visit to Zambia.)

## **5.5.2 ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION**

The functions of the sections and units are:

- Administration

This Section is responsible for the general administration and organization of the Ministry.

- Staffing and Finance

- As its name implies, this section consists of the Staffing and Finance Units.

The Staffing Unit discharges duties pertaining to terms and conditions of service, recruitments, promotions and separations. This Unit is also responsible for staffing colleges with ancillary staff, such as catering officers, bursars and clerical officers.

The Finance Unit is responsible for supervising and controlling the finances of the Ministry. It also secures funds for the University of Zambia, the National Council for Scientific Research, the Zambia National Commission for United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) and the Department of Technical Education and Vocational Training.

- Technical Assistance and Development Planning Research

This section combines all work pertaining to planning and co-ordination of international co-operation and technical assistance.

### **5.5.3 INSPECTORATE: MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION**

The Inspectorate is the professional wing of the Ministry with the overall responsibility of promoting and developing both the administration and professional standards of the lecturing staff of teacher training colleges in the country. Inspectors are responsible for (Annual Report for the year 1984, 1987:3-4):

- Co-ordinating all work in the colleges and supervising college lectures;
- recommending appointment to lectureship posts in teacher training colleges;
- liaising with the University of Zambia School of Education and Teachers' College Association Units on Secondary Teachers' Training Programmes;
- control and supervision of teacher training curricula, examinations and teaching materials especially with regard to primary teacher training colleges;
- organising subject and examination panels for the Primary Teachers' Colleges in liaison with the examination Council of Zambia;
- approving the quality and standard of the central selection of teacher trainees for both Primary and Secondary teachers' Colleges; and
- advising on discipline and conduct of both staff and students in teacher training colleges.

The major constraints on both Ministry of General Education and Culture (MGEC) and Ministry of Higher Education (MHE) Inspectors are the non-availability of transport, a dearth of funds and delays in honouring subsistence claims in the absence of imprest facilities, shortages of equipment and materials

and a lack of suitable venues providing both accommodation and food further constrain the functioning of seminars and workshops.

Other problems associated with both endeavours are the distances involved and poor travelling conditions. Pressing official responsibilities, and in some instances poor co-operation and co-ordination between administrative and in sectorial staff affect performances at regional and district levels especially in the procurement of funds and vehicles. The most important function is to serve as itinerant teacher-educators in Colleges. The pre-requisite for the ongoing support and education of teachers is a form of knowledge of the inspectors and pre-service training programme, but the problem is that some inspectors are not sufficiently informed on the pre-service training programmes. A further constraining factor is the educational level of some members of the inspectorate (Kelly et al., 1986:469-470).

#### ***5.5.4 SPECIAL EDUCATION UNDER THE MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION***

The Ministry of Higher Education (MHE) is charged with the responsibility of carrying out the following instructions:

- to provide education and training service for the disabled youth in training institutions, colleges and other institutions of higher learning;
- to plan, co-ordinate and supervise the education and training of the disabled in the training institutes, colleges and other institutions of higher learning in order to maintain consistency and required standards;
- to promote research in Special Education training;
- to intensify co-ordination of social, medical, educational and rehabilitational services for the handicapped;
- to ensure adequate staffing in all training institutes colleges and other institutions of higher learning dealing with the disabled;
- to provide specialized materials and equipment; and

- to provide special teacher training for senior secondary and tertiary education (Pensulo: 29-09-88).

In an effort to fulfil its functions, the Ministry of Higher Education has continued to maintain the programmes at the Lusaka College for Teachers of the Handicapped by providing it with the necessary resources, such as qualified staff, educational materials and funds.

## **5.6 RELATIONSHIP AND ANOMALIES BETWEEN THE TWO MINISTRIES**

After discussing both ministries, that is, the Minister of General Education and Culture and the Ministry of Higher Education, it is worthwhile to mention the relationships between and irregularities in the two ministries (Kelly *et al.*, 1986:518-520).

- The curriculum and the development of curricular materials, especially textbooks, rest on the Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) at MHE (of which the CDC is a unit), but the principal user is MGEC. The Primary and Secondary schools are the chief consumer of the products of the CDC. The large professional sector at MGEC, which is the inspectorate, has a necessary role to play in the development of these products. But as the structures have been established, MGEC does not have primary responsibility for the curriculum, for the syllabus, for the content of the individual subjects or the textbooks for those subjects.
- Within the inspectorate, based in the two ministries, there is considerable overlap of functions. The Inspectors for music in the Primary Schools, which are the MGEC responsibility, are actually based in MHE and hence do not report on their school inspections directly to the Ministry responsible for the schools.
- The promotion of Science and Mathematics in the Secondary Schools has been entrusted to the Inspectorate in MHE, but it is not clear where this leaves the Science and Mathematics Inspectors in MGEC.

The participation of MGEC's Inspectors in the work of CDC does not seem to be sufficiently stressed, while they could also be more involved in the development and evaluation work of the Examinations' Council, for which they have already undertaken a large share of duties as setters of examination papers, markers of scripts and trainers of their examiners.

MHE is responsible for all professional and administrative matters pertaining to the Primary Teacher Training Colleges, and it must exercise many of these responsibilities through the Chief Education Officers who are MGEC's representatives in the regions. In this situation the college authorities are not clear where responsibility for their affairs lies and whether they should look to MHE headquarters or to regional MGEC offices for assistance when problems arise.

- Because there is so much inter-connectedness between education sectors, the apportionment of responsibilities to separate ministries has tended to slow down the decision-making process. It is necessary to consult personnel in two ministries which are located about one kilometre apart and to co-ordinate their reactions before definite decisions can be arrived at, where the consultation must take the form of meetings problems arise in summoning and holding these. The outcome is that much valuable time is needlessly consumed and the public and private costs of those engaged in activities that span both ministries tend to increase (Kelly et al., 1986:518-520).

## **5.7 INFLUENCE OF THE SPECIFIC ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURING**

there is duplication and overlapping of functions, the split of the Ministries has given the educational system of Zambia some form of specialization. The Ministry of General Education and Culture (MGEC) looks at the Primaries and MHE looks at the Tertiary Education and enhancement of Science and Technology.

The appointment of Inspectors in Zambia is done on a subject basis. There is an Inspector for English, Mathematics and Science. This gives the educational

system a unique characteristic. Teachers get expert advice from Inspectors who have specialized in particular subjects.

## **5.8 NODAL STRUCTURES**

### **5.8.1 BOARD OF GOVERNORS**

The Minister is empowered under the Education Act of 1966 to establish a board of governors for any educational institution owned by the Government. Members of such a board appointed by the Ministers are charged with responsibility for the administration, maintenance and control of the institution for which the board has been established (Annual Report for the year 1966, 1967:6).

In the period after Independence the Government restricted the number of boards of governors' institution to a few colleges which select students on a territorial basis for all courses offered. The Education Regulations of 1966 provide that a board of governors shall consist of sixteen members appointed by the Minister from persons representing the Ministry, local authorities, commerce and industry and such other persons as the minister may deem fit (Mwanakatwe, 1968:120-129).

The functions of a board of governors' institution are wide and they include power to purchase or otherwise acquire and hold or alienate real and personal property, to borrow such sums as it may require, and to enter into contracts, to employ persons in such offices in its service as the Minister may approve, or to regulate the calendar to be followed at the educational institution and to prescribe the subjects of institution and the syllabuses to be followed by students. To protect the interest of the public and of students enrolled in boards of governors' institutions, the Act provides that the Minister may give to a board of governors such general or special directions with respect to the exercise of the powers of the board as the Minister may consider necessary and the board shall comply with the direction. It follows that the Act and the provisions in the Regulations made under it do not confer full autonomy on boards of governors' institutions, which in any case continue to depend upon central government

grant for salaries, staff, equipment and maintenance of student hostels (Mwanakatwe, 1968:129).

### **5.8.2 PARENT TEACHER ASSOCIATION (PTA)**

Under the 1966 Act parents are encouraged to take a more informed interest in the education of their children by forming a PTA. The functions of the Parent Teachers Associations are:

to ensure through regular contacts between parents and teachers, the welfare and best possible education of pupils, an enlightening of teachers to their pupils as full individual personalities and thus to cater for their individual needs and an enlightening of parents on all aspects of pupils' progress in school (Kelly et al., 1986:507).

### **5.8.3 TEACHING SERVICE COMMISSION**

The Teaching Service Commission is appointed by the President himself. It is an independent body answerable to the President. The Teaching Service Commission is responsible for:

- Appointment of teachers. Teachers could be recruited from outside. From training colleges teachers are placed in different schools.
- Confirmation of teachers appointed. Teachers are put on probation for a period of twelve months. After this period teachers are required to re-apply for confirmation of their posts. Their re-applications should be accompanied by all their certificates and medical reports.
- Discipline of teachers. The Teaching Service Commission is charged with the duty of disciplining teachers and heads of schools for misappropriation of funds, abscondment and undesirable morals. Teachers charged with these are dismissed from the education department.
- Promotion. Primary teachers can be promoted to deputyship, headship and into a Senior Teacher position. In the Secondary School teachers can be promoted into headships and deputyships.



- Retirement. Teachers retire at the age of 55 (males) and 54 for females. Teachers could retire early because of health problems, but these should go through the medical board. The Commission could recommend early retirement due to poor performance of the teacher.

#### **5.8.4 TEACHING UNION**

The Ministry of Education has always encouraged the development of a strong, well-organized but responsible body of teachers in the territory. The organization officially recognized to represent the interest of teachers is the Zambia National Union of Teachers. Early in 1964 the Ministry of Education agreed to second a serving teacher selected by the Union to full-time duty as General Secretary of the Union responsible for its organization and administration. At the time, the Ministry undertook to help the teachers' Union in organizing an efficient check-off system for payment of members' subscription. Much strength and prestige of the Teachers' Union has been derived from the increased revenues from teachers' subscription through the check-off system (Mwanakatwe, 1968:12).

The Zambian National Union of Teachers has a grave responsibility to uphold the reputation of the teaching profession by advocating responsibility and competence among Union members. The increasing involvement of the Union in educational planning and development, the setting up of subject committees in several of its hundred or so, branches with the object of achieving maximum teaching efficiency, and the participation of branch members in adult education and literacy programmes are developments which are warmly welcomed by the Ministry (Mwanakatwe, 1968:123-124).

### **5.9 FINANCING OF EDUCATION**

#### **5.9.1 GENERAL**

The Government carries most of the responsibility for financing education at all education levels, for example Primary, Secondary, Training Colleges and the University. There are other sectors that help in the funding of education (Kelly et al., 1986:106).

The financial resources needed to maintain the education system can come from the following sources:

- **Domestic resources**

Education can either be financed by public revenues from the government (central and local governments) or non-government bodies (individuals, philanthropists and institutions). Funds from non-government bodies come from parents, community and education institutions themselves. Institutions generate revenues through activities like production, and funds from philanthropists come in form of donations.

- **Foreign resources**

Foreign Governments enter into an agreement with the Government of Zambia to help finance education. Non-government bodies like philanthropical groups and Institutional bodies also provide revenues for educational purposes in the form of grants, donations and the establishment of Mission School (see Figure 5.1).

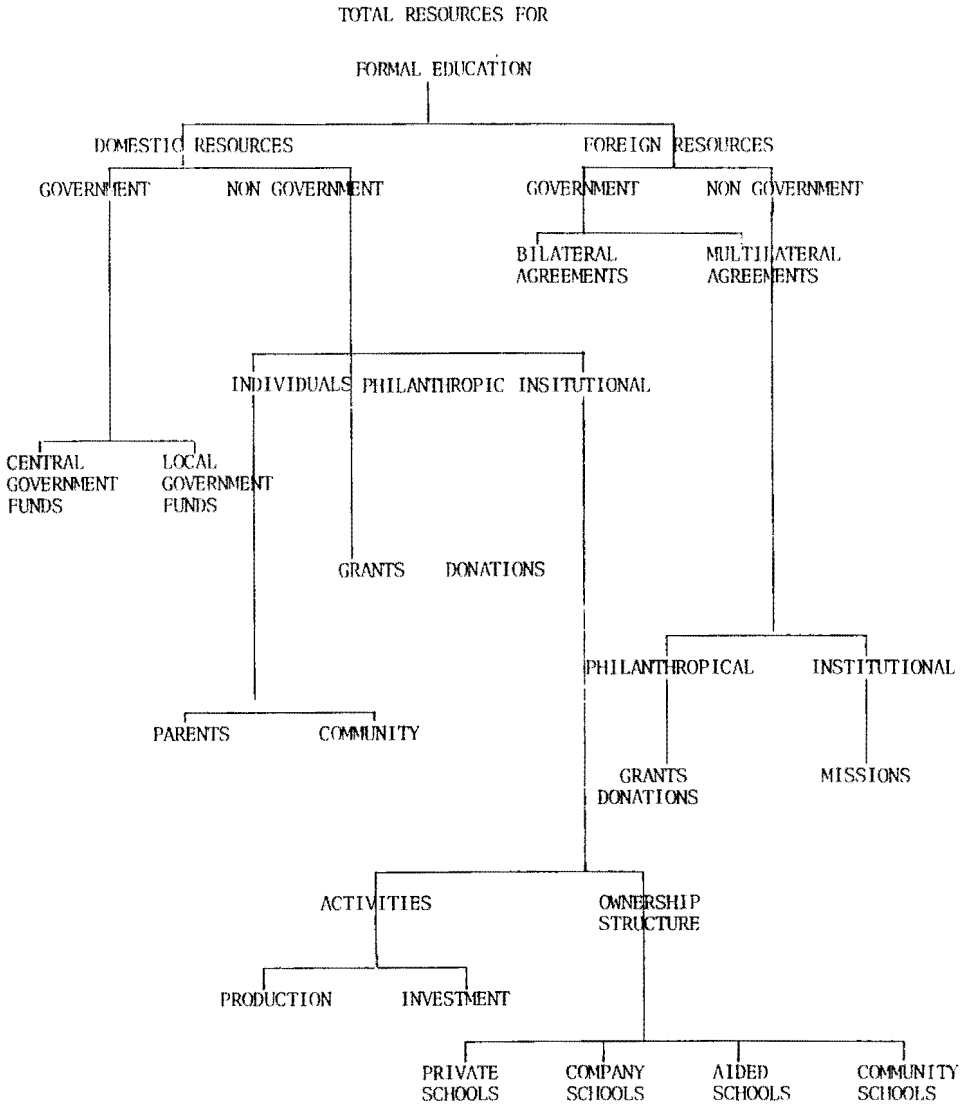
### **5.9.2 CLAIMANTS ON THE EDUCATION BUDGET**

There are eight principal claimants on the current education budget:

- Primary Schools for teachers' salaries and allowances, wages of non-teaching staff, teaching materials, repairs and maintenance; office material, transport;

Figure 5.1

THE ORIGINE OF EDUCATIONAL RESOURCES IN ZAMBIA  
(Kelly, 1987:47(a))



- Secondary Schools (for the same purpose as in Primary Schools, but also boarding costs);
- Teacher training (as for Secondary Schools, but also student allowances);
- Technical education and vocational training (for the same purposes as teacher training);
- The University of Zambia (a one-line entry for a grant-in-aid towards the running costs of the University);
- Bursaries (for students at the University or studying abroad under various technical assistance arrangements);
- Sundry units (for miscellaneous departments and sub-units within the education ministries);
- Educational broadcasting service, curriculum development centre, special education, continuing education, examinations, special expenditure on educational materials and culture;
- Headquarters (for running costs of the central headquarters and regional offices of the education ministries and for the inspectorate) (Kelly et al., 1986:111).

