

The teaching of Civic Education in Zambia:
An Examination of trends in the teaching of Civic Education in Schools

By

Gistered Muleya

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Supervisor: Prof Victor J. Pitsoe

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Declaration

Student number: **3660-604-9**

I declare that, "*The teaching of Civic Education in Zambia : An Examination of the trends in the teaching of Civic Education in Schools*" is my own work and that all the sources that I have used or quoted have been indicated and acknowledged by means of complete references.



SIGNATURE

(Mr) Gistered Muleya

05/08/2015

DATE

Abstract

This study focused on the teaching of Civic Education in Zambia. Specifically, the study examined pedagogical practices in relation to the teaching of Civic Education in schools. It is argued in this study that following right pedagogical practices in the teaching of Civic Education can lead to social change and transformation of society. As such, the purpose of the study was to ascertain therefore the extent to which Civic Education was enhancing or impeding social change and transformation in society. In order to realize the objectives of the study, an exploratory research design was used. The study found out that Civic Education in schools was not modelled on practices that can lead to social change and transformation of society; service learning approaches were rarely promoted in Civic Education lessons; teaching approaches in colleges and the university with respect to Civic Education are greatly lacking; teaching and learning materials in Civic Education were not readily available in schools; teachers of Civic Education were not grounded in the key theoretical and pedagogical perspectives underpinning Civic Education. The study therefore concludes that with correct pedagogical practices and approaches Civic Education can lead to social change and transformation of society.

Key Words

Civic Education, Citizenship Education, Civic Engagement/Participation, Civic Rights and Responsibilities, Service learning, Pedagogical Practices, Trend, Social Change, Society and Transformation

Dedication

This work is dedicated to my late Father, Gideon Hakaloba ,Hamalambo Muleya and my mother Georgina Fredah Moono Muleya who worked tirelessly in laying the solid foundation upon which this work could be realised and stand . I also dedicate this work to my dearest wife, Viola Hamainza Muleya and our beloved children, Munsaka Wendy Muleya, Mweembe Cindy Muleya and Munsanje Mandy Muleya for their patience, support and understanding during my studies.

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Abbreviations

ACARA- Australian Curriculum Assessment and Reporting Authority

ACT- Association for Citizenship Teaching

ANOVA- Analysis of Variance

CCE- Civics and Citizenship Education

CDC- Curriculum Development Centre

CELS- Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study

CIVED- Civic Education

DD- Discovery Democracy

ECCDE- Early Childhood, Care Development

EDC-Education for Democratic Citizenship

ESIP- Education Sector Investment Programme

ET- Education and Training

FGDs- Focus Group Discussions

HRE- Human Rights Education

ICCS- International Civic and Citizenship Education Study

KANU- Kenyan African National Union

MCDSS- Ministry of Community Development and Social Services

MESVTEE- Ministry of Education Science Vocational Training and Early Education

MMD- Movement for Multi Party Democracy

MoE- Ministry of Education

NAEP- National Assessment of Educational Progress

NGOs- Non- Governmental Organisations

NISTCOL- National In-Service Training College

OBE- Outcome Based Education

PF- Patriotic Front

SREB- Southern Regional Education Board

TEVET- Technical Education Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training

TEVETA- Technical Educational, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training Authority

UNIP- United National Independence Party

UNSECO- United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

USA- United States America

USAID- United States Agency for International Development

ZATEC- Zambia Teacher Education Course

ZBEC- Zambia Basic Education Course

ZPC- Zambia Primary Course

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CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION AND BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

Ideas of Civic Education also known as “Citizenship Education and democratic education” have gained prominence in recent times and are now being discussed in line with some civic republican thoughts. In this study it has to be stated from the outset that the two concepts thus, “Civic Education and Citizenship Education” will be used interchangeably to mean one and the same thing throughout the study. It is true that in some other circles the two are distinctively separated and have different meanings. However, it is not the intention of this study to bring out this distinction; such a task would be left to other scholars who might be interested in future to do studies dealing with the distinction between the two concepts.

Peterson (2011:144) argues that “there is a strong sense in which Civic Education curricular programmes and initiatives in a number of Western democratic nations are influenced by a civic republican agenda”. In other words, Peterson (2011: 146) seems to remind us that in looking at Civic Education one needs to examine it in the context of civic republican political thought which is not an easily definable entity as its principles and ideas which comprise civic republican commitments usually find expression in a range of political writings. This aspect is important in the context of this study as it provides an indication to the readers that there could be some conceptual difficulties in the way Civic Education is defined and understood by different players in the field. This point has to be noted from the outset to avoid some misunderstanding of the concept in the study.

Whilst some proponents, such as Michael Sandel and Philip Pettit, offer sustained republican theories for the contemporary age, others include some elements of republican thought in their work whilst rejecting others. Neither is civic republicanism clearly related to,

nor easily differentiated from, other leading theoretical positions within political science, such as liberalism and communitarianism. This kind of confusion seems also to surround the conception of Civic Education and is clearly a problematic area of study that requires constant interrogation. However, this does not stop and should not stop us from examining the role that the subject could play or plays in creating learners who will be effective citizens in society. I consider effective citizens as those that have a positive mindset and are willing to work towards changing the status quo in their communities. It is from effective citizens that we are able to see change of mindsets and attitudes which are key elements to social change and transformation of society. For this kind of thing to happen it is important that such citizens are exposed to the principles and practices of Civic Education.

This therefore entails that the subject of “Citizenship Education” or “Civic Education” is becoming one of the significant areas of study in the school curricula in different nations and as a matter of fact, the subject is being seen as having the potential to drive social change and transformation in society. It is also important to state here that while Civic Education is becoming one of the significant areas of study in schools, the method of delivery to the learners is equally very important and is a key component in the realisation of the kind of change that we want to see in society. This argument or position is also supported by, Heafer (2008: 1-5) who contends that, “such a programme is pivotal to the development of any society”. Though Heafer does not directly relate to social change and transformation of society but the very mention of development somewhat provides an indication of social change and transformation. I see the two concepts thus social change and transformation as part of development in one way or the other. As such in this study my usage of social change and transformation is loosely connected to the broader context of development. Therefore, the teaching of Civic Education should be seen in the context of bringing about the desired change in society. In this sense, Heafer clearly spells out the very fact that through Citizenship Education individuals are

nurtured; become aware of their culture and other perspectives; are encouraged to be compassionate and empathetic towards the powerless in society; tend to promote justice, tolerance and democratic ideals which are key elements in building transformed communities. From my perspective, I see the issues above as some of the key elements that could come out of Civic Education and propel social change and transformation of society.

Butts (1988:180), has argued that, “an effective democratic citizenship education programme should not only provide learners with the necessary knowledge but also with opportunities for the development of desirable traits of public and private character.” For Butts (1988), the desirable traits includes among other things, “justice, respect for individual worth, fairness, co-operation, persistence, moral responsibility, empathy for others, care, civility, respect for law, civic mindedness and honesty”. Again it can be seen from Butts that there is no mention of social change and transformation of society but that does not mean that in this study we should not use the two concepts simply because they are not mentioned by other scholars or that there are difficult to conceptualize. On the contrary we need to look at them in the broader context in which there are used and their relevance to the study at hand. It is true that the two concepts could be broad and complicated to talk about but should not be avoided. For this reason, I use them in this study to serve as relevant indicators to those who would have been exposed to the principles and practices of Civic Education. Such desirable traits as those contended by Butts(1988) whether of public and private in character if well articulated during teaching and learning of Civic Education have the potential to bring about change of mindsets in the learners and ultimately leading to social change and the transformation of society.

In this study I propose service learning theoretical framework as the basis upon which the delivery of Civic Education in schools could be seen as a vehicle that will lead to social change and transformation of society. Service learning approaches are anchored on reflective

teaching and advocates for the combination of theory and practice to realise meaningful learning. I will discuss more of this learning theoretical framework at a later stage in the study. Otherwise I contend that unless this framework is incorporated in the teaching of Civic Education in schools it is difficult to inculcate in the learners the kind of virtues and values that would serve as indicators for the social change and transformation of society.

Against this background, the study explores the teaching of Civic Education in Zambia by way of examining pedagogical practices and principles or trends in the teaching of the subject in schools that serve as indicators for social change and transformation of society. More specifically the study examines the extent to which the teaching of Civic Education serves to enhance or impede social change and transformation of society. How can the teaching of Civic Education in schools contribute to social change and transformation of society? The main question being addressed in this study is: To what extent is the teaching and learning of Civic Education enhancing and/or impeding social change and transformation of society? Civic Education as a subject has to be approached from a more reflective and critical points of view than mere transfer of knowledge from one level to another. It is only through such approaches that one is able to see how it serves its purpose in social change and transformation of society.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The aims and objectives of Civic Education tend to be influenced by understandings of citizenship itself with special regard given to civic involvement and engagement in the transformation of society. However, this aspect has remained a contested matter. In the past citizenship was chiefly concerned with an individual's relationship to the nation state. Consequently the principal aims of Citizenship Education were to build a common identity and a shared history, and to encourage patriotism and loyalty to the nation. While this was so, this position has since changed and calls for another criteria of examining the core aim of Civic Education.

Colville and Clarcken (1992: 8) reinforces the above statement by stating that, “the effectiveness of Citizenship Education in developing socially responsible citizens [is] dependent upon improving knowledge and abilities.” Such abilities as stated by Colville and Clarcken (1992), involves aspects such as, “clear reasoning, critical thinking, empathy, reflection and decision making.” Additionally, Newmann (1989: 357-366) also states that, “programmes designed to foster civic participation among the students must also include opportunities for them to reflect on community participation”. This is an important argument that needs careful and serious consideration if we are to understand and appreciate the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools. However, despite all these statements advanced by different scholars on Civic Education there seems to be unclear evidence in suggesting the extent to which Civic Education serves as an indicator to social change and/ or the transformation of society.

As such, Davies, Gregory and Riley (as cited by Schoeman 2006:129-142) have argued that, “conclusions reached and recommendations offered based only on opinion and conjecture have little merit especially when such speculation presumes to offer recommendations intended to effect change.” They further contend that, “if research activities are to go beyond mere speculation it is important to have a firm scholarly foundation for conclusions and recommendations”. Accordingly a firm and scholarly foundation is only achievable through empirical research and findings. It is for this reason that this study seeks to address the main research question on the extent to which Civic Education is enhancing and impeding social change and transformation of society.

1.3 Main Research Question

The main research question that is posed in this study is this: to what extent is the teaching of Civic Education serving to enhance and/or impede social change and transformation of society? In addressing this question there are other subsidiary questions that are posed and are stated in the following section:

1.4 Research Questions

- (a) How is the teaching and learning of Civic Education serving as an indicator of social change and/or transformation of society?
- (b) What sort of classroom practices promotes a climate of discussion and engagement among the learners during of Civic Education lessons?
- (c) How are the virtues of civic obligation, civic awareness, civic virtue and civic engagement promoted in Civic Education lessons in schools?
- (d) What sort of pedagogical practices are promoted in Civic Education lessons in schools?
- (e) Are the teaching methods used in Civic Education lessons service learning oriented?
- (f) What challenges are encountered in the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools?