### **5.9.3 EXPENDITURE BY LEVELS OF EDUCATION**

At each level of education, from Primary School to University, the education budget is used to pay salaries, wages and other emoluments to purchase teaching materials, to meet accommodation and boarding expenses and to pay service maintenance, transport and administrative costs (see Table 5.2 for analysis of educational expenditure by purpose. (Kelly et al., 1986:115).

Within the education sector, approximately  $\frac{2}{3}$  of the expenditure goes to Primary and Secondary Schools,  $\frac{1}{6}$  to the University and bursary payments, and the remaining  $\frac{1}{6}$  to teacher and technical education, sundry support

departments and the cost of administering the education system (Kelly, 1987:51).

#### 5.9.4 UNIT COST OF EDUCATION

The actual expenditure incurred by government in meeting the running costs of the different levels of education between 1979 and 1984 is given at 1984 prices. The data include per capita cost to government of maintaining an individual at a particular level of education for the year under consideration (see Table 5.3).

**Table 5.2**

ANALYSIS OF EDUCATIONAL EXPENDITURE BY PURPOSE AND LEVEL OF EDUCATION 1983 (Kelly et al., 1986:115).

	Primary Schools	Secondary Schools	Teacher Training	Technical Education	University
	%	%	%	%	%
Salaries and Emoluments	90,7	54,1	39,6	39,1	61,7
Teaching Materials	2,0	6,6	2,3	3,5	1,8
Student Accommo = dation and Allowances	0,2	22,5	37,5	19,4	9,1
Teacher Accommodation	-	3,6	-	-	6,3
Administration and Operations	7,1	13,2	20,6	38,0	21,1

**Table 5.3**

THE PUBLIC ANNUAL COST PER STUDENT AT DIFFERENT LEVELS OF EDUCATION 1979-1984 AT CONSTANT 1984 PRICES IN ZAMBIAN KWACHA (Kelly et al., 1986:120)

	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984
Primary	109,28	102,59	102,28	121,45	101,82	80,46
Secondary	569,11	557,45	512,12	585,77	456,20	376,47
Teacher Training	1 679,90	1 640,28	1 681,71	2 172,89	1 525,58	1 374,17
Technical Education	3 365,85	3 207,92	3 343,39	3 567,03	3 013,66	2 798,19
Bursaries	1 154,34	1 180,11	2 625,42	2 039,56	2 944,79	1 571,34
University Grant-in-aid	6 510,29	6 613,21	8 098,39	10 982,09	7 059,32	6 661,86
University including Bursaries	7 664,63	7 793,33	10 723,81	13 021,65	10 004,11	8 233,20

Over the years 1979-1984, the annual public cost of educating one secondary pupil was five times that of a primary pupil; of a non-graduate teacher it was three times that of a secondary pupil; that of a technologist was two times that of a non-graduate teacher and the annual cost of a University student was three times that of a technologist or ninety times that of a primary (Kelly et al., 1986:122).

## 5.10 CONTRAST IN ORGANIZATIONAL STRUCTURES:

### PRE-INDEPENDENCE AND THE PRESENT

In 1963 the Ministry of Education was organised according to races. The responsibility for African Education rested in the Minister for African Education who was a member of the Executive Council. He was assisted by a Permanent Secretary whose subordinate staff include an under-Secretary, and an Assistant

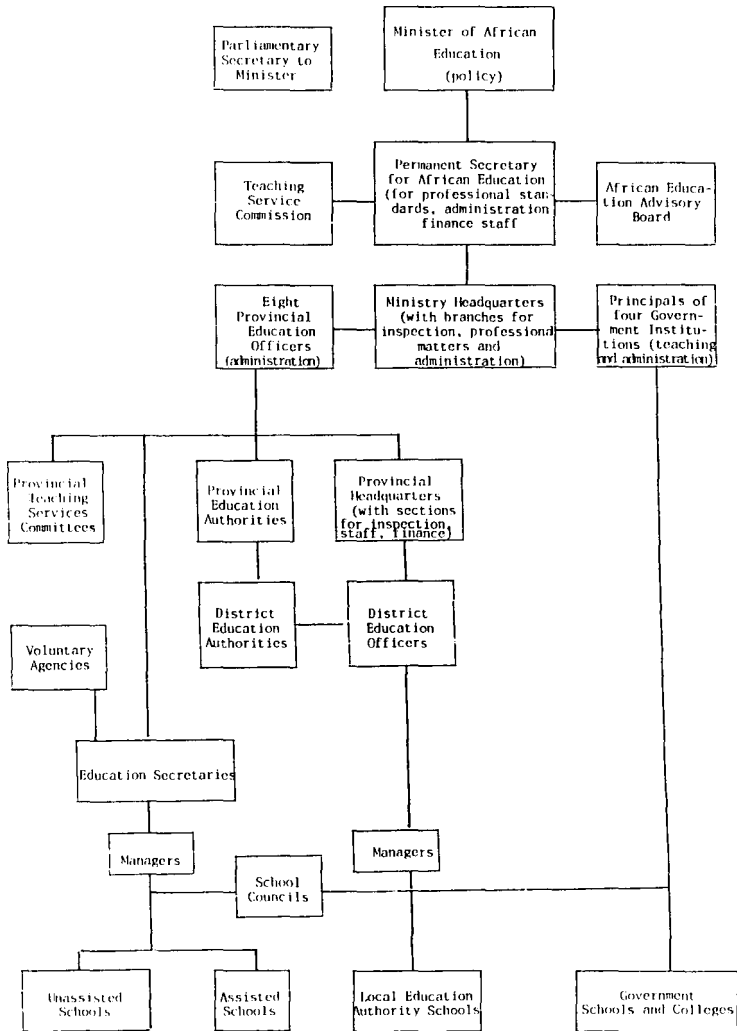
Secretary responsible mainly for finance and relations with local authorities, an Administrative Officer responsible for staff matters and a Superintendent of Further Education. In each of the eight Provinces, there was a Provincial Education Officer in charge of all education in his Province. He was assisted by one or more Education Officers who performed administrative and supervisory duties. Provincial Education Officers were also assisted by executive staff who dealt with finance, building, registration of schools, posting of staff and other functions. The daily supervision of the school activities was entrusted to the Managers of Schools who reported on the efficiency of schools under their management to whichever agency, Government or Mission was responsible for them (Mwanakatwe, 1968:19-20; see Organogram 5.2).

Before the split of the Education Ministry in 1982, the Minister of Education and Culture was the political head of the Ministry. He was assisted by the under-Secretary. Below the under-Secretary there were Assistant Secretaries, Chief Education Officers, and other officers in the Personnel and Accounts Sections. The Inspectorate Division was headed by the Chief Inspector of Schools, Senior Inspector for Primary and Secondary School and Colleges and Subject Inspectors (Annual Report for 1982, 1986:1).

At present there are two Ministries namely: the Ministry of General Education and Culture and the Ministry of Higher Education. The General and current policy of the Ministry of General Education and Culture is to ensure that all children aged 7 years enter school in Grade 1. The Ministry of Higher Education is charged with responsibility for tertiary education and enhancement of Science and Technology in Zambia.

Organogram 5.2

DIAGRAM TO ILLUSTRATE THE GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF THE MINISTRY OF AFRICAN EDUCATION, 1963  
 (Northern Rhodesian Government, Triennial Survey 1961-1963, 1964:10)





## **5.11 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

In this chapter the creation of the Ministry of General Education and Culture and the Ministry of Higher Education has been discussed. Powers and duties of both ministers have been looked into. Organization and Nodal Structures responsible for executing the Educational Policy have been given.

Further, Chapter 5 has discussed in detail the functions, relationship and anomalies of the two Ministries. This section has also dealt with the funding of education in Zambia.

Finally this chapter made a contrast of pre-independence and current education management.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **THE SCHOOL AND SUPPORTIVE SERVICES**

#### **6.1 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter extensively discusses the entire school system in Zambia for example pre-primary, primary, secondary, special, continuing and tertiary education. Admission requirements, pupils and student enrolment, curriculum, examinations and teachers qualifications will be included in the discussion of said education levels. This section will also look into supportive services, for example psychological, library, educational broadcasting services and examinations.

Organogram 6.1 represents the structure of the Zambian school system.

#### **6.2 PRE-PRIMARY SCHOOLS**

##### **6.2.1 INTRODUCTION**

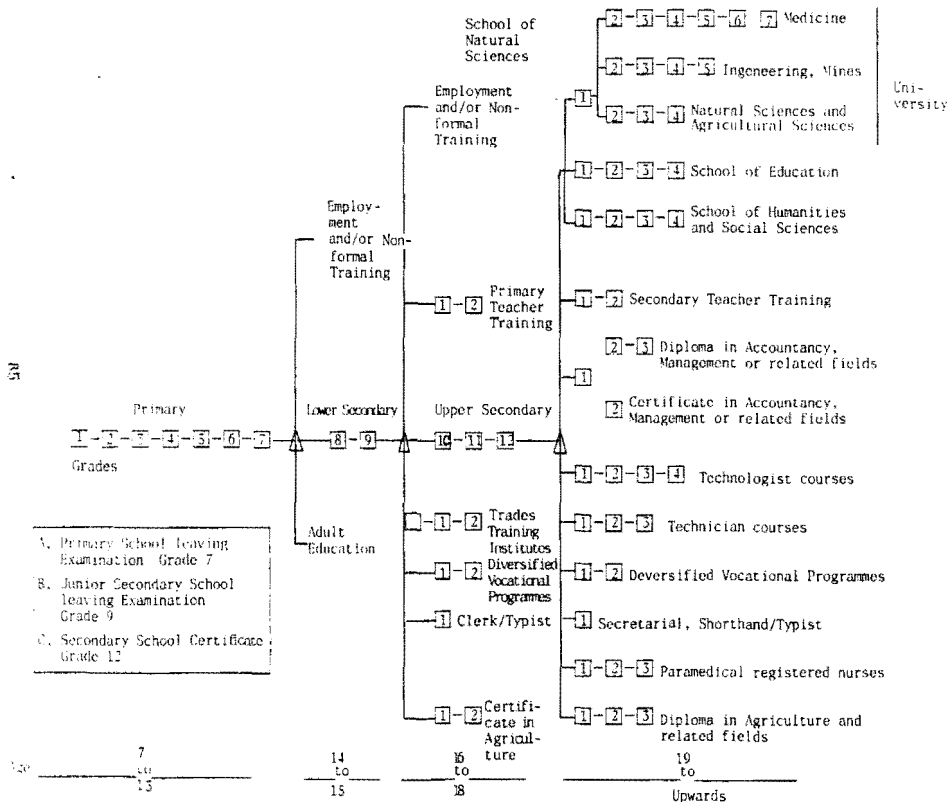
Studies carried out in a number of countries have revealed that the definition of pre-primary schools is a matter of great difficulty. The list of institutions regarded as pre-primary schools has included creches, clinics, day nurseries, hospitals and infant care centres. The list, in fact, includes practically all the institutions which may have to do with children in one way or another at an early age. In Zambia, there is no provision in the Education Act for the establishment and management of pre-primary schools. It is clear therefore that the term "Pre-school" is also used rather loosely in Zambia to refer to day nurseries (Educational Reform, 1977:73).

##### **6.2.2 GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF PRE-PRIMARY SCHOOLS**

Pre-primary schools are administratively divided into four categories, for example pre-primary schools controlled by Councils, private individuals,

Organogram 6.1

STRUCTURE OF THE ZAMBIAN EDUCATIONAL SYSTEM 1987, (Silanda, 1988:64)



parastatals and the Pre-primary School Association of Zambia (Mulundika: 7-10-88). Pre-primary schools get assistance from the Ministry of Higher Education (MHE) in the form of teacher training. It is stated in the Reform Proposals that pre-primary school education will not be available nor be compulsory to every child for a long time to come. It is also not a pre-condition or advantage for enrolment at Grade I. The Reform puts it explicitly that provisions will be made in the intended amendment of the Education Act to set up appropriate machinery for the Ministry of General Education and Culture to regulate the level of fees to avoid exploitation of other people (Educational Reform, 1977:73).

### **6.2.3 ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS AND STATISTICAL PROFILE**

Children are admitted to pre-school at the age of three both in urban and rural areas. Separate provision is made for infant day centres which are needed in many communities for the protection and supervision of infants up to the age of three. Such centres are not regarded as pre-primary schools in Zambia. In an interview with Mrs. Mulundika, she mentioned that there are three age groups in most of the pre-primary schools, for example ages 3, 4 and 5. There are few six-year olds and as a result they are grouped with the five-year olds. Most of the parents are in a hurry to register their children for Grade I at the age of 6 (Mulundika: 7-10-88).

Table 6.1 shows the numbers of pre-primary schools in Zambia owned by individuals, co-operatives, associations, councils, communities and agencies from 1977 to 1985.