NB: The study examines the above questions by exploring other related questions such as;

1. How does Civic Education influence the learners in schools?
2. How much knowledge do the teachers teaching Civic Education have on the subject?
3. What views do the teachers hold on Civic Education?
4. What role does Civic Education play in fostering positive mindset among the learners in schools?

1.5 Purpose of the study

To ascertain the extent upon which the teaching of Civic Education was serving to enhance and/or impede social change and transformation of society.

1.6 Study Objectives

The study's main objectives were:

- (a) To ascertain the extent to which the teaching of Civic Education was serving to enhance and impede social change and the transformation of society.
- (b) To examine the extent to which classroom practices and a climate of discussion and engagement are promoted in Civic Education lessons.
- (c) To establish how civic obligation, civic awareness, civic virtues and civic engagement is promoted in the teaching and learning of Civic Education.
- (d) To investigate the pedagogical practices promoted in Civic Education lessons.
- (e) To establish if service learning is part of the methods used in Civic Education lessons.
- (f) To assess the influence of Civic Education among the learners in schools
- (g) To assess teachers' knowledge and views with regard to the delivery of Civic Education in schools.
- (h) Examine the challenges met in the teaching and learning of Civic Education

1.7 Motivation for the study

Educational policy makers in this area often operate with many aspirations and motivations but in most cases have little up to date information especially about Civic Education and its role in the transformation of society. As observed by Abdi, Shinzha and Bwalya (2006:57), "Civic Education seems to be gaining ground everywhere and in the case of Zambia more attention is being paid to secondary and tertiary education curricula where the subject has been introduced with different emphasis and intentions". This scenario creates many questions than answers. It is from this premise that there was motivation to conduct a study on how Civic Education is taught and how it is serving as an indicator to social change and transformation of society.

- The study therefore will help Educational policy makers and academicians in addressing this gap by way of creating the possibility of a rigorous data-based approach

to a number of questions in this field with implications for policy and educational practice.

- The study will also show the relevance of the subject in matters of socio-economic development at various levels in the community.
- The study will enhance the levels of knowledge and skills among the learners in schools and the community at large.

1.8 A Scope Definition

The scope definition of Civic Education shall not only be limited to rights and responsibilities but also to include, among other things, the impartation of civic knowledge, civic skills, civic disposition, civic literacy, civic virtues and civic engagement and civic participation. The concepts of Civic Education also known as Citizenship Education in this study have been used interchangeably since the focus in both is on the provision of information and learning experiences to equip the learners with skills required for them to participate in their communities and bring about social change and indeed transformation of society.

1.9 Key Concepts used in the Study

1.9.1 Introduction

This study confines itself to only key concepts that undergird the study at hand. The concepts being used in the study include, among other things, Civic Education also known as Citizenship Education which by and large is used interchangeably throughout the study. There are also other concepts such as civic engagement also known as participation in the context of this study; civic rights and responsibilities; service learning; pedagogical principles and practices; social change; transformation and society.

Civic Education- Civic Education (also known as Citizenship Education or Democratic Education) can be broadly defined, “as the provision of information and learning experiences

to equip and empower citizens to participate in democratic processes”. This education can take very different forms, including classroom-based learning, informal training, experiential learning, and mass media campaigns.

Citizenship Education- Butts (1988:184) asserts that, “Citizenship Education means explicit and continuing study of the basic concepts and values underlying democratic political community and constitutional order”.

Civic Engagement/Participation- This is the notion that embraces the idea of working towards some collective goals of the community to which people belong.

Civic Rights and Responsibilities- Refers broadly to the civic obligations, or duties, involving deeply held bonds with fellow citizens within a shared political community. Civic rights and responsibilities could also refer to, among other things, “ the rights to freedom of expression and to vote and run for public office, and the responsibilities to respect the rule of law and the rights and interests of others”.

Service Learning- refers generally to an educational strategy used in teaching that combines theory and practice.

Pedagogical Practices- refers to the profession, science or theory of teaching.

Social Change- refers to the alteration in patterns of social structure, social institutions, social processes and human behaviour and interaction over time.

Society-refers to an everlasting group of individuals bound together by some common purposes, common values, common frame of references and certain well defined relationships.

Transformation- refers to marked change in purpose, attitudes and human behaviour, values and frame of references and relationships.

Trends- is the general direction in which something is developing or changing or developing over time

1.10 Structure of the Thesis/Dissertation

Chapter One gives the background and introduction to the study. The chapter puts the study into context. Research problem, purpose, questions, objectives, motivation of the study and the scope definition and structure of the thesis/dissertation are described.

Chapter two describes the literature review and this done by way of discussing the following themes: notion of Civic Education; conceptual challenges; working definitions , historical and philosophical background; contemporary emergence of Civic Education; different approaches and models of Civic Education ; teaching of Civic Education as a tool of cultural reproduction; the development of education in Zambia by providing brief historical perspectives on various issues with a focus on Civic Education. In this part I focus on general and teacher education, introduction of Civic Education in Zambian schools, policy issues and challenges in the implementation of Civic Education in schools. The chapter ends with a summary on literature review

Chapter Three discusses service learning as a theoretical framework. The chapter is divided into four parts. The first part deals with definitions regarding service learning. The second part discusses the historical background of service learning in education. The third part discusses service learning as pedagogy in education and fourth part provides the justification of service learning in the teaching of Civic Education in schools. The chapter ends with a summary on service learning.

This chapter four discusses the methodological approach that was taken in the study. This is done by way of presenting the research design, context of the study and sample access and recruitment of participants, description of data collection instruments, reliability and

validity of instruments, pre-test and data collection and analysis procedures. The chapter ends with a summary of data collection and analysis.

Chapter Five presents, discusses and summarises the research findings in the study. The findings are based on key statements revolving around the teaching of Civic Education in schools; relevance of Civic Education in schools; teaching and learning materials in Civic Education; content of Civic Education curriculum; the influence of Civic Education on the learners in schools; the challenges faced by teachers in the teaching of Civic Education in schools; teachers' knowledge on Civic Education; teachers' views regarding the teaching of Civic Education in schools; teachers' self evaluation with respect to Civic Education; the implication of all the results from the key statements alluded to above with respect to the statistical significance, mean and one way analysis between groups and within groups.

Chapter Six presents, the conclusion and recommendations of the entire study and this done by way of providing the purpose and research questions that guided the study at hand. That done, the chapter presents the major findings of the study by way of drawing some broad conclusions based on each of the chapters discussed. The chapter gives also a summary of the theoretical framework with some implications to the study and thereafter ends with the research recommendations.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter I begin by laying out the conceptual issues regarding Civic Education and this range from the actual conceptualisation of the Civic Education to the contemporary emergence of Civic Education across the globe. In this range the chapter more specifically deals with the notion of Civic Education, conceptual challenges, working definitions, historical and philosophical background, contemporary emergence of Civic Education across the globe. The next part addresses the different approaches and models of Civic Education. The third part discusses Civic Education as tool of cultural reproduction through the lenses of Foucault and Bourdieu. The last part discusses the development of education in Zambia by providing brief historical perspectives on various issues with a focus on Civic Education. In this part I focus on general and teacher education, introduction of Civic Education in Zambian schools, policy issues and challenges in the implementation of Civic Education in schools and ends with the chapter conclusion.

2.2 Conceptualizing Civic Education

Defining Civic Education is not something that is easy as there are as several meanings as the concept itself. This is due to the fact that those who have attempted to define it bring to the fore their own perspectives and orientations thereby making it difficult to have a universal definition. In this section, I will try to bring out some of the definitions that are attributed to Civic Education or Citizenship Education.

Evans (2009: 410-435) aptly puts it that, “contemporary conceptions of Citizenship Education reflect a certain level of ambiguity due to various views that have come into play”.

Heater (2004) has also observed that, “dominant views of Citizenship Education thus, the civic republicanism (responsibilities-based) and the liberal (rights-based) seem to offer varied understandings about what it means to educate for citizenship” or what it means when people are referring to Citizenship Education while other perspectives as noted by scholars such as, Davies (1999); Ichilov, (1998); Sears, (1996); Kymlicka, (1995) provide views based on communitarianism, social democratic, multiculturalist, post-national which in the long run further complicate the conceptions of Civic Education in different countries and situations. Despite all the different views that are inherent in the subject, the impressions one gets are that these perspectives provide some conceptual guidance and at the same time seems to indicate some elements of contradictions inherent in terms of conceptual assumptions as will be reflected in the following paragraphs (e.g., individualist vs. collectivist, political rights vs. social rights, local vs. global).

Evans (2009: 410-435) further borrows some ideas from other authors such as Sears et al(1998) and argues that, “there has not been a single conception of democratic citizenship that has formed the basis for Civic Education but rather differing conceptions which exist along a continuum from elitist to activist”. This is a clear testimony that Civic Education is based on different positions whose focus though is meant to bring in the learners the kind of attitudes, dispositions, virtues and values that are required in building up strong and transformed communities. This can also be seen for instance in what has been described by Osborne (2001: 42-43) that, “the notion of education for democratic citizenship should meet the “twelve C’s” and these are reflected under the following short statements or concepts: “(e.g., a focus on the cosmopolitan nature of the world as a whole, thinking critically and creatively, and becoming informed and involved in one’s communities, locally, nationally, and globally)”. From this kind of definition to Civic Education one can see that despite the differing conceptions it can be clearly noted that within such ambiguities of the concept the broader pictures comes out that

it has the ability to make learners think critically and creatively and becoming informed and get involved in the societal needs. This again demonstrates the argument that I am raising on Civic Education that if it is taught along the line of service learning in schools it can serve as an indicator of social change and transformation of society. Society is built from citizens who get involved and not those who watch from a distance the happenings in their communities.

Additionally, Strong-Boag (1996), also forefronts some conceptions on Citizenship Education based on what has been described as, “the pluralist and inclusive dimensions of citizenship” and laments that a variety of groups (e.g., feminists, First Nations peoples, working class groups) in Canada have largely been ignored in conversations about Citizenship in Education. These views and many other views are a clear demonstration that Citizenship Education takes different positions in terms of conceptualisation. This is also an indication that Civic Education is not as straightforward as people would want to believe. It takes different positions in most of the countries around the globe and Zambia is no exception. Problematic as it maybe, one thing that comes out clearly from the opinions and conjectures of the citizens in different countries is that it has the potential to address the needs of society at various levels.

Other scholars such as Ross (2001), Osler (2000) and Lister (1998) have made similar observations with regard to the definition of Civic Education. They seem to have gone further in their exploration with regard to the concept of Citizenship Education by emphasising that, “it is a subject that deals with knowledge about government structures and processes”. This kind of explanation supports the notion that Civic Education is only seen in the context of providing knowledge about government structures and processes and this in itself does not make the learners critical and creative. This unfortunately happens to the gap that is there in most

schools regarding the approaches that teachers take when there are delivering the subject in schools.

Heater (1990, 2000) refers to Citizenship Education as, “a globally relevant framework that encourages consideration of a universal expression of the citizenship principle and respects diverse historical traditions and contexts”. Heater’s (1990) “Cube of Citizenship” includes three dimensions: “elements”, “location”, and “education”. Equally, McLaughlin (1992:37) in trying to conceptualize Civic Education seems to be taking the same way as Heater has done. McLaughlin agrees with Heater that, “Civic Education is complex and contested nature within the context of a diverse, pluralistic, democratic society”. In particular, Mclaughlin(1992), points to the challenge that societies face in seeking to balance elements of social and cultural diversity with those of cohesion, an aspiration which invokes (among other things) a familiar distinction between ‘public’ and ‘private’ values and domains.