### **6.2.4 CURRICULUM**

Because of its informal nature the pre-primary school curriculum could not be included in the New Structure which will be discussed under paragraph 6.3.3. In fact, pre-primary schools perform their function most effectively when they offer a completely informal type of social and educational experience to very young children. Pre-primary school education supplements learning in the home by providing children with a larger circle of playmates and a learning

**Table 6.1**

NUMBER OF PRE-PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN ZAMBIA BETWEEN 1977-1985

(GRZ Progress Report to the Educational Reforms Implementation committee on Pre-school Education, 1986:7-14)

EXISTING PRE-SCHOOLS IN ZAMBIA FROM 1977 - 1985

TYPES OF SCHOOLS	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985
<u>PRIVATE</u>									
INDIVIDUAL CO-OPERATION ASSOCIATION OR CLUB	91	96	96	99	110	134	136	139	142
COUNCIL	59	61	52	66	70	73	75	77	76
COMMUNITY	95	95	96	110	111	111	132	139	143
AGENCY	43	46	41	58	53	63	59	59	61
TOTAL	288	298	285	333	344	381	402	444	422

experience which promotes physical, mental and social development of the child. Zambian pre-primary school institutions have for a long time been working on an individual basis as far as curriculum is concerned. Since 1972, when the Zambia Pre-Primary School Association was formed, several attempts at formulating syllabuses for pre-schools have been made, although these were mainly pre-primary school teacher training purposed. Thus the main goals of the approved pre-primary school syllabus are (MGEC, Pre-school Teachers' Guide, 1988):

- to develop mental ability through creativity and discoveries;
- to assist the child's physical development ;
- to promote the child's social attitudes, patriotism and culture;
- to develop and provide for the child's emotional aspects;
- to encourage the development of good morals and spiritual attitudes; and
- to identify any of the child's handicap early and arrange for remedial or corrective measures.

The Pre-primary School Curriculum entails the following activities (Pre-school Syllabus, 1985):

- **Living together in the community:** Pupils must know concepts or household items like pots, spoons, plates, clay, brushes, puppets and models of houses. They must be able to give directions to their homes, shops and churches.
- **Seasons:** Children should be able to identify different seasons, for example hot, cold and rainy seasons. This can be emphasized by colouring, drawing, songs and rhymes.

- **Celebrations:** Important days like birthdays, harvest, independence, traditional ceremonies, Christmas, Easter and Universal Children's Day should be taught to the children. Their importance should be emphasized.
- **Communications:** Children should be taught about various types of communication; children must know the use of the post office, mass media and the importance of various types of transport.
- **Wild and Domestic Life:** Love for insects, mammals, reptiles, plants and birds should be inculcated in the minds of the children.
- **Nutrition:** Children must be taught the importance of food, how and where to grow food. They must also be taught how to keep food clean and the current way of eating.

Summarily, pre-school children are taught language development, social studies, pre-mathematical activities, environmental science, physical skills and creative work. There is no time specification as at other educational levels.

#### **6.2.5 TEACHERS' QUALIFICATIONS**

Pre-primary school teachers are trained after passing Grade 12 for a period of two years. Besides the Ministry of Higher Education, the Pre-primary School Association do train teachers.

### **6.3 PRIMARY SCHOOLS**

#### **6.3.1 GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF PRIMARY SCHOOLS**

Primary schooling in Zambia is the first phase of basic education or formal full-time education. It consists of seven years, for example four years of lower primary education and three years of upper primary education. The main aim of basic education is not only to provide the minimum basic knowledge but also to inculcate the attitudes, values and skills which everyone needs in order to realize his potential as an individual and also to become an effective participant in the advancement of his community.

### **6.3.2 ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS AND STATISTICAL PROFILE**

Primary schools admit pupils at the age of seven. Many children who are old enough to enter Grade I do not have the opportunity to enrol because there are not enough places. The shortage of school places for Grade I is greater in urban areas than in rural areas. In some areas the shortage is so severe that one-third of the children cannot go to school. This is because the urban child population has increased faster than new classrooms have been built. Another reason is that many parents enrol their children when they are younger than the minimum entry age of seven due to lack of birth certificates and unreliable and forged affidavits (Educational Reform, 1977:13).

Table 6.2 shows the enrolment in primary schools by age and sex and it also reveals the discrepancy of both boys and girls who are registered under the age 7 and over up to 14 years.

### **6.3.3 CURRICULUM**

#### **6.3.3.1 Introduction**

One of the recommendations made in the Educational Reform Document and accepted by the United National Independence Party (UNIP) and its Government concerns the New School Structure. The Interim Structure of Education for Primary school will consist of seven years of primary education for example Grades 1-7 (see Organogram 4.2).

A joint ad hoc Committee of the Curriculum Centre and the Inspectorate discussed, planned and proposed the structure of the New School Curriculum. This document was discussed by the Executive Committee which was appointed to look into the time allocation for various subjects. These proposals were then discussed and amended by the Executive Committee on School Certificate Curriculum and Examinations and by the Executive Committee on Basic Education Curriculum and Examinations. They have now been adopted by the Examination Council. The structure of the School Curriculum is divided into divisions because of subjects and time specifications. These divisions are



Table 6.2

## ENROLMENT IN PRIMARY SCHOOLS BY AGE AND SEX - 1984

(GRZ, Educational Statistics 1984, 1988:15)

GRADE	WHOLE COUNTRY	AGES										OVER 14	Total
		UNDER 7	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14			
1	Boys	3 131	37 889	38 852	19 207	3 935	874	351	92	30	8	104 369	
	Girls	3 538	40 717	36 598	16 245	3 218	674	189	45	13	1	101 237	
	Total	6 669	79 606	75 449	35 452	7 153	1 548	540	137	43	9	205 606	
2	Boys	305	3 073	35 024	36 643	19 838	5 174	1 440	401	216	50	102 164	
	Girls	358	3 348	37 140	34 059	17 633	4 274	1 075	254	94	9	98 244	
	Total	663	6 421	72 164	70 702	37 471	9 448	2 515	655	310	59	200 408	
3	Boys	13	391	3 659	30 785	34 702	19 865	6 939	2 024	866	109	99 434	
	Girls	20	456	4 204	31 641	31 717	17 213	5 689	1 405	393	64	92 802	
	Total	33	847	7 863	62 426	66 419	37 078	12 628	3 429	1 259	254	192 236	
4	Boys	0	11	514	3 916	27 739	31 300	21 615	7 622	2 865	773	96 355	
	Girls	0	16	534	4 351	28 739	28 949	17 908	5 573	1 729	288	88 087	
	Total	0	27	1 048	8 267	56 478	60 249	39 523	13 195	4 594	1 061	184 442	
5	Boys	0	0	35	686	3 965	23 022	27 579	18 323	8 631	3 322	85 563	
	Girls	0	0	38	794	4 423	22 873	25 370	14 975	6 037	1 430	75 940	
	Total	0	0	73	1 480	8 388	45 895	52 949	33 298	14 668	4 752	161 503	
6	Boys	0	0	0	80	670	4 468	22 578	25 335	20 114	11 523	84 768	
	Girls	0	0	4	93	784	4 986	21 119	21 868	15 164	6 137	70 157	
	Total	0	0	4	173	1 454	9 456	43 697	47 203	35 278	17 660	154 925	
7	Boys	0	0	0	21	73	714	4 776	23 170	32 390	33 042	94 086	
	Girls	0	0	0	10	80	765	4 761	19 780	23 989	18 758	68 143	
	Total	0	0	0	31	153	1 479	9 537	42 950	56 279	51 800	162 229	
ESN	Boys	3	14	20	14	20	19	18	20	18	16	162	
	Girls	1	2	11	10	10	12	9	4	8	9	76	
	Total	4	16	31	24	30	31	27	24	26	25	238	
Tot.	Boys	3 452	78 104	78 104	91 352	90 942	85 436	85 296	76 987	65 030	48 924	666 901	
	Girls	3 917	44 539	78 528	87 203	86 604	79 748	76 120	63 904	47 427	26 696	594 686	
	Total	7 369	85 917	156 632	178 555	177 546	165 184	161 416	140 891	112 457	75 620	1 261 587	

Grades 1-4 (Lower Primary), Grade 5-7 (Upper Primary) (The Structure of the New School Curriculum, 1986:1).

**6.3.3.2 Grade 1-4, Lower Primary**

SUBJECT	TIME (HOURS)	NUMBER OF PERIODS
Mathematics	3½	7
English	4½	9
Zambian Language	2½	5
Creative Arts	1	2
Practical Subject and Production Work	1	2
Physical Education	1	2
Political Education	1	2
Spiritual and Moral Education	1	2
Environmental Science	1	2
Assembly	1	2
<b>Total</b>	<b>17½ hours</b>	<b>35 periods</b>

### 6.3.3.3 Grades 5-7, Upper Primary

SUBJECT	TIME (HOURS)	NUMBER OF PERIODS
Mathematics	4 <sup>2</sup> / <sub>3</sub>	7
English	4 <sup>2</sup> / <sub>3</sub>	7
Zambian Language	3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>3</sub>	5
Creative Arts	1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>3</sub>	2
Practical Subject and Production Work	3 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>3</sub>	5
Physical Education	1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>3</sub>	2
Political Education	1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>3</sub>	2
Spiritual and Moral Education	1 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>3</sub>	2
Environmental Science	2 <sup>2</sup> / <sub>3</sub>	4
Social Studies	2	3
Music	2 <sup>1</sup> / <sub>3</sub>	1
<b>Total</b>	<b>26 <sup>2</sup>/<sub>3</sub> hours</b>	<b>40 periods</b>

The primary school curriculum should therefore concentrate on the following areas of learning: communication skills, for example reading, writing and speech; mathematical skills; practical skills and science education; political education and social studies; spiritual and moral education. Production Units which form the aspects of productive work should emphasize their educational value (Educational Reform, 1977:16,17). Production Units will be discussed further in paragraph 6.4.3.5.

### 6.3.4 TEACHERS' QUALIFICATIONS

Teachers for primary schools are trained after passing Grade 10 (Form III), although colleges also accept grade 12 (Form V). They are trained for two years (see Organogram 6.1).

## **6.4 SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

### **6.4.1 GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY SCHOOLS**

The secondary course runs for five years. It consists of two segments, for example junior secondary, running from Grades 8 to 9 (Form I to II), and senior secondary from Grades 10 to 12 (Form III to V). The first phase of the secondary is said to link Grades 1-6 because it forms the second part of basic education (Educational Reform, 1977:7).

The Senior Secondary is a preparatory programme for entry into tertiary institutions such as universities and training colleges. It is hoped that this programme prepares students for life since most of its graduates will after completing their National Service, join their world of work.

### **6.4.2 ADMISSION REQUIREMENT AND STATISTICAL PROFILE**

At secondary level pupils are admitted at the age of 14 and education is free but not compulsory (Cameron & Hurst, 1983:481). The main problem is that the chances for the child to continue with schooling become very remote after Grade 7 because there are insufficient school places in the country. There are more boys than girls enrolled in the secondary school sector although this imbalance is not attributed to shortage of places alone. It is still part of the problems which have to be resolved over a period of time. The 194 secondary schools that existed by 1984 in Zambia could not absorb the Grade 7 population (Educational Statistics 1984, 1988:75).

The increase in enrolment from 1964 to 1984 is shown in Table 6.3. This figure also emphasized the fact that there are more boys than girls in secondary schools.

### **6.4.3 CURRICULUM**

#### **6.4.3.1 INTRODUCTION**

The Grades 8 and 9 programme will, among other things, build a firm foundation by consolidating the learning skills acquired in phase one of basic education:

Table 6.3

SECONDARY SCHOOL ENROLMENT BY GRADE SEX AND NUMBER OF CLASSES, 1964-1984 (Educational Statistics 1984, 1988:42)

YEAR	GRADE 8				GRADE 9				GRADE 10				GRADE 11			
	B	G	T	C	B	G	T	C	B	G	T	C	B	G	T	C
1964	3 268	1 425	4 693	0	2 852	1 226	4 078	0	1 479	697	2 176	0	1 212	508	1 720	0
1965	4 686	1 915	6 601	0	3 165	1 331	4 496	0	2 067	788	2 855	0	1 248	506	1 754	0
1966	1 731	3 245	4 976	235	4 611	1 716	6 327	122	2 263	865	3 128	66	1 716	618	2 334	54
1967	9 489	5 474	14 963	0	7 678	3 049	10 727	0	3 242	1 011	4 253	0	1 942	655	2 595	0
1968	9 559	5 310	14 869	413	9 561	5 257	14 818	435	5 194	1 702	6 896	205	2 847	813	3 660	133
1969	9 647	6 074	15 721	419	9 499	5 072	14 571	410	6 109	2 360	8 469	249	4 679	1 462	6 141	201
1970	9 307	5 868	15 175	412	9 672	5 746	15 418	417	6 259	2 319	8 578	244	5 761	2 031	7 792	245
1971	9 902	5 851	15 753	418	9 709	5 702	15 411	414	6 705	3 232	9 937	285	5 930	1 964	7 894	143
1972	9 870	5 877	15 747	408	9 980	5 443	15 423	409	9 632	5 111	14 743	408	4 916	1 967	6 883	216
1973	11 079	6 491	17 570	447	9 743	5 640	15 383	408	9 769	5 263	15 032	409	5 164	1 769	6 933	217
1974	12 129	7 125	19 254	489	11 065	6 145	17 210	448	9 824	5 349	15 173	410	5 608	1 973	7 581	226
1975	13 401	8 061	21 462	547	12 251	6 809	19 060	490	11 116		11 116	442	5 723	2 722	8 145	237
1976	14 197	8 006	22 113	566	13 632	7 631	21 263	566	12 245	6 622	18 867	489	6 319	2 519	8 838	253
1977	14 342	8 317	22 659	570	14 385	7 800	22 185	563	13 912	7 548	21 460	547	6 774	2 502	9 276	267
1978	14 712	8 525	23 237	573	14 775	8 324	23 099	568	14 685	7 851	22 536	559	7 807	3 181	10 988	291
1979	14 621	8 619	23 240	579	15 090	8 519	23 609	573	15 123	8 273	23 398	574	7 852	3 270	11 122	304
1980	15 194	9 243	24 437	586	15 459	8 799	24 258	578	15 309	8 374	23 683	570	7 656	3 822	11 478	304
1981	16 224	9 867	26 091	614	16 022	9 389	25 411	587	15 638	8 693	24 331	581	8 201	3 337	11 538	302
1982	16 900	10 379	27 279	643	17 262	10 238	27 500	621	16 845	9 378	26 223	594	8 246	3 833	12 179	324
1983	19 181	11 725	30 906	743	18 947	10 963	29 910	675	18 042	10 744	28 786	634	8 552	4 331	12 883	348
1984	22 019	13 079	35 098	826	20 589	11 994	32 583	731	20 063	11 343	31 406	663	8 797	4 674	13 471	345

B = Boys  
 G = Girls  
 T = Total  
 C = Classes

identify students special talents or aptitudes and encourage their development; assist students to acquire employable useful skills and knowledge through or work oriented programmes; assist students to develop intellectual abilities and apply knowledge intelligently.