Going by what Heater and Macluaghlin have stated, the subject of Civic Education is undoubtedly clear full of conceptual difficulties which require some good understanding from those that are in the field. This means also that even in teaching such a subject in schools it may not be an easy task. As such those charged with the responsibility of teaching Civic Education will need to think of other methods and approaches equal to the subject. I argue from this perspective that the use of service learning becomes relevant and a good approach that could promote an engagement of theory and practice among the learners. I see this as the gap that needs to be filled by the practitioners of Civic Education so that when it is taught to the learners in schools they could acquire relevant skills and knowledge that will be required in the society for social change and transformation.

Riutta (2007:21-37), contends that, “the study of Civic Education has evolved both in scope and value that scholars place upon it”. This evolution in scope and value creates situations that make the subject complex and at the same time subject to too many interpretations at various levels in not only in education circles but also among the ordinary members of society. This kind of situation needs to be elaborated clearly so that learners in schools do not end up confused with what there are learning or learn and fail to link the ideas to the well being of society.

To support the argument above scholars such as, Linsley and Rayment, 2004; Potter, (2002); Halstead & Pike (2006) are agreeable on the concept of Civic Education that, “though integral to the Citizenship curriculum in schools, is itself a complex one”. Crick (1998) contend that, “Citizenship Education is all about active citizens who try to change unjust laws, to democratise voluntary bodies, even [to participate in] the occasional demo and aggressive non-violent protest”. This means that Civic Education if well followed could serve as a platform leading to social change and transformation of society.

The Eurydice Report of 2012 observes that, “Civic Education has come to be seen as a subject that encourages citizens, particularly young people, to actively engage in social and political life. In this report Citizenship Education has been viewed as, “aspects of education at school level that prepare students to become active citizens by ensuring that they have the necessary knowledge, skills and attitudes to contribute to the development and well-being of the society in which they live”. However, the challenge here is that this report does explain how the students are going to be prepared or how Civic Education does contribute to the development of the well-being of society. This seems to be the gap that needs to be addressed in this study. It is not enough to assert that Civic Education prepares students to become knowledgeable, skilful and have good values when the process leading to the attainment of

such virtues, knowledge and good values is not clearly spelt out. It is at this stage that service learning framework becomes relevant and appropriate in dealing with aspects of education that prepare students to become useful members of society.

In fact, a close examination of the definition given in the report seems to offer some practical experiences that to be gained through school life and communities. This implies that the subject cannot be confined only to the classroom but has to be learnt by way of exposing the learners to real life situation. This as a matter of fact resonates well with service learning approaches. In this sense, service learning as a framework provides the guiding principles upon which Civic Education could be effectively delivered in schools to the learners. With such an approach it becomes easier for the learners to acquire information and skills based on experience and from that experience they would be able to use it to reflect upon it to participate in bringing about social change in society.

Kerr (1999:2), asserts that, "...Citizenship Education is construed broadly to encompass the preparation of young people for their roles and responsibilities as citizens and, in particular, the role of education (through schooling, teaching and learning) in that preparatory process". This means that Civic Education as a subject prepare learners to become responsible citizens in their respective homes, community and society as whole. What Kerr does not tell us is how this process is to be achieved by the schools? Or through teaching and learning. This again reflects a gap in the way different scholars tend to see Civic Education's contribution to the needs of the learners. With this in mind, the main research question being posed in the study is valid to the extent of examining how Civic Education serves as an indicator of social change and transformation of society. How does the teaching of Civic Education enhance or impede the process of social change and transformation in society? In addressing this question I propose that service learning framework need to be considered if learners are to be seen agents of social

change and transformation of society. The knowledge, skills, values and disposition acquired from Civic Education have the influence on learners and it is through this influence that I see Civic Education serving a vehicle to bring about change of thinking not only among the learners but also with the teachers.

According to A C A R A (2012:2), “Civics and Citizenship Education is uniquely positioned to provide opportunities for young people to become active and informed citizens”. The ACARA document presents exciting and challenging opportunities for school authorities, schools and teachers to prepare students for adult citizenship, both as part of the formal school curriculum and as part of a wider whole-school programme. The last statement depicts an element of service learning in that it does emphasise aspects of giving learners opportunities to become active and informed citizens. Only when citizens are informed and take part in community activities can social change and transformation of society occur. Therefore, I argue that teaching of Civic Education in schools must be anchored on service learning framework and through that we shall see different results in our learners leading to positive behaviours, enhanced interaction with the community and willingness to offer solutions to challenging opportunities. The justification of service learning as a framework in the teaching of Civic Education in schools is discussed in detail in chapter three of this study.

Further it has also been observed in the A C A R A document of 2012 that, “Citizenship Education is seen as a subject that supplies a set of skills to the learners which enables them to be active and engaged as well as informed and become critical participants in their multiple communities.” Hence, argument is that Civic Education involves inquiring and investigating of information and ideas using relevant research skills. In other words, it provides possibilities among the learners to develop capacities that will be required to transform communities around them. It is not enough just to supply a set of skills to the learners but that the learners must get engaged in what is going in the community and be part of the solutions to the many problems

faced by these communities. That way the teaching of Civic Education will be seen to be relevant to the needs of society as a whole.

Furthermore, ACARA (2012) reports seem to be providing a solid foundation on the relevance of Civic Education in schools. “Civic Education is a subject that builds capacity in the learners to begin to evaluate a position or some decisions, taking positions and defending a position, distinguishing a statement of fact from an opinion; interpreting and critiquing media messages, including the interests and value systems that are involved; monitoring policies and decisions; synthesizing research data; understanding and coping with ambiguity”. As such, Civic Education involves displaying interest and skill in decision-making, solving problems and resolving conflict resolution through collaboration and demonstrating intercultural competence. Further, Civic Education as noted in the ACARA document involves among other things presenting ideas in oral and written form; critical reading, debating, writing and listening; applying empathic and social skills. It is these skills that serve as indicators of social change and transformation of society. This kind of approach reflects service learning approaches but unfortunately does not feature prominently in Zambian schools during lessons as learners are just drilled to pass the examinations without necessarily learning beyond the examinations. Civic Education is better taught and learnt through inquiry process and this is also an important component of criticality.

ACARA (2012) also suggests that, “the concept of Civic Education is also seen as one which allows the learners to apply ethical principles in collaborating, sharing and acting with social responsibility”. By so doing the ACARA documents asserts that the identification of values and rights (based on agreed principles) promoted by groups such as peers, local community groups, corporations and governments makes the concept of Civic Education not easily definable. As such, one gets the impression that the exploration of ethical issues, the notion of the common good and the place of national values and human rights gives further

manifestation of how complex nature of Civic Education could be. However, Kanaev (2000: 17), contend that, “Civic Education is closely linked to the developments of the society in general and therefore subject to constant changes.” This means that, Civic Education as a subject is mainly concerned with the development of society and always alive to the demands of a changing society. Kanaev (2000), seems to suggest that Civic Education, is linked to and connected to society. This way of looking at and conceptualizing Civic Education is in total agreement with the focus of the study in which I argue that the teaching of Civic Education has the capacity to bring about social change and transform society. This is an interesting aspect from Kanaev though other studies still contend that Civic Education in some places has been disappointing. For example Ruita (2007) has noted that Civic Education in Zambia and Guatemala have had poor results. One would speculate that probably it is as a result of not teaching it according to service learning framework. However, it is also not correct to base such speculation without evidence based research. With this study one hopes to get the actual position on the ground regarding the teaching of Civic Education in schools and how it serves to bring about social change and transform society and also how the teachers of Civic Education in schools teach the subject to the learners.

Breslin, Rowe and Thornton (2006:2) in trying to understand the concept of Citizenship Education start by examining the concept of Citizenship. In their submissions, they have looked at citizenship as, “something that makes people effective individuals in their communities and in broader society around issues relating to the public domain.” Additionally, for Breslin, Rowe and Thornton(2006), “ ... Citizenship Education appears to be based around participation and ‘process’ rather than a narrower concept that only is meant to refer to an individual’s legal status in terms of, for instance, nationality”. This is clearly in line with the scope of this study which is looking at the broad view of the teaching and learning of Citizenship Education in schools though there is no mention of the pedagogical practices that

allows such a situation where the learners are provided with opportunities to participate and become effective members in the broader society. This poses a gap and reflects the problem that is being investigated in the study.

The knowledge, skills, values and dispositions acquired from the interaction with Civic Education curriculum makes learners confident in applying themselves so that the functioning of communities and social groups is sustained and later on transformed. While I agree with the position taken by Breslin, Rowe and Thornton (2006) on Civic Education such a position statement needs to be supported by evidence based research and may not be true in the absence of research to understand how knowledge, skills, values and dispositions are acquired from Civic Education. In this context, I see the intentions of this study as addressing this problem so that we are certain that Civic Education is able to enhance social change and transformation of society based on what would have been established through the study or we would argue that there is nothing to show that Civic Education is related to social change and ultimately does not lead to the transformation of society. However, the point those citizenship skills could make learners investigative, communicative, and participative and take responsible actions for now could only be treated as mere speculation and conjectures until we are able to prove through this study. This does not take away from the subject that Civic Education is an important subject that provide learners with opportunities in which there are able to exercise their skills, knowledge and are able to engage, communicate, investigate and participate in their communities. This kind of situation has the potential to enhance the capacity of the learners to engage effectively with their communities and in the long run create the sort of changes that would be required for democratic societies. In this situation Civic Education can be described as a subject that promotes active engagement of the learners in society.

Accordingly, the Primary Review submission on the Citizenship Foundation (2007: 5) asserts that, “the concept of Citizenship Education is being described in the context of the subject that has the capacity for building links between home, school, and the community in which they are situated”. Clearly from this statement one is able to connect how Citizenship Education can serve as an indicator in the transformation processes of society at various levels. In fact the above definition is consistent with the learning framework of service learning which I am proposing in this study as a pedagogical practice that makes the teaching of Civic Education effective and also providing in the learners knowledge, skills, virtue and dispositions necessary to bring about social change and eventually transform society. The submission from the Primary Review underscores the relevance of service learning in the teaching and learning of Citizenship Education. Furthermore, the Primary Review on Citizenship Education (2007) contends that, “since parents and their children belong to the same neighbourhood, national and global communities, Citizenship Education can promote meaningful intergenerational activities”. This means that the role of Civic Education is primarily meant to help the learners or children in schools to learn how they can participate in projects aimed at making a difference in their community and eventually make themselves active members of society. This kind of an approach if followed and adopted in schools and especially during Civic Education lessons would over and above create opportunities in which transformation of society can be realised.

While this study makes some attempts in trying to discuss various definitions with regard to Civic Education it is also important that some space is provided in discussing the conceptual challenges surrounding the subject. This is important because it will provide some roadmap in the manner the subject must be treated by the players in the field and also how the teachers in the schools should approach when teaching the learners. This means also that it will

help the teachers in schools to apply appropriate pedagogical practices that will achieve the broad aims of education.