#### 6.4.3.2 Grades 8-9, Junior secondary

(The Structure of the new school curriculum, 1986:2)

SUBJECT	NUMBER OF PERIODS
English	6
Mathematics	6
General Science	6
Political Education	2
Social Studies	4
Physical Education*	2
Spiritual and Moral Education	2
Zambian Language (1)	
(See Note (v))	4
Production Work*	3
Total	35
*Non-examinable subjects	

#### Optional subjects

##### (I) Cultural/creative group

French, Zambian Language (2), Art and Craft, Music - 4 periods.

##### (II) Practical subjects group

Industrial Arts, Agricultural Science, Commercial Subjects, Home Economics - 6 periods.

**NOTE:**

- (i)** Each period is of 40 minutes' duration.
- (ii)** Pupils will be required to choose one subject from the Cultural Creative Group and one subject from the Practical Subjects Group.
- (iii)** Subjects included in Industrial Arts are Woodwork, metalwork, Technical Drawing or any other such work depending on the facilities available.
- (iv)** Subjects included in Commercial Subjects are Office Practice, Typing and Bookkeeping.
- (v)** Pupils will have the opportunity to study a second Zambian Language as an optional Subject.
- (vi)** Guidance and counselling must be included in school activities.

### 6.4.3.3 Grades 10-12, Senior Secondary

SUBJECT	NUMBER OF PERIODS
English	7
Mathematics	5 or 7
A Science +	4, 5 or 6
Political Education*	3
Physical Education*	2
Production Work	2
Minimum	23
Maximum	27

+Time and period allocation for sciences are as indicated in the Science column of Optional Subjects. One Science subject must be taken as a core subject by every student. Other Science subjects can be taken as optional choices.

\*Non-examinable subjects



### 6.4.3.4 Optional Subjects

<i>Humanities</i>	<i>Science</i>	<i>Mathematics</i>	<i>Commercial Subjects</i>	<i>Technical and Practical Subjects</i>
Zambian Language 5	Physics 4	Additional Mathematics 4	Commerce 4	Food and Nutrition 4
French 4	Chemistry 5		Economics 4	General Housecraft 4
Literature in English 4	Biology 4		Principles of Accounts 6	Needlework and Dressmaking 4
History 4	General Science 6		Shorthand and Typing 6	Woodwork 5
Geography 4	Agricultural Science 6			Metalwork 5
Spiritual and Moral Education 4				Metalwork Engineering 5
		Art and Craft 4		
		Music 4		
			Geometrical and Building Drawing 5	
			Geometrical and Mechanical Drawing 5	

**Note:**

- (i) The total number of periods should not exceed 45 per week, with each period being of 40 minutes' duration.
- (ii) The minimum number of subjects to be taken from the Optional Subject Groups should be 4 from at least 2 groups.
- (iii) The maximum number of subjects to be taken from the Optional Subject Groups should not exceed 7.
- (iv) Adequate guidance and counselling must take place at this level.

### 6.4.3.5 Comments on the subject production work

All schools were declared Production Units by the Head of State in 1975. Productive activities in schools today offer many opportunities to link learning with doing and to bring material and other benefits to the schools. The practical skills programme is helping to fill a serious gap in the school and college cur-

riculum. At the same time it gives students and teachers the means to produce teaching and learning aids and many other useful items, to make and repair school furniture and to build classrooms, workshops and teachers' houses. Subjects like Home Economics, Industrial Arts and Agriculture were to be developed and made productive. Provision was made to include Production Work in the time table:

Grades 1 - 4 = 2x30 minutes per week

Grades 5 - 7 = 5x40 minutes per week

Grades 8 - 9 = 3x14 minutes per week

Ngenda (19-10-88) maintained that this time allocation was not enough. Schools were expected to work outside the school hours.

Production work has been allocated to almost all the grades. Some people have had misconceptions about this, to them production work is not different from agriculture.

There were other problems experienced, such as

- land problems, especially in urban areas; and
- financial constraints, funds were unavailable to invest on the actual infrastructure.

To ease the burden of the schools a fund called 'Production Unit Revolving Fund' was established. Schools could borrow from this fund to buy tools and other necessities. In reality however, these Production Units were not successful (Banda, 17-10-88).

The permanent Secretary further commented that all the syllabuses in use are in the testing stage, and that teachers are continuously in serviced either during holidays or week-ends. Finnish International Development Authority (FINNIDA) extends help on practical subjects, technical assistance, personnel, equipment, soft ware and hardware for teaching materials, the Norwegian Agency for International Development (NORAD) facilitates production of textbooks and implement the change of curriculum (Banda, 17-10-88).

The Production Unit Annual Return Form was designed to evaluate and record production work. See some products on Figure 6.4. Home Economics, Industrial Arts, Metal Work and Hand Craft products are also produced, though they do not appear in Table 6.4.

#### **6.4.4 TEACHERS' QUALIFICATIONS**

Teachers for the secondary level are trained for two years after passing grade 12 (Form V). The University of Zambia and other colleges continue to train teachers for a full range of secondary programmes.

### **6.5 SPECIAL EDUCATION**

#### **6.5.1 INTRODUCTION**

Special education, as the term implies, refers to education specially designed and adapted to suit the special needs of handicapped children who may be suffering from mental or physical disabilities. Special education has been for a long time neglected in Zambia. It was not properly organized and was only provided by voluntary agencies until 1971, when the Ministry of Education took over the responsibility. There is also an Inter-Ministerial Steering Committee of Special Education which advises on the organization and importance of education for the handicapped. This committee comprises of senior officers from the ministries of Health, Labour and Social Services, Education, The Council for Handicapped. The Zambian National Union of Teachers and Voluntary agencies.

The existing schools cater for the blind, the deaf, the physically handicapped, the mentally handicapped and those with multiple handicaps. Children should attend specific pre-schools for identification of handicaps (Educational Reform, 1977:26).

**Table 6.4**

PRODUCTION UNIT ANNUAL RETURN FORM (NGEC)

(Production Unit Annual Return, 1982:1-4)

PART 1 AGRICULTURE

**Section A: Livestock**

Type of livestock	Quantities		Amount from sales of whole animal	Values of existing stock	
	Number kept during year	Number sold during year		K	n
Beef Cattle					
Dairy Cattle					
Goats					
Sheep					
Layers					
Broilers					
Rabbits					
Geese					
Ducks					
Guinea Fowls					
Turkeys					
Total					

**Section B: Livestock products and fish**

Livestock Products	Quantities produced			Amount from sales	
	NO.	KG	LTS	K	n
Eggs					
Milk					
Beef					
Pork					
Poultry Meat					
Wool					
Feathers					
Hides					
Fish					
Total					

Table 6.4 (continues)

Section C: Horticulture

Vegetables	Quantity produced (kilograms)	Amount from sales K n
Cabbage		
Rape		
Chomomelia		
Green Beans		
Peas		
Broccoli		
Carrot		
Spinach		
Chinese Cabbage		
Onion		
Tomato		
Okra		
Eggplant		
Pepper		
Chilli		
Irish Potatoes		
Leeks		
Water Melons		
Pumpkins		
Curry		
Guavas		
Oranges		
Mangoes		
Pawpaw		
Pineapple		
Avocado Pear		
Lemons		
Banana		
Mandarin		
Grapefruit		
Strawberry		
Total		

**Table 6.4** (continues)**Section D: Field Crops**

Field crops	Quantities produced		Amount from sales
	Kilograms	Number of bags	
Maize			
Sorghum			
Rice			
Beans			
Cassava			
Soya Beans			
Cotton			
Sunflower			
Wheat			
Millet			
Sisal			
Kenaf			
Sweet Potatoes			
Sugar Cane			
Groundnuts			
Cashew Nuts			

## **6.5.2 ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS AND STATISTICAL PROFILE**

In Zambia it is maintained that handicapped children should attend ordinary schools and colleges in view of the importance of socialization but this should depend on the nature and degree of their disability. It may be necessary to have separate schools and separate classes for the handicapped, but as soon as it is no longer desirable to separate them from other students, the handicapped should join ordinary schools or classes. Some handicapped children may enter full-time education at an early age or they may spend a longer time in one sector because of their handicap. It is encouraged that handicapped children should attend specific pre-schools for identification of handicaps (Educational Reform, 1977:26). Pensulo (29-09-89) in an interview mentioned that handicapped children are admitted to special schools at the age of 9 and discharged at the age of 19. At this stage the liaison committee liaises with the government to take up the matter if the child doesn't improve. Children who have multiple handicaps and the physically handicapped are kept in boarding schools most of the time to reduce or minimize their walking distance.

### **6.5.2.1 Enrolment and staffing of special schools**

Table 6.5 will serve to explain enrolment and staffing in special schools, for example for the physically handicapped, the mentally handicapped, the deaf and the blind.

## **6.5.3 FOREIGN ASSISTANCE FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION**

The growth of special education in 1982 is attributed to the support of the Swedish International Development Authority (SIDA). Funds from SIDA were fully utilized in staff development, equipment, materials, transport and braille press (Annual Report for the year 1982, 1986:35).

The Norwegian Agency for International Development (NORAD) supplied equipment to the Chainama Day Centre which caters for pupils who are more disturbed and noisy (mentally retarded). Their degree of mental retardation is high. There are two kinds of pupil-patients in this school (Annual Report for Year 1982, 1986:37):

**Table 6.5**

ENROLMENT AND STAFFING OF SPECIAL EDUCATION (Annual Report for the year 1981, 1984:27-30)

**Education for the deaf**

School	Pupils		Staff	
	1981	1982	1981	1982
Magwero School Chipata	70	78	7	9
St. Joseph's School, Kalulushi	55	54	9	9
Valley View School, Kitwe	14	11	2	2
Lukasu School, Kitwe	15	1	-	-
Mano School, Mifulira	17	23	3	3
Lusaka Boys School	15	18	2	3
Lusaka Girls School	11	14	3	3
University Teaching Hospital	12	-	2 Tech=nicians	-
(Speech and Hearing Centre)	-	-	1	2
Roman Girls (Secondary)	8	11	1	1
Munali (Secondary)	12	15	2	5
Gandhi School, Luanshya	Non exist=ing	-	Non exist=ing	1
Kanseshi School, Ndola	-	13	-	2

**Education for the blind**

	Pupils		Staff	
	1981	1982	1981	1982
St. Mary's School, Kawambwa	102	102	20	19
Mporoyoso School, Northern	71	70	12	8
Ndola Lions School	56	66	10	12
St. Mary's Home Economics	14	14	2	2
Magwero School	30	33	8	8
Sefula School	43	40	7	8
Chiwala (Secondary)	15	-	No record	No record
Mubwa (Secondary)	15	-	No record	No record
Kawambwa Boys (Secondary)	16	-	No record	No record
St. Mary's Girls (Secondary)	12	104	No record	No record
Sefula (Secondary)	15	-	No record	No record
Munali (Secondary)	17	-	No record	No record
Mporokose (Secondary)	No record	-	No record	No record



**Table 6.5** (continues)

**Education for the physically handicapped**

School	Pupils		Staff	
	1981	1982	1981	1982
Chileshe Cheppeia Wansongo School, Kasana	70	78	7	8
Dagane School, Luanshya	43	43	4	4
Mambilina School, Luapula	85	78	8	8
St. Theresa's Hostel, Luashya	50	50	1	1
St. Clement Secondary School, Mansa	10	12	-	-
Mabel Shaw Secondary School, Mbereshi	8	8	-	-
<b>Leprosaria schools</b>				
Mwami School, Chipata	138	138	6	8
Kirby School, Chikankata	33	39	4	4
<b>Hospital teaching service for child patients</b>				
			Needlework introduction	
University Teaching Hospital			5	-
Arthur Division Hospital	1 200	1 250	2	-
Ndola Central Hospital	-	-	1	-
Kitwe Central Hospital	-	-	3	-

**Education for the mentally handicapped**

School	Pupils		Staff	
	1981	1982	1981	1982
Rokana Primary School, Kitwe	9	14	Not given	1
Mufulira School	17	18	Not given	1
Kanseshi School, Ndola	8	10	Not given	1
Hillside School, Chipata	16	19	Not given	1
Woodlands School, Lusaka	17	19	Not given	-
Chainama Day Centre, Lusaka	60	60	2 Tea staff 10 Social Workers	6 Tea staff 10 Social Workers

- Those of the Day Centre attending medical treatment and education; and
- the residents at the hospital requiring medical treatment, rehabilitation, social training, crafts and therapy. Both groups require teachers of wide experience and training with a great deal of patience and dedication.

#### 6.5.4 USE OF "UNITS" FOR SPECIAL EDUCATION

'Units' are special classes added to regular or ordinary schools to cater for handicapped children. Ordinary classes may be converted into 'units' by establishing special facilities for handicapped children. In this system children are to some extent integrated and this makes handicapped children feel accepted (Pensulo, 29-09-88).

Table 6.6 below will help to explain the existing units in Primary and secondary schools in all the provinces by the year 1988.

**Table 6.6**

UNITS IN PRIMARY AND SECONDARY SCHOOLS AS AT 1988 (Pensulo, 29-09-88)

PROVINCE	PRIMARY UNITS	SECONDARY UNITS
Lusaka	8	3
Southern	6	1
Eastern	3	1
North Western	4	-
Northern	1	4
Luapula	2	6
Copperbell	18	3
Central	7	1
Western	3	3

Special Education in Zambia has grown by leaps and bounds since 1971 when it was transferred from the Ministry of Labour and Social Service to the Ministry of Education and Culture.

## **6.6 TEACHER TRAINING**

### **6.6.1 GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF TEACHERS' TRAINING COLLEGES**

Primary and secondary teachers are trained in different colleges. Pre-service primary teacher training courses are offered at Charles Luanga, Chipata, David Livingstone, Kasama, Kitwe, Malcolm Moffat Mansa, Mongu, Mufulira and Solwezi Colleges, while secondary teacher training courses are offered at the Copperbelt Secondary Teachers' College, Luanshya Technical and Vocational Teachers' College. The Evelyn Horne College of Applied Arts and Commerce also offers special courses in Art and Music. The National In-Service offers courses for primary school teachers, while Lusaka College offers courses for teachers of the handicapped. The University of Zambia also offers courses for pre-service teachers for secondary schools (Annual Report for 1984, 1987:4).