2.3 Conceptual Challenges in Civic Education

In spite of the many positive attributes given to Civic Education with regard to its capacity in providing knowledge, skills, values and dispositions to the learners it is without some conceptual challenges which require some discussion in this study. Admittedly, I am aware of the fact that there are many but will endeavour to discuss some from many available. This is meant to not lose focus on the issues that the study is attempting to address.

Torney-Purta and Amadeo (2004:4-5), have observed that, “Civic Education has been identified as one subject area which has the potential to promote citizenship and democracy and this could explain the reasons behind the renewed interest world over.” However, what does not come out clearly is how it does promote citizenship and democracy. We need to understand the meaning of such a statement that identifies the subject with citizenship and democracy because the two concepts are value-laden. To suggest the way that these concepts are conceived leads to further conceptual difficulties to the subject of Civic Education.

The ACARA Report of (2012) has noted that Civic Education as a subject provides young people with, “the confidence, knowledge, understanding and skills to develop their civic identity, live as citizens in their local and wider communities and create a future that will enhance society”. Such an understanding of Civic Education sounds interesting in that it attempts to show how Civic Education is closely linked to both the local and wider

communities. It also shows the aspect of service learning upon it especially when it comes to providing opportunities for students to explore local, national, regional and global issues and priorities that link to a broad cross-section of societal needs. As such, it would appear that Civic Education is characterised by students engaging with and creating solutions for authentic situations and issues. Such type of Civic Education provides the students with situations where they can be allowed to explore scenarios, generate and develop ideas, research and experiment, and engage in problem-solving using their knowledge, skills and understanding of values related to Civic Education. What is not clear is whether this kind of approach is grounded among those that are supposed to teach Civic Education in schools. The problem here is in the manner the concepts is explained and may not be understood in a similar fashion elsewhere and even the application of the concepts in the teaching process might be differently applied.

Niemi and Junn's (1998) study of the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) provide different results on the understanding of Civic Education (Finkel & Ernst, 2005). This is also true with other studies that have equally noted the new understanding about the value of Civic Education by giving a widened scope including those on developing and transitional countries including Zambia, Guatemala, Kyrgyzstan, Bosnia-Herzegovina, Dominican Republic, South Africa, Poland, Mexico and Senegal (Finkel & Ernst, 2005; Kuenzi, 2005; Levinson, 2004; Blair, 2003; Finkel, 2003; Soule, 2003; Finkel, 2002; USAID, Soule, 2002; Kanaev, 2000; Soule, 2000; Bratton et al, 1999; Carothers, 1999). This clearly shows the conceptual difficulties in the manner the concept is understood by different scholars and other people who may be interested in its principles and practices. With this mind it means therefore that teaching Civic Education in schools should not have to degenerate into a situation of one size fits all but the context has to be taken into account. Otherwise it would be difficult to teach it in the schools using traditional methods or approaches.

Peterson (2011:32) also gives another way of understanding the ideas related to Civic Education by way of looking at citizenship. He begins by stating that present-day ideas of citizenship do not stand in isolation from their historical roots and origins. Rather, he contends that their original meaning should be contextualised in the origins of the recent civic republican thought which lie in an extensive and, at times, heterogeneous list of political and moral philosophers, writers and political activists. He has further stated that a civic republican 'tradition' has been identified as running throughout the history of Western political thought by a number of republican scholars since the latter half of the last century and this can also be attested to the writings of many scholars in this area (Held, 1997, 1996; Honohan, 2002; Oldfield, 1990a; 1996; Pettit, 1999; Pocock, 1975; Rahe, 1992; Skinner, 2002, 1998, 1990a, 1990b). This again gives some conceptual difficulties and it is a challenge to try to figure out what Peterson is trying to communicate but this all done in the name of defining Civic Education.

McCowan (2009:3-9) looks at Civic Education by way of giving an elaborate picture about it. He describes the whole concept of citizenship in many ways. He starts by stating that Citizenship, at base, refers to membership of a state or political unit. While it was originally associated with city-states (from which the word is derived – civis in Latin being the resident of a city), he argues that it is now almost exclusively used for belonging to a nation-state though he is quick to point out that citizenship as a term can be or is used in two distinct ways: One way could be referring to an official status of belonging to a certain country and the other one has to do with the fulfilment of certain expectations associated with membership. As can be seen from what McCowan is trying to discuss, the concept of Civic Education is proving to be problematic and contestable. In fact he argues that the normative nature of the subject is highly complex and he further explains that it is no wonder that in most cases the concept is attacked due to what he calls the ideological stance, with its endorsement of notions such as

human rights, peace and sustainable development (McCowan, 2009:20-23). From the above arguments it is very clear to note that defining Civic Education is not as easy as people would want believe as it takes so many dimensions and unless such dimensions are addressed the meaning will always remain contestable.

Equally, Crick (1999:2-3) in his writings has discussed many issues surrounding citizenship and Civic Education as way of wanting to understand its true nature and scope. For instance, he states that, “citizenship has significantly different meanings and that it has no 'essential' or universally true meaning, but one can attempt with some reasonable understanding of the main usages of the term in our society and the great moral force behind what has come down to us historically”. This means that at the moment and even in future, it would still be difficult to craft the universally accepted meaning of Civic Education due to different competing and compelling needs inherent in the community. Nevertheless, it is interesting to note Crick attempts to offer some working definition that includes contested positions and of which are based on the report of 1990 of the Commission on Citizenship appointed by the then Speaker of the House of Commons, Encouraging Citizenship, adopted and adapted the ideas of T. H. Marshall in his book entitled Citizenship. (Marshall, 1950), gave as a starting point the understanding of citizenship. Crick (1999), reports therefore that Marshall had raised three elements about citizenship to imply among others: the civil, the political and the social. According to Marshall (1950), he expounded the three aspects of citizenship to train learners to appreciate rights as necessary conditions for individual freedoms, right to participate in the exercise of political power and also the right to enjoy and live life of a civilised being and according to the standards of a transformed society. This is another testimony showing the conceptual difficulties in Civic Education.