### **6.6.2 ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS AND STATISTICAL PROFILE**

The minimum entry qualification to the primary school teachers' college is Grade 10, although colleges also accept Grade 12. In future the minimum entry qualifications to primary school teachers' college will be Grade 12. Those trained for teaching in the primary sector who have Grade 12 education may take conversion courses to teach in the secondary sector (Educational Reform, 1977:68).

For enrolment of Teachers' Training Colleges from 1976-1986 (see Table 6.7) from this figure increase of enrolment should be observed.

All untrained teachers recruited for a Primary Teachers' Course should be those who have completed Grade 10, and those recruited for secondary training should have successfully completed Grade 12. The headquarters indicates each year the maximum number of unqualified teachers that should go for training.

Table 6.7

## TEACHER TRAINING COLLEGE ENROLMENT BY COURSE, YEAR AND SEX 1976-1986

(Planning Unit MHE, 1988)

Year	Pre-school Year				Primary Year				Home/Craft Year				Secondary Year				In-Service Training								
	I		II		I		II		I		II		I		II		Primary		Secondary		Home/Craft		M	F	All
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F					
1976	-	-	-	-	-	-	717	518	631	312	151	138	270	77	223	56	182	112	.	.	.	.	2 023	1 383	3 406
1977	-	-	-	-	-	-	889	503	667	428	191	179	254	93	227	84	176	48	.	.	.	28	2 133	1 554	3 687
1978	-	-	-	-	-	-	778	585	694	350	167	148	283	62	217	97	130	52	.	.	.	.	2 100	1 260	3 360
1979	-	-	-	-	-	-	943	559	920	505	265	200	360	85	318	78	111	53	.	.	.	.	2 652	1 745	4 397
1980	-	-	-	-	-	-	960	657	912	523	230	222	237	66	321	89	120	72	.	.	.	46	2 550	1 895	4 445
1981	-	-	-	-	-	-	989	628	932	563	256	230	223	84	216	52	217	79	.	.	.	16	2 577	1 908	4 485
1982	-	-	-	-	-	-	845	560	975	514	165	162	168	81	113	69	110	49	.	.	.	12	2 211	1 632	3 805
1983	-	-	-	-	-	-	993	570	939	584	233	236	147	77	157	79	189	77	.	.	.	13	2 435	1 871	4 304
1984	6	18	7	14	34	13	985	637	990	602	265	246	267	101	176	72	164	41	61	7	7	15	2 629	2 024	4 653
1985	2	13	6	17	-	-	980	630	982	574	210	229	263	101	178	68	163	50	67	.	8	8	2 641	1 906	4 549
1986	-	-	2	12	-	-	996	546	1 000	610	225	224	223	77	228	73	196	69	43	.	4	17	2 688	1 857	4 545

.....Figures not available

The idea is to decrease the number of unqualified teachers. The untrained teachers should however, apply to the college of their choice through the Chief Education Officer who will pass on their applications. Diploma programmes for those with grade 12 will be equipped to teach junior secondary school programme. The University of Zambia and other colleges will continue to train teachers for the full range of secondary programmes. The University of Zambia awards degrees in Education and Diplomas in Teacher Education to successful candidates. The University is the main supplier of graduate Zambian teachers for secondary schools and colleges (Educational Reform, 1977:68-69).

Teachers for special education are drawn from ordinary schools as volunteers. Posts are advertised. Applicants are trained for a year. The benefits of the teachers in special schools are:

- their salary scales are revised; and
- a teacher gets an allowance for teaching handicapped children (Pensulo 29-09-88).

### **6.6.3 CURRICULUM**

Subjects offered at Teacher Training Colleges are (Mbuzi, 21-09-88):

- Education
- English
- Zambian Languages
- Mathematics
- Science
- Social Studies
- Physical Education
- Handwriting and Audio-visual Aids
- Music Education
- Creative Activities
- Home Economics
- Practical Subjects
- Library Science
- Production Work

- Political Education

The teacher education structure and curriculum are rigid. Allocation of subjects is common to all colleges and for the duration of the course. The periods given to each vary only slightly from one college to another. The weekly time allocation is from 41 to 45, forty-minute periods with no provision for independent study. Subject allocations vary from 6 or 7 for English and Mathematics to 3 or 4 for Science and Zambian languages and 2 or 3 for other areas. Education has 3 periods weekly. Methodology and background are included in each subject where they are generally too prescriptive, with emphasis upon conformity to the subject 'handbook' and the facts and methods contained therein. Students tend to be drilled in the content of these handbooks (Kelly et al., 1986:95). Courses taken at first-year level are also taken at second-year level. There are no subjects that are dropped at second-year level (Kanduza, 25-10-88).

#### **6.6.4 STAFF QUALIFICATION**

It is the University's diplomates and graduates in teacher education who staff the training colleges as lecturers (Educational Reform, 1977:69).

### **6.7 TECHNICAL EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING**

#### **6.7.1 GENERAL ORGANIZATION**

The Ministry of Higher Education administers Technical Education and Vocational Training (DTEVT). Just like full-time secondary schools, DTEVT also has the junior secondary and senior secondary. Pupils are examined at the end of the first stage of three years (Grade 10). Those completing Grade 10 have the following alternatives: Firstly, they may be allowed to advance to the second stage of senior secondary education, and normally the best pupils would do so. Secondly, they can enrol in the primary teacher-training colleges. Thirdly, they can enrol in vocational training courses (Sanyal et al., 1976:102).

Those who pursue senior secondary education (Grades 11 and 12) can follow the following streams:

- Higher education in the University of Zambia. The better pupils usually enrol in the school of Natural Sciences or the School of Humanities and Social Sciences, and after an initial period of basic study in these schools, they are granted entry into any of the other schools in the University leading to professional specialization.
- Teacher training in the Teacher Training Unit of the Department of Technical Education and Vocational Training (DTEVT) for one year, to specialize as subject teachers or vocational teachers.
- Two-year teacher-training course of the DTEVT to specialize as industrial teacher, commercial teacher, industrial arts teacher and vocational teacher.
- Teacher-training courses in the secondary Teacher Training Colleges, which offer two-year post-secondary courses for teachers of lower secondary classes.
- Teacher Education in the Natural Resources Development Colleges which offers three year post-secondary education in agricultural education.
- Various technological courses in the various institutes of the DTEVT. In addition, in-service training facilities are offered to Form V leavers in employment (Sanyal et al., 1976:201).

### **6.7.2 ADMISSION REQUIREMENTS**

Successful upper primary school-leavers can apply for entry to the vocational training schools.

### **6.7.3 CURRICULUM**

The following Table 6.8 will show various courses offered at different institutions and the entrance requirements (Annual Report 1975, DTEVT, 13-17):

**Table 6.8**

ENTRY AND DURATION OF TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL PROGRAMMES IN ZAMBIA (Annual Report 1975, DTEVT, 13-17)

COURSE	ENTRY LEVEL	COURSE DURATION (IN YEARS)
Auto Mechanics	Form III	2
Carpentry and Joinery	Form III	2
Electricity	Form III	2
Trowel Traders	Form III	2
Machinist/Fitter	Form III	2
Pre-Vocational (Basic Training)	Form III	½
Agricultural Mechanics	Form III	2
Plumbing and Pipe-fitting	Form III	2
Panel-beating	Form III	2
Clerk/Typist	Form III	1½
Metal Fabrication	Form III	2
Painting and Decorating and Signwriting	Form III	2
Shorthand Typist	Form V	1½
Academic (Grades 8 to 12)	-	-
Related Subject Teacher Training	Form V	1
Technical Teacher Training	Craft Certificate and Work experience	5/6
Commercial Teacher Training	Form V	2
Industrial Arts		
Teacher Training	Form V	2
Special Course for Shorthand	Recommen =	



Aeronautical	Form V with relevant science subjects	3
Civil Aviation	Cambridge School Certificate with five passes or GCE 'O' level. Mathematics, English	½
Flying School	Form V GCE 'O' level, Mathematics, Science, English	1½
Radio/Television Repair	Form III	2
Cutting and Tailoring	Form III	2
Power Sewing	Form III	2
Auto-Body Repair	Form III	2
Heavy Duty Mechanics	Form III	2
Metal Fabrication	Form III	2
Wood Machining	Form III	2
Office Machine Mechanics	Form III	2

#### 6.7.4 ENROLMENT

The number taking DTEVT programmes is fairly static, with a total enrolment of approximately 5 500 each year. About half of those enrolled are in craft, technical and technologist engineering programmes; 15 per cent in secretarial, 15 per cent in applied arts and business studies; and the remainder in teacher training, science and paramedical programmes (Kelly *et al.*, 1986:71) (see Table 6.9 on enrolment by programme).

Table 6.9

ENROLMENT BY PROGRAMME FROM 1971 - 1987 (PLANNING UNIT, MIE 1988)

PROGRAMME	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	TOTAL
TRADES OR CRAFT	1710	1709	1439	1710	2144	1820	2030	1946	2030	1486	1453	1720	11579	1532	1446	1202	1392	27777
TECHNICIAN	537	826	1076	1202	1318	1352	1271	1150	1078	1141	1040	1076	1101	832	1012	898	1012	18924
TECHNOLOGIST	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
SCIENCE & PARAMEDICAL	141	200	235	182	260	281	398	289	308	328	276	293	253	272	235	257	235	4443
AIR SERVICES	375	265	136	213	267	256	160	96	119	95	238	179	124	120	126	61	126	2956
BUSINESS STUDIES	263	392	368	333	357	294	378	465	363	462	554	619	740	640	350	398	925	7901
APPLIED ARTS	230	139	193	280	204	425	173	261	288	245	266	220	188	197	162	227	162	3860
SECRETARIAL	332	491	450	738	522	657	780	963	1027	968	988	841	803	661	854	946	854	12875
TEACHER TRAINING	68	101	92	118	150	231	250	350	381	392	403	366	254	364	230	270	230	4251
ACADEMIC		-	620	890	199	253	269	258	238	221	269	279	249	292	290	308	285	4661
TOTAL	3656	4123	4609	5666	5421	5569	5709	5778	5261	5338	5487	5594	5291	4910	4705	4567	5246	87652

NOTE: THE ABOVE ARE PROGRAMMES RUN BY TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS UNDER THE DEPARTMENT OF TECHNICAL EDUCATION AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING.

## **6.8 THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA**

### **6.8.1 INTRODUCTION**

The University of Zambia is the Highest Educational level in the Education System. University education is free, and it provides accommodation, food and student allowances (Banda, 17-10-88).

The Lockwood Report had spelled out the role of the future university as an instrument of national development. The university must combine practical service to the nation at a critical time in its life with fulfilment of the historical purpose of a university as a seat of learning, a treasure house of knowledge and a creative centre of research. This two-fold objective continues to guide the philosophy of the University of Zambia. Its goals are teaching, research and service relevant to the needs of Zambia and a standard of excellence which will ensure that while these needs are properly and adequately served, the University wins and holds international respect as a seat of scholarship. These objectives have been enshrined in the motto of the University, **SERVICE AND EXCELLENCE** and have guided its development since its inception (University Calendar, 1986-1987:11).

### **6.8.2 GENERAL ORGANIZATION AND ADMINISTRATION**

The University comprises of 9 schools: the School of Agricultural Sciences, the School of Education, the School of Engineering, the School of Humanities and Social Sciences, the School of Natural Sciences, and the School of Veterinary Medicine. Besides the University of Zambia (Lusaka Campus) there is another campus at Ndola which consists of the School of Environmental Studies and the School of Business and Industrial Studies (University Calendar: 1986-1987:12).

The supreme academic authority of the University is the Senate which organizes, controls and directs all academic activities, both in teaching and research. Senate is responsible for the admission of students, the structures of programmes, courses of instruction, the conduct of examinations, the award of degrees and the promotion of research. The Chairman of the Senate is the Vice-Chancellor. Below the Senate, and answerable to it, is the Academic

Board. There is an Academic Board for each Constituent Institution, one for Lusaka and one for Ndola.

It is chaired by the respective Principal and is responsible for the academic management of the Constituent Institution. It superintends and co-ordinates the academic activities of the School and Research Units at the Institution and specifically is empowered to approve or amend course outlines and regulations and to conduct the annual examinations. The day-to-day academic life of the University is organized by the Schools of Study. The academic governing body of a School is the Board of Studies which is composed of the teaching and research members of staff in the School together with representatives from other sectors of the University and from outside bodies. The Board of Studies determines the necessary entrance qualifications to the school, proposes programmes of study for the consideration of Senate, considers course outlines proposed by Departments, scrutinises all assessment systems and examination results. The chairman of the Board of Studies is the Dean of the School (University Calendar, 1986-1987:49).

### **6.8.3 ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS (University Calendar, 1986-1987:52)**

- The applicant must hold passes at credit level in at least 5 subjects in the Zambian School Certificate or Cambridge Overseas School Certificate or passes in at least five subjects in the General Certificate of Education Ordinary-level examinations.
- Qualifications other than those of the Zambian School Certificate or the General Certificate of Education may be accepted, provided they are approved as equivalent by the Senate. A person holding a two-year diploma of the University is regarded as having satisfied the General Entrance Requirement.
- Candidates who are 25 years of age in the academic year in which they propose to begin their degree studies may be admitted to any degree programmes if they present evidence of attainment which in the opinion of the University indicate that they have the ability to pursue the proposed pro-

grammes of study. Candidates must be Zambian citizens, resident in Zambia and will be required to write a Special Entry Examination.

- Because the language of instruction at the University is English, all candidates for admission are expected to show evidence of proficiency in the English Language. A school Certificate Credit or 'O' level pass in English Language is accepted as satisfying this requirement and is normally demanded.

Though the University started with a low enrolment and few schools, it has grown both in enrolment and outputs (see Table 6.10). It is worth comparing the number of graduates at independence (1964) and in (1984). In 1964 there were 100 graduates and in 1984 there were 6 557 graduates.

#### **6.8.4 STAFF QUALIFICATIONS**

Though not clearly stated, a Master's degree is recommended for the teaching personnel of the University (Kanduza, 24-10-88). Staff Development programmes are provided for under-qualified staff.

The objective of the Staff Development Programme is to provide opportunities to Zambian staff for higher-level training that will enable them to serve the University more effectively. This is accomplished by providing training awards that will enable members of staff, or suitably qualified potential staff, to obtain the academic and other qualifications needed for their posts and to increase their experience. The Staff Development Programme responds to the needs of the University for qualified local personnel in all fields, academic and otherwise, but the major emphasis is on the training and preparation of persons for academic parts that involve teaching, research and library work. A person who has not yet been appointed to the service of the University may be offered a Staff Development Fellowship to enable him to obtain the qualifications needed for an academic or other post. For teaching personnel, the Fellowship usually ends in the award of a Master's Degree. Upon successful completion of the Master's Degree, a Fellow who is to work at the University will be appointed to the staff of a School and will assume teaching responsibilities. After teaching

Table 6.10

## EDUCATIONAL STATISTICS 1984, 1988:34-35

THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA GRADUATION STUDENTS BY PROGRAMME, 1968-81/84

	1968-69	70	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84	Total
<b>POST GRADUATE</b>									
Ph.D	—	—	1	—	1	—	—	—	2
M.A.	7	1	6	2	5	8	17	—	46
M.Ed.	3	—	4	1	3	2	5	—	18
LL.M	4	1	3	1	4	2	5	—	20
M.Sc.	4	1	3	4	4	—	7	—	23
Post-Grad. Cert. in Education	244	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	244
Post-Grad. Diploma in Library Studies	2	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2
Post-Grad. Diploma in Management Administration and Planning	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	4
Post-Grad. Diploma in International Law	—	—	—	6	4	2	1	—	13
Post-Grad. Diploma in Law	—	—	—	1	—	—	1	—	2
<b>SUB-TOTAL</b>	<b>268</b>	<b>3</b>	<b>17</b>	<b>15</b>	<b>21</b>	<b>14</b>	<b>36</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>374</b>

**UNDERGRADUATE**

B. Agricultural Science	110	11	1	23	43	3	25	232
B.A.	686	122	121	190	171	200	119	1,609
B.S.W.	55	6	10	20	25	10	12	138
B.A. Education	568	117	161	131	135	120	103	1,335
B. Science Education	180	31	46	40	49	32	28	406
B.A. Library Studies	41	10	16	8	10	9	11	115
B. Science Library Studies	1	—	—	—	—	—	—	1
B. Engineering	151	31	3	44	36	71	39	430
L.L.B.	293	47	37	43	57	45	38	560
B. Mineral Science	30	13	35	31	30	41	36	216
B. Science (N)	—	—	—	—	8	6	11	25
B. Science (HB)	224	25	38	26	48	39	39	439
B. Sciences	225	20	19	23	45	32	44	408
M.B.Ch.B.	124	31	30	45	31	33	29	323
B.B.A. (Bachelor of Bus. Admin.)	—	—	—	29	26	26	10	91
B.A.C. (Bachelor of Accountancy)	—	—	—	50	67	68	54	239
<b>SUB-TOTAL</b>	<b>2,688</b>	<b>464</b>	<b>568</b>	<b>703</b>	<b>781</b>	<b>733</b>	<b>618</b>	<b>6,557</b>

	1968-69	70	1978-79	1979-80	1980-81	1981-82	1982-83	1983-84	Total
<b>DIPLOMAS</b>									
Dip. in Adult Education	—	—	41	3	23	7	9	—	83
Dip. in Library Studies (Librarianship)	30	—	8	—	3	11	8	—	60
Dip. in Nursing Education	14	11	10	14	15	15	11	—	90
Dip. in Social Work	134	7	7	7	2	7	7	—	171
Dip. in Teacher Education	85	29	—	16	—	—	—	—	130
<b>SUB-TOTAL</b>	<b>265</b>	<b>47</b>	<b>66</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>43</b>	<b>40</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>534</b>
<b>CERTIFICATES</b>									
Certificate in Adult Education	99	21	15	13	15	8	—	—	171
Certificate in Public H. Nursing	12	14	10	13	10	10	9	—	78
Certificate in Law	—	—	—	12	6	7	4	—	29
Certificate in Library Studies	56	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	56
Associate Certificate in Education	127	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	127
<b>SUB-TOTAL</b>	<b>294</b>	<b>35</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>38</b>	<b>31</b>	<b>25</b>	<b>13</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>461</b>
<b>GRAND TOTAL</b>	<b>3,513</b>	<b>549</b>	<b>676</b>	<b>796</b>	<b>876</b>	<b>614</b>	<b>702</b>	<b>—</b>	<b>7,926</b>

**NOTES:**

1. The first column (1968-75/78) gives cumulative numbers of graduates during the first TEN YEARS of the life of this University. It also indicates the careers of degree, diploma and certificate programmes offered during the first decade and underlines those being offered during the last half of the second decade.

<sup>a</sup>Summery of graduates to date (1983/84):

Post-graduate degrees	372
Under-graduate degrees	6,357
Diplomas	534
Certificates	461
<b>Total</b>	<b>7,926</b>

for a period of one or more years, such staff may get the opportunity to go on to doctoral studies (University Calendar, 1986-1987:218).

## **6.9 CONTINUING EDUCATION**

### **6.9.1 INTRODUCTION**

Initially the Department of Continuing Education run by the University was divided into four departments, namely the Department of Extension Studies and Conferences, the Department of Mass Communication, the Department of Correspondence Studies and the Department of Adult Education. The Department of Mass Communication was later transferred to the Arts Department.

### **6.9.2 DEPARTMENT OF CORRESPONDENCE STUDIES**

#### **6.9.2.1 General organization and functioning**

Correspondence education involves teaching through the post, by means of lecture notes and study guides, additional references or reading material, supplemented with specific written assignments and directions from lecturers. All correspondence students enrol with the University of Zambia. The University puts great stress on three activities:

- regular submission of assignments by students;
- attendance at residential school (tutorial work); and
- writing examinations at the end of the year.

A student who fails to send in written assignments to the satisfaction of the lecturer concerned may be excluded from the course during the year (Sibalwa, 12-10-88).

#### **6.9.2.2. Entrance requirements**

Requirements for correspondence studies are the same as those for entrance into the University (see paragraph 6.8.3).

### **6.9.2.3 Curriculum**

At present study by this mode is confined to courses offered by the School of Education, the School of Natural Sciences and the School of Humanities and Social Sciences (University of Zambia Calendar 1986-1987, 1986:196-198).

#### **The courses offered by the School of Education at the University**

- Reading and Composition
- Introduction to Language
- Introduction to Literature
- French Language and Literature
- History of Modern Africa from 1860
- Studies in the growth of capitalism 1450 to present
- Topics in World History

#### **The courses offered by the School of Humanities and Social Science are**

- Fundamentals of Social Sciences
- Political and Social Change in Africa
- The structure of Zambian Society
- Introduction to Government and Administration
- Comparative Politics
- Introduction to Sociology
- Social Theory

#### **The courses offered by the School of Natural Sciences**



- Environment and Man
- An Introduction of Geographical Studies
- Cultural Elements of Geography
- Calculus and Analytic Geometry

It is possible to complete the entire programme leading to the degree of Bachelor of Arts by correspondence, but because of the practical requirements within the Education degree, correspondence students are usually required to complete some of the courses (usually those in the third and fourth years) as full-time or part-time students (Sibalwa, 12-10-88).

### **6.9.3 DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION - UNIVERSITY**

#### **6.9.3.1 General Organization**

Through the Department of Adult Education, the Centre for Continuing Education offers a one-year programme leading to the Certificate in Adult Education and a one-year programme leading to Diploma in Adult Education. These courses are provided by University Staff in School of Education.

This department is also responsible for Basic Education which is attached to primary school (Informal Education). The Department also offers Supervised Study Groups (SSG) which are mostly found in urban areas. These are designed to take pressure off the secondary schools. This department is also planning to launch a degree programme in adult education lasting for four years (Sibalwa, 12-10-88).

#### **6.9.3.2 Entrance requirements**

For admission to the Certificate in Adult Education an applicant should have passed in 3 acceptable subjects in the Zambian School Certificate or equivalent or qualifications deemed by the University to be equivalent to those. In addition an applicant should have at least 2 years of relevant experience (Sibalwa, 12-10-88).

Besides registration through the University, this part of the education system also caters for adults or youths who left full-time education or may never have entered it, but may wish to engage in education and training by part-time study. This includes literacy education, formal education and in-service training and workers education (Educational Reform, 1977:12).

#### **6.9.3.3 Curriculum for adult education**

The programme for the Certificate in Adult Education is as follows:

- History and Philosophy of Adult Education, with special reference to Zambia
- Adult Learning
- Programme Planning, Evaluation and Administration
- Methods and Techniques in Adult Education
- Cumulative Theory and Practice I (including English skills)
- Introduction to Sociology

In the Diploma in Adult Education the first two terms are spent in course work. The third term is spent on a major field project related to the candidate's field of specialization. The programme is as follows (University of Zambia Calendar 1985-1986, 1985:196):

- Administration in Adult Education
- Community Development
- Communication Theory and Practice II
- Field Project

#### **6.9.4 DEPARTMENT OF EXTENSION STUDIES AND CONFERENCES**

Through the Department of Extension Studies and Conferences, the University is represented in each of the main provincial centres of the country in Chipata,

Kasama, Kitwe, Livingstone, Mansa, Mongu and Solwezi as well as Lusaka. In each of these places there is a Resident Tutor whose task is to organize suitable non-credit programmes lectures and seminars for the benefit of the people of the surrounding area. Members of the University staff may be involved in providing these courses, together with members of the local community. The department is also responsible for organizing conferences, seminars and workshops at the University of Lusaka (University Calendar, 1986-1987, 1986:195-196).

## **6.10 SUPPORTIVE SERVICES**

### **6.10.1 THE ZAMBIA LIBRARY SERVICES**

The object of the Zambian Library Service is to make books freely available to everyone, to encourage the use of libraries and there is concern that this service should cater for rural areas, since the municipalities cater for urban areas. The self-help scheme has resulted in the opening of various libraries. Mobile libraries have been developed and they could cover an area of 32 000 miles in 163 days. Loaning of books is also encouraged and developed (Annual Report for 1964, 1965:39).

The Zambia Library Service is under the control of the Department of Home Education, even though its operations overlap between Ministry of General Education and Culture and Ministry of Higher Education. The Zambia Library Service operates six provincial libraries, situated at Choma, Kasama, Chipata, Mansa, Mongu and Solwezi. Apart from the Provincial network, the Zambia Library Service also operates from two branch libraries in the Zambezi and Mbala Districts.

Each provincial or district library operates a number of centre libraries within that area. There are about 105 000 centres within the Zambia Library Service. These centres are situated in Primary and Secondary Schools, Districts, Prisons and Welfare Centres (Annual Report for the year 1982, 1986:33).

### **6.10.2 THE ZAMBIA CULTURAL SERVICE (ZCS)**

The Zambia Cultural Services moved from the office of the Secretary General to the Ministry of General Education and Culture, thereby adding 'Culture' to the Ministry which thus became the Ministry of Education and Culture.

The Director of Cultural Service is assisted by the Deputy Director, a seconded acting Chief Education Officer (administration) and Heads of Technical and promotional sections at the Headquarters. This Department has a national mandate to preserve and promote Zambia's cultural heritage and to co-ordinate the activities of cultural institutions in the country. The department acts as a clearing house for requests and inquiries made to Government in terms of cultural festivals, conferences and exhibitions and for the dissemination of information on all aspects of cultural life and activities in Zambia.

In this task, the ZCS works closely with the National Museum Board, the Commission for the Preservation of Natural and Historical Monuments and Kelus, State functions, Institute of African Studies, all cultural institutions like the New Writers' Groups, Government Ministries, The UNIP, visiting cultural groups, Zambian cultural groups touring abroad, and all other individuals (Annual Report for the year 1979, 1981:17).

The Department performs its task through its technical and promotional sections, which include Research, Music and Dance, Literature and Drama, Arts and Crafts, Zambian Food, Cultural Villages and Photographic and Recording as per decentralization policy, the Department has also a Cultural Officer attached to the Chief Education Officer in each Province.

### **6.10.3 EDUCATIONAL BROADCASTING SERVICE (EBS)**

The aim of the Educational Broadcasting Service is to improve the quality of learning in schools by supplementing the teachers' own efforts in the classroom by providing teaching material which may not be readily available to him (Annual Report for the year 1978, 1980:12).

The Educational Broadcasting Service has three operational sections, each of which has immediate supervision at its head. The sections are:

- Educational Radio Service (ERS), based in Lusaka
- Educational Television Service (ETV), based in Kitwe
- Audio-Visual Aids Service (AVS), based in Lusaka

#### **6.10.4 EXAMINATIONS COUNCIL OF ZAMBIA**

##### **6.10.4.1 General**

The Council is responsible for the conduct and administration of examinations which are taken by candidates in primary, secondary, teacher training and technical and vocational training colleges. It also discharges the responsibility of formulating syllabuses for examinations and carry out research in examinations. The Examinations Council of Zambia also administers external examinations on behalf of various Boards (Annual Report for the year 1985, 1985:2).

There are variations as regards the administration of the Grade 12 examination (Annual Report for the year 1983, 1986:5-6):

- Zambia borrows some of the papers from the Cambridge University Local Examinations Syndicate of United Kingdom:
- the printing of question papers is done in England;
- the marking of scripts is done both in Zambia and in England;
- the computerization of the examination is shared by Zambia and Cambridge, with Cambridge still doing the moderation and marking phase;
- the issue of results is done by the Examinations Council of Zambia; and
- the printing of Certificates is done in Zambia, by the Examination Council of Zambia.

The programme of localizing the School Certificate Examination has been embarked upon. This exercise is greatly assisted by the Ministry of Overseas Development through the British Council and the Union of Cambridge Examinations Syndicate. Training sessions for Examination Council of Zambia are conducted until the stage of competency is reached.

#### **6.10.4.2 Overseas examinations**

These are set and marked by Overseas authorities but are conducted by the Ministry on behalf of these bodies (Annual Report for the year 1983, 1986:5-6):

- The General Certificate of Education: The GCE 'O' level examinations of the University of London are taken by external students only.
- The University of London Degree and various Diploma Examinations: These are taken by external candidates only.
- Pitman's Examinations: These are taken by both internal and external candidates.
- The Music Diploma Examinations: These examinations are taken by both internal and external candidates.

#### **6.10.4.3 Examination unit for the disabled**

This Unit was established to carry out the following functions (Pensulo, 29-09-88).

- to enable all disabled children to sit for examinations, taking into consideration each individual's specific problem caused by disability;
- to make use of examination results for the purpose of guidance and placement of the disabled; and
- to promote better understanding and positive attitude towards the disabled.

The examination Unit co-ordinates all activities relating to examinations for the disabled, modifies examination papers to suit individual's disabilities.

moderates examination results, taking into account each disabled student's constraints and guiding invigilators, markers and moderators of the examination for the disabled. It also hands over results to the Inspectorate in Special Education for guidance and placement and distributes information sheets to school.