While I have made an attempt in trying to discuss the conceptual difficulties in Civic Education it is also important that some stipulation is made with regard to the sort of definition or definitions that will be used in this study without losing the focus of the whole study in the process. Since my focus is mainly on the extent to which Civic Education serves to enhance or impede social change and transformation of society. However those definitions built around service learning framework implicitly or explicitly will be used as my working definitions to achieve the objectives of the study. In this connection I will draw from the works of scholars whose definitions are focusing on the type of Civic Education that provides opportunities for the learners to acquire knowledge and skills necessary for building in them a cadre of citizens that will work towards improving society in many ways and many areas.

2.4 Working definitions regarding the Concept of Civic Education

While it is recognised that there are many interpretations linked and connected to the concept of Civic Education, the use of those that focus on service learning cannot be over-emphasised. According to Halstead and Pike (2006: 34), “Citizenship Education may be narrowly or broadly conceived”. In its narrowest sense, Citizenship Education implies producing ‘citizens capable of taking part in the electoral process, whereas in the broadest sense, Citizenship Education as a subject creates citizens who share in a common social endeavour. The narrow conception is education about citizenship, which is designed to produce informed or politically literate citizens. The broader conception is education for citizenship; in other words, education which is intended to produce active citizens with a commitment to certain public values and practices. This view of Civic Education fits well with the focus of the study and it is this kind of education which has the potential to the change or transforms society at various levels.

For this reason, Halstead and Pike (2006), contend that Citizenship Education includes not only political literacy but also moral and social responsibility and community involvement. This statement is in total agreement with the principles of service learning whose aim is to bridge the gap between theory and practice. As such in this study the focus is to understand the pedagogical practices that make Civic Education impactful in the community. This has to be demonstrated from the actions of the learners in society. What seems to come out from Halstead and Pike is that they explain the kind of Civic Education which is able to produce autonomous, critically reflective citizens who participate not only in the political debates and discussions but also work towards addressing the concerns of the community and actively work for change or towards the transformation of society.

Another definition that I consider to be relevant to this study is the one given by Gholtash and Mahammadjani (2011: 1-2) who state that “Citizenship Education is a field, considered quite significant in most country’s educational programs, and has become a profound research area during recent decades”. They look at it as a subject which provides opportunities for students’ involvement in tangible experiences so as to facilitate their development as active, committed, social and political individuals. The teaching of Civic Education should indeed get the learners involved in the process of learning so that there are able to relate theory and practice correctly. This is in line with the principles of service learning. It is also important to note that Civic Education has become a compulsory subject in Zambian schools going by contents of new Zambian curriculum framework of 2013 (M.o.E 2013). This means that indeed the subject has become a significant research area which has to be taken as such.

Another definition worth considering in this study as a working definition in understanding Civic Education is that given by Danhrendorf (2012) where he contends that Civic Education a subject provides information to the learners required to transform society. In

other words, Dahrendorf (2012) argues that for society to get transformed there will be need for people to be open minded. It is difficult for people to change if there are not open minded to various issues and it is for this reason that Civic Education could be seen as serving the purpose of creating social change leading to transformed society. Since society is not static but always changing it will always require citizens who have knowledge, skills, values and disposition to live with what a transformed society requires. It is only through citizens with a civic mind that society will be strengthened and transformed. No wonder Print and Lange (2012: 7-18) report that, “Civic Education at school is a pre-requisite for promoting the student’s democratic competence, which is formative, learning-oriented and which enhances their decision-making skills and other areas of responsibility in the community”. This kind of Civic Education is anchored on service learning in that it supports the learners not only in getting knowledge and skills but also creating in them opportunities where they could participate in the well- being of society. It is this kind of Civic Education which could serve as an indicator of social change and transformation society.

In the writing of Doganay (2012: 19-40), “Citizenship Education must comprise not only knowledge, values and skills, but it must also comprise application of those knowledge, values and skills in real life situation by active participating in them”. This is equally supported by Naval, Print and Veldhuis (2002) and Birzea (2000) who contend that, “Citizenship Education should aim at developing students’ capability for thoughtful and responsible participation as democratic citizens in political, economic, social and cultural life”. Additionally, Birzea (2000:18) seems also to support the earlier statement but goes further in stating that, “education for democratic citizenship is the set of practices and activities aimed at making young people and adults better equipped to participate actively in democratic life by assuming and exercising their rights and responsibilities in society”. It is through such

approaches that Citizenship Education be seen to impacting on positively to the well being of society.

Beutel (in Print & Lange, 2012: 7-18) states that, “Civic Education is and will always be a necessary charge in schools”. This implies that Civic Education is an important subject which must be promoted in the school system. If it is seen as an important charge in schools then one would argue that probably it is because of its potential to create spaces of engagement among the learners by making them critical and open minded. This is in total agreement with what has already been stated in the previous paragraphs. That being the case, my argument that Civic Education if well taught and especially using service learning framework in schools will serve to bring about social change and transformation in society.

According to the Citizenship Foundation (2006:3), “introduction of Citizenship Education to the secondary school curriculum in 2002 in England was a long overdue but vital step”. This position was also acknowledged and agreed on by Denis Lawton, a respected educational academic who argued that the introduction of Citizenship Education came as an outstanding innovation in educational policy over the past decade. Although the practice is still developing, this study sees this area as critical in social change and the transformation