The Unit is faced with a problem of not being represented on the Examination Council of Zambia that sets, modifies and marks examination papers. Secondly, a lack of statistics on the schools where the disabled students are integrated makes it difficult for smooth distribution of examination papers. Thirdly, there is insufficient co-ordination between the Special Education Examination and the Special Education Inspectorate resulting in late delivery of exam materials and the dissemination of information. Lastly, printed examination papers are often released late for the unit for modification and transcription into braille (Pensulo, 29-09-88).

#### **6.10.5 PSYCHOLOGICAL SERVICES**

The services provide the Ministry with the necessary cut-off points for selection into Secondary Schools. It also informs the Ministry confidentially of certain aspects of the results which could be kept in mind for the future. The Psychological Service is responsible for the Grade 7 Selection Examination. It also provides the frequency distributions and guidelines for selection into Grade II. The centrally set papers for Primary Teachers' Training Examinations are proof-read by the Service and it provides suggestions for their improvement where necessary. The Service runs a Career Guidance Unit. The Unit is responsible for processing education numbers and make available Grades 10 and 12 entry details for the use by the Computer Bureau at the University in Zambia. This is for the purpose of guidance and counselling. Students' record cards, Career Preference Forms, GRZ Occupational Interest Inventory and the Careers Bulletin are all prepared and secondary schools kept up-to-date with materials and information (Annual Report for the year 1981, 1984:18).

#### **6.10.6 BURSARIES COMMITTEE**

The Bursaries Committee was established in 1973 under the Bursaries Committee Regulation. The Committee is governed by the Education Act under the Laws of Zambia. Members of the Committee, who should not be more than twelve, are appointed by the Minister and are drawn from various institutions and different walks of life including parastatal organizations, Government Ministries and Departments, the University of Zambia and other organizations outside Government. Members are appointed on the basis of personal capacities and according to the importance of their contribution and do not necessarily represent individual institution or organizations but the nation as a whole. The Committee exists to further the education of Zambian citizens and acts for and on behalf of the Minister and has power to execute the following functions:

- To make grants or loans to citizens of Zambia or their parents by way of Bursaries or Scholarship for the furtherance of Education of such citizens.
- Subject to the approval of Minister, to make a grant or loan to a person who is not a citizen of Zambia or his parents by way of bursary or scholarship for furtherance of his education.

In the furtherance of education of the citizens of Zambia or non-citizens with the approval of the Minister, the Committee depends on Government Republic of Zambia Bursaries, for example funds approved and authorized by Parliament to be spent on bursaries to enable students to pursue various Educational Programmes in tertiary institutions within Zambia and abroad.

The Committee which is conversant with the priorities of the Party and Government decides the award of bursaries purely on the basis of those priorities and availability of funds. First priority is given to the full-time students entering the University of Zambia and these students are automatically awarded bursaries when they are accepted and enrolled at the University. This condition may apply to part-time and correspondence students.



Apart from processing Bursaries financed from Government Representatives of Zambia Funds, the Committee administers offers of scholarship or other awards for friendly countries. There are other Committees that operate under the Bursary Section, these being the Commonwealth National Selection Committee, the War Memorial Fund Board of Trustee (recently discontinued). In accordance with the Philosophy of Humanism, which has advocated free education in the Republic, the Bursaries Committee worked flat out and made it possible for Lusaka campus and Ndola campus full-time students to enrol at the University (Annual Report for the year 1981, 1984:17-18).

#### **6.10.7 KENNETH KAUNDA FOUNDATION**

The Kenneth Kaunda Foundation, with its subsidiary companies, the National Educational Distribution Company of Zambia Limited (NEDCOZ), are the suppliers of the country's educational materials, such as paper, exercise books, textbooks, sports and Domestic Science equipment.

The Zambian Educational material Project (ZEMP), and some donor agencies assisted the Government in improving the supply of text-books to schools by providing the Foundation with printing machinery, and training some CDC officials and secondary school teachers in the act of writing text books and facilitating the delivery of books to regions and district centres by providing vehicles.

#### **6.10.8 CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT CENTRE (CDC)**

The CDC has professional responsibility for syllabus design (and presentation for approval to Republic of Zambia Examinations Council), preparation of pupils' books and teachers' handbooks, and design and application of evaluation instruments. The scope covers Pre-School, Basic Education (Grades 1-9) School Certificate (Grades 10-12), Teacher Education (pre- and in-service), Special Education, Evaluation and Research and Resource Centre concept.

The work load has more than doubled since implementation of educational reforms. Work on syllabus and material production also involves seminars for regional inspectors, subject inspectors and practising teachers, both at CDC

and in the field. The Resource Centre at CDC has been focusing on in-service training in this area so far, as well as in training courses for practical subject teachers. Courses on research methods are under way with assistance from the Education Research Bureau and others, and are open to all CDC staff. CDC has a systematic policy of inviting donor agencies to associate themselves with the work of FINNIDA (practical subjects textbooks), SIDA (Special Education, Resource centres at TTC, teaching materials,) UNICEF (Basic Education, Pre-school), EEC (Science and Mathematics) British Council responsible for revision work of the ZPC (Coombe & Lauvas, 1984:28).

On professional matters the Director of CDC is under the Chief Inspectorate of Schools and administratively he is responsible to under-secretary of the Ministry of Higher Education.

## **6.11 COMPARISON:PRE-INDEPENDENCE AND POST-INDEPENDENCE**

### **6.11.1 THE SCHOOL SYSTEM**

#### **6.11.1.1 Entrance requirements**

##### **6.11.1.1.1 Primary school**

Before independence the age of pupils' entry to Grade I was five to seven and a half years in scheduled primary schools (fee-paying). In unscheduled primary schools (non fee-paying) the entry age for pupils at the Grade I level was seven to eight years.

In the present school system age of entry is seven to eight, although a number of six-year olds are "smuggled" into these schools (Mwanakatwe, 1968:134). See also paragraph 6.3.2.

##### **6.11.1.1.2 Secondary schools**

Admission to Form I was restricted to pupils who had completed the full primary school course. The age entry into Form I was between 12 and 16 years. The average age recently is between 14 and 15. Pupils entering secondary schools

nowadays should obtain relatively high marks in the Secondary Selection Examinations. Current development provides for about one-third of the Grade 9 output to enter Grade 10 each year. The progression of pupils from Grade 9 to 10 is based upon performance in the Junior Secondary School Leaving Examination (Mwanakatwe, 1968:137).

### **6.11.1.2 School structure**

#### **6.11.1.2.1 Primary schooling (first level)**

Primary schooling was divided into three:

1. Lower Primary Course (Sub-Standards A and B, Standards I and II). The duration was four years.
2. Middle Primary Course (Standards III and IV).
3. Upper Primary Course (Standards V and VI). The duration was two years.

The whole primary course lasted for 8 years (see Organogram 6.2). The Primary course currently runs for 7 years for example according to the Interim stage (see Organogram 4.2) it is envisaged that at the finale stage it will last for 6 years (see Organogram 4.3).

#### **6.11.1.2.2 Junior Secondary Course (second level)**

The Junior Secondary Course consists of Form I and II. After the Primary Course, a child can divert either to Domestic Science Teachers' Course (two years) or to Lower Primary School Teachers' Course (two years) or to Trades Courses or to Further Education. The present Junior Secondary comprises Grade 8 and 9. When the plan for Basic Education is achieved it will last for 3 years (see Organogram 4.3).

#### **6.11.1.2.3 Senior Secondary (third level)**

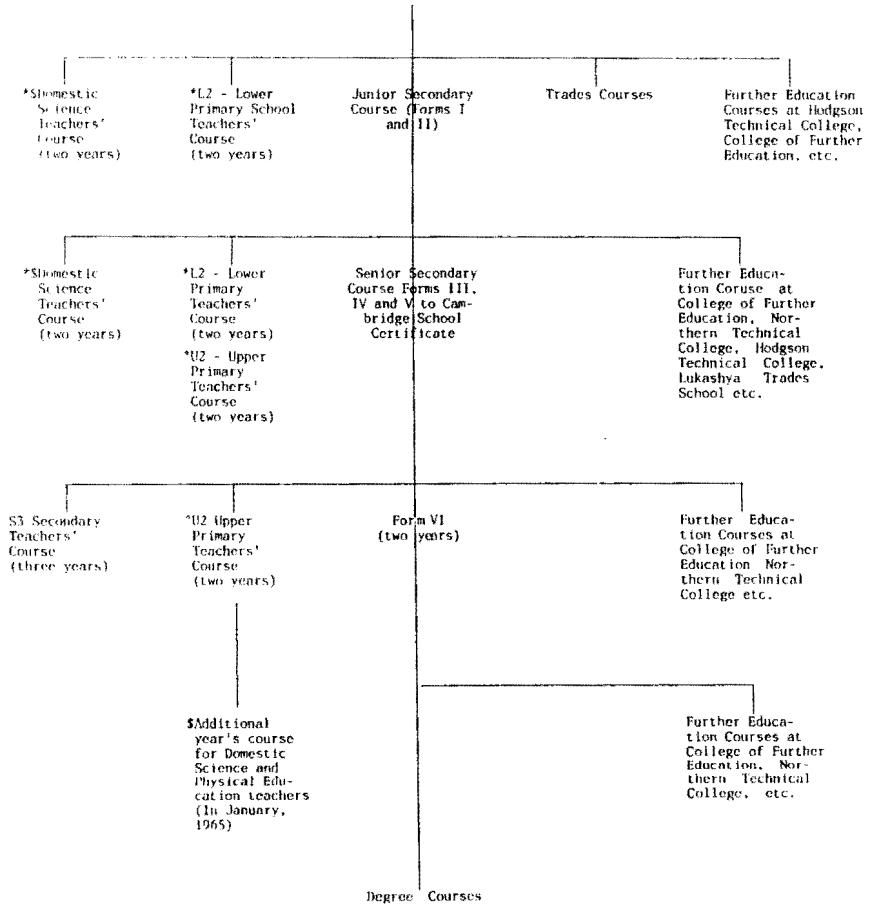
Senior Secondary Course comprises Forms III, IV and V to Cambridge School Certificate. Besides taking Senior Secondary Course a child could either take Domestic Science Teachers' Course (two years) or L2 Lower Primary Teachers'

Organogram 6.2

DIAGRAM SHOWING THE GENERAL STRUCTURE OF THE FORMAL AFRICAN EDUCATION SYSTEM, DECEMBER, 1963  
(Northern Rhodesian Government Triennial Survey 1961 - 1963:11)

Primary schools

- (1) Lower Primary Course (Sub-Standards A and B, Standards I and II - four years).
- (2) Middle Primary Course (Standards III and IV - two years).
- (3) Upper Primary Course (Standards V and VI - two years).



\* It should be noted that these refer to the same course. It was intended that the course would be a two year post-Junior Secondary but because there were insufficient numbers it was found necessary to admit a number of students with post-Standard VI qualifications.

S In 1965 it is intended that the course for Domestic Science teachers will consist of one additional year following the normal U2 course.

\* It should be noted that these refer to the same course but a number of students admitted have in fact completed a senior secondary course.

Course (two years) or Further Education Courses at Hodgson Technical College or College of Further Education (see Organogram 6.2).

It is of great importance to mention that under the present system of education, pupils can only train as teachers after Grade 10. The Lower Primary School Teachers' Course has been phased out. Though Grade 10 is the requirement most of the pupils admitted to Training Colleges are Grade Twelves (see paragraph 6.6.2).

#### **6.11.1.2.4 Fourth Level**

After Senior Secondary Course a child could either proceed to Form VI (two years) or U2 Upper Primary Teachers' Course (two years) or S3 Secondary Teachers' Course (three years) or Further Education Courses at College. An additional year's course for Domestic Science and Physical Education was given to those who completed the U2 course. Also, after completing Form VI a child could either advance to Degree Courses or to Further Education Courses at Colleges of Further Education or Northern Technical College (see Organogram 6.2).

In the present education structure Form VI has been phased out. After Senior Secondary Course a child who satisfies the University entrance requirement can directly register with the University.

#### **6.11.1.3 Curriculum**

During the Missionary period the curriculum consisted of reading, writing and arithmetic. The curriculum developed with time, and later included subjects that would make pupils relevant to the needs of the colonists, such as carpentry, dressmaking, cookery and agriculture, hygiene and Religious Education.

##### **6.11.1.3.1 Primary Level**

Until 1986 there hadn't been a great shift and change concerning the content of education in all education levels. All primary schools offered the following subjects: Arithmetic, Arts and Crafts, English, Gardening, Nature Study,

Needlework (for girls only), Physical Education, Religion, Singing, Science and Social Studies.

An additional vernacular language was prescribed by the Minister of Education at scheduled primary schools as he may select. At all unscheduled primary schools the following additional subjects were included in the curriculum: domestic science (for girls) and vernacular language (Mwanakatwe, 1968:134).

#### **6.11.1.3.2 Secondary Level**

In both the junior secondary and the senior secondary courses, the following basic subjects of secondary curriculum were offered in schools: English, Vernacular languages, French history, Geography, General Science, Mathematics, Arts and Crafts, Metalwork, Woodwork, Civics, Religion, Needlework and Physical Education. In 1966, a drastic revision of the junior secondary syllabuses was made in order to bring them into closer relation with the needs of pupils in Zambia. A more significant development was the reintroduction of Agricultural Science in both junior and senior secondary schools' curricula. Where Agricultural Science is offered at the junior secondary level, it does not replace general science which is generally taken by all students in secondary schools (Mwanakatwe, 1968:136).

Significant though these changes which are taking place in Zambia's schools, the fact remains that since 1964 the curriculum used in the colonial era has been modified rather than radically transformed. At least as important as the modification in the curriculum are the changes in approach and in teaching methods.

Gradually schools are abandoning rote learning and the didactic methods are shifting their focus away from the concept of transmitting specific packages of information to one providing their pupils with the skills, understanding and attitudes that will enable them to go on learning and to appraise new ideas and innovations, after they have completed their formal education (Snelson, 1970:286).

#### **6.11.1.3.3 Points of criticism**

Much criticism which was directed against the curriculum of the pre-independence period was misguided in that it was based on the assumption that the schools could be a major vehicle for social and economic change. Critics complained that the schools made their pupils dissatisfied with their way of life. The most radical innovation made in Zambia since Independence has been the introduction of English as medium of instruction from the first year of the primary school course. This is in marked contrast to the policy adopted in some other countries, where a local language has been selected as the national language. In Tanzania, for instance, Swahili is now the medium of instruction in the primary schools and will, within a few years, become the medium in secondary schools also (Snelson, 1968:285,286).

One unhappy development in recent years has been the decline in the status of vernaculars at senior secondary level. Looking at the curriculum for Grades 10-12, it is observed that vernaculars can be taken as an optional subject, but are not included in the Core Group. The scornful or indifferent attitude of students to the study of their own vernacular languages in secondary schools reveals their ignorance concerning the basis of their culture, and this will destroy the basis of national pride, and self-confidence will be undermined in the young generation. Therefore, the Ministry of Education has a responsibility to restore the image of vernacular languages in the secondary curriculum (Mwanakatwe, 1968:137).

As compared to the Colonial era, the school System in Zambia has been greatly expanded. Though there is still a shortage of classrooms, much has been done to improve this area by both the Government and self-help schemes. There has been a great intake in schools at all levels as compared to pre-independence period. The establishment of the University has closed some of the gaps that existed before independence. Education was open to all.

## **6.12 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

Chapter 6 has discussed the school system as a whole, including special schools, continuing education, university education and supportive services. Among other issues, this chapter has discussed in detail the age requirement, general organization, teacher qualifications and curriculum for each education level.

Supportive Services like the Library Services, Psychological Services, Examination Council, Kenneth Kaunda Foundation, Educational Broadcasting, Services Bursaries Committee and the Curriculum Development Centre which enable the Education Ministries to run as a coherent whole have been discussed.

Finally this section compares the pre-independence and post-independence school system.

Chapter 6 has discussed the school system as a whole, for example pre-primary, primary, secondary schools, special schools, continuing education and university education.



## **CHAPTER 7**

### **SUMMARY: FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **7.1 INTRODUCTION**

This concluding chapter is concerned with assessing and summarizing the study on the Educational system of Zambia, for example the historical background from the traditional era through missionary and colonial times to the present system; the policy making in pre- and post-independence times; the reforms adopted to bring about changes in the educational system and meet the needs and demands of the people and their country; the organizational structures that execute the educational policies; the functioning of the school system and how it implements the ideas of the policy-makers.

#### **7.2 MOTIVATION**

Zambia is a developing Third World country. Since her independence in 1964, she has undergone many changes, for example politically, socially, economically and educationally. It is of great importance and interest to study an education system of a developing African State. Studying Zambia would be of great benefit since very little has been written on Zambian Education System in South Africa and it is important to evaluate changes since independence.

#### **7.3 AIMS OF RESEARCH**

The aim of this research is to study the Education System in Zambia; how it developed through times, how new reforms after independence were introduced to bring about changes in policy, administration, organizational structures; the school system and supportive services.

#### **7.4 METHODS OF RESEARCH**

A literature study was done at the libraries of the Potchefstroom University, the University of the Witwatersrand, the University of South Africa and the University of Zambia. Zambia was visited and interviews conducted mostly with

people with a wide knowledge and experience of the education system in Zambia.

### **7.5 STRUCTURAL OVERVIEW**

Chapter 2 has outlined what we understand by an education system, educational administration, educational policy, the school system and supportive services. This chapter has also given the general picture of the country of this study, for example its geographical situation, people, political structure, economy and its history.

The aim of describing the historical development of the Zambian Education System has been attained in Chapter 3. Education in Zambia has evolved through traditional education, missionary education and government education of the Colonial era, the Federal era and the post-independence era.

Chapter 4 has defined and explained in detail the objective of 'Education for Development' as a draft statement and the 'Educational Reform' as the adopted educational policy in Zambia. This section also looked into the problems of both Education for Development and Educational Reform; the Third and Fourth National Development Plans were adopted to review and strengthen the Educational Reform.

The post-independence organizational structures that execute educational policies are set out in Chapter 5. The Ministry of General Education and Culture and the Ministry of Higher Education are the chief controlling bodies. This section also discussed the financing of education and the nodal structures.

Chapter 6 offers a wide-ranging discussion of organization and administration; the admission requirements; statistical profile; curriculum and teachers qualifications of different levels of educational institutions for example, the pre-schools, primary schools, secondary schools, teacher training colleges, technical and vocational schools and the University of Zambia after independence. The discussion is rounded off by a comparison of pre-independence and post-independence school system.

## **7.6 GENERAL OVERVIEW**

### **7.6.1 PRE-INDEPENDENCE**

Western education in Zambia was introduced by missionaries in the second half of the 19th Century. Schools conducted by various Christian denominations were rather unstable for various reasons, such as lack of support from the British South Africa Company (BSAC) which administered the territory from 1890-1924. Despite the difficulties faced by mission schools, enrolments improved with time. By 1923 an estimated 25 per cent of the 200 000 African children of school-going age were enrolled in some type of school (Silanda, 1988:42) (see also paragraphs 3.2.2.3 and 3.4).

African education and European education were run by separate Ministries and each had its own syllabus. European education was run by the Colonial Government and supervised by the European Ministry of Education. African education was run by the Territorial Government and supervised by the African Ministry of Education (Soremekun, 1973:196) (see also paragraph 3.4).

Initially the purpose of educating Africans was to produce people who would be able to read the Bible and help spread the Gospel. Later, some of the graduates were to take low-level jobs in the Colonial administration. The curriculum in the schools was therefore narrow, consisting of subjects such as Religious Doctrine, Reading, Arithmetic and hygiene (refer to paragraphs 3.2.2.1 and 3.4).

After Britain took over control of the territory in 1924, the administration increased expenditure on education by giving grants to missions. The result was increased enrolments and some teachers began to receive more extensive training (see also paragraph 3.4). Most schools, however, offered only a two-year programme which was not sufficient to make pupils confidently literate. In general the colonial administration spent very little on African education compared with that spent on European education (Sinyangwe, 15-10-88) refer to paragraph 3.4).

## **7.6.2 EDUCATION IN POST-INDEPENDENCE ZAMBIA**

After obtaining independence in 1964, Zambia faced serious shortages of highly trained personnel. Most of the whites who held senior administrative and technical positions left and there were not enough qualified Zambians to replace the expatriates. On the eve of independence only a small number of indigenous people had completed secondary school (1 000) and university training (100). There was, therefore, an urgent need to train Zambians to fill the positions left by whites. In addition, the new government felt that Africans had been denied the right to education by the Colonial Administration. The government therefore pledged itself to correct this colonial legacy by rapidly enlarging the educational system at all levels and by providing universal basic education. Primary school enrolments increased from 380 000 in 1964 to 1 000 000 in 1982; secondary school enrolment increased from 14 000 to 100 000 in the same period; and the number of Zambian graduates rose from 100 to 7 000 (Simson, 1985:77) (see also paragraph 3.6.1).

### ***7.6.2.1 The introduction of Educational Reform (Zambian Education Policy)***

The drastic increase in enrolments at independence created a new problem of young school leavers. Although more schools were built, both at primary and secondary levels, the places at the secondary level were still too few to absorb all the Grade 7 graduates (only one fourth who finish Grade 7 find places in Grade 8). The large numbers of pupils who cannot continue with their education find great difficulty in getting jobs. Some reasons advanced for this problem are that primary education is too academic and does not prepare the youth for work, that they are too young to perform tasks that require physical strength and maturity and finally the limited job market (see paragraph 4.2).

The school leaver problem outlined above has caused a lot of anxiety in Zambia and influenced the advent of the Educational Reform Movement in the 1970's. The Educational Reforms published in 1977 were concerned mainly with two issues; namely, the quantitative and qualitative development of the system, touching on issues such as teacher education and supply, technical education and vocational training and the organisation and management of the education

system. The quantitative aspect had to do with the provision of universal basic education to all (Sinyangwe, 15-10-88) (see also paragraph 3.6.5).

#### ***7.6.2.2 The new structure according to Educational Reform***

The current formal school system has an interim structure comprising a 7 + 2 + 3 pattern, being seven years of primary schooling, two years of junior secondary and three years of senior secondary. Progression from one stage to the next is based on performance in selection examinations. This structure is designated "interim" because eventually the primary and junior secondary sectors will merge into a nine-year basic education for all children. This stage will be followed by a three-year senior secondary course which will consist of a number of programmes. Immediately preceding the primary grades some pre-school facilities exist. Some provision is made at both primary and secondary levels for special education. Additional formal education is offered to adults in night schools, special study groups with access to distance learning materials, and by correspondence. Certificate, diploma and degree programmes are available, leading to professional and vocational qualifications. Entry requirements vary according to course level. Continuing education opportunities are available for youths and adults who either have not completed their formal education or never had access to it. These facilities include literacy classes, correspondence studies and in-service courses. There are also extension services which enable personnel to upgrade their knowledge and skills (Kelly et al., 1986:29) (refer to Organograms 6.1 and 4.2).

#### ***7.6.2.3 Organisation and administration***

The formal education system is the responsibility of two main authorities; the Ministry of General Education and Culture (MGEC) and the Ministry of Higher Education (MHE). Each Ministry has its own function, although there is some overlap between them. MGEC is responsible for pre-schools, primary and secondary schools, continuing education, special education and educational broadcasting. MHE has professional oversight of teachers' colleges, technical education and vocational training and is the ministry through which the University is responsible to the government. The Examination Council of Zambia, the Curriculum Development Centre and other related educational

services, as well as the Kenneth Kaunda Foundation with its educational publishing and distributing divisions, also fall under the aegis of this ministry (Kelly et al., 1986:30-31) (see paragraphs 5.4 and 5.5).

Funding and administration of primary schools are the responsibility of the provincial administration within the office of the Member of the Central Committee for a province or region. Provincial Permanent Secretaries are civil service heads who manage the funds voted to primary education by Parliament.

The post-independence era has been dominated by the Educational Reform of 1977. All changes effected and problems experienced emanated from the Reform document (Sinyangwe, 15-10-88).

## **7.7 FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

### **7.7.1 GENERAL**

It is now 25 years since Zambia has become politically independent. In her development Zambia has experienced many changes, especially in the educational sphere. Very little has been achieved with regard to the Educational policy of Educational Reform introduced in 1977. The economic problems in Zambia have retarded the full implementation of Educational Reform. The wishes of the Zambians are not yet fulfilled in the sense that Education has not yet been brought to every eligible child. It should be an urgent task of the government to have a commission appointed to look specifically into the funding of education. Educationists and economists with sound professional background should serve on the commission.

### **7.7.2 FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS WITH REGARD TO SHORTAGE OF GRADE 1 AND 5 PLACES**

Many children who are old enough to enter Grade 1 do not have the opportunity to enrol because there are not enough places. The shortage of lower primary school places is greater in urban areas than in rural areas, and in some towns the shortage is so severe that one-third of the children cannot go to school. This is because the urban child population has increased faster than new

classrooms have been built. Another reason is that many parents enrol their children when they are younger than the minimum entry age of seven due to lack of birth certificates and unreliable affidavits. This partly contributes to preventing many children who are of the correct age from being enrolled. All children enrolled at Grade 1 in urban schools have the opportunity to complete seven years of schooling; a substantial number of children in rural schools do not have the same chance. In some rural districts, four out of ten pupils have to leave school at Grade 4 because there are not sufficient Grade 5 places. In the country as a whole, one-quarter of the pupils enrolled in Grade 4 cannot find places in Grade 5. It is therefore recommended that means of creating more educational institutions should be found. Parents should be involved in bringing about solutions (see paragraph 4.7).

### **7.7.3 FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS WITH REGARD TO SHORTAGE OF GRADE 8 PLACES**

The chances for a child to continue with schooling become very remote after Grade 7 because there are an insufficient number of Grade 8 places in the system. The Grade 7 enrolment has been increasing much faster than the number of new places in Grade 8. More than four out of every five Grade 7 pupils cannot proceed to Grade 8 because of insufficient places in the country (refer to paragraph 4.8). The recommendation in paragraph 7.7.2 of having more learning places created still applies here.

Zambia is experiencing a school-leaver problem. Though it is said that education in Zambia is geared to eliminating this problem it seems to be escalating. Children are being ejected without the necessary skills. The curriculum does not prepare them to take up employment at that tender age. Practical subjects are hampered by inadequate facilities (see paragraphs 4.2 and 4.8). Specialists in curriculum design with extensive knowledge of different curricula of other well developed countries should be involved in planning the Zambian Curriculum. A thorough study of the Zambian labour market should be made and be accommodated in the curriculum.

#### **7.7.4 FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS WITH REGARD TO SHORTAGE OF TEXTBOOKS**

On a visit made to schools it was discovered that the majority of children do not have the necessary textbooks. Sharing is even impossible in some instances.. This is due to financial problems (refer to paragraph 4.8). The commission suggested under paragraph 7.7.1 should look into the allocation of funds especially at primary level.

#### **7.7.5 FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS WITH REGARD TO BASIC SCHOOLS**

It is clear in paragraph 4.8 that basic schools will take some time to be achieved. Firstly, there are no qualified teachers to fit into this new structure. Primary schools have just been turned into basic schools with very little change to suit the junior secondary curriculum. Where additional structures like laboratories and Home Economics centres are built, there is no equipment or qualified teachers to teach these subjects. Some basic schools hardly have facilities. It is recommended that the existing basic schools should be upgraded by fitting in laboratories and Home Economics Centres to promote effective teaching and learning. Before converting primary schools into basic schools, facilities and equipment should be budgeted for. To man these schools with qualified teachers, curricula at the training colleges, should be restructured to fit the "Final Structure of Education" as indicated in Organogram 4.3 for example 6+3+3.

#### **7.7.6 FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS WITH REGARD TO FREE EDUCATION**

Zambia boasts of her 'free education' which it is believed is financially crippling the country. A large sum of money is spent on higher education, students at the University get free education, and are also given 'out of own pocket expense' (pocket money). Parents as a result do not realize that the education of their children rests with them (see paragraph 4.8). It is strongly recommended that parents should be financially involved in the education of their children from lower grades up to university level. Boarding costs in secondary schools should also be transferred to parents. Thorough research should be done on



how to introduce fees so as to avoid school disruptions. More money can thus be devoted to building of schools, supplying of equipment and meeting of new demands.

### **7.8 FIELDS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH**

The following fields of research arising from this study are:

- Parent involvement in the Zambian Education System; and
- funding of Education in Zambia.

### **7.9 CHAPTER SUMMARY**

All issues discussed in the previous chapters were summarized in this chapter.

This chapter also gave a general overview of the Education in Zambia in pre- and post-independence periods.

Finally, findings and recommendations emanating from the entire study have been discussed. Critical areas have been of great importance in giving recommendations.

Topics for further research have been suggested.

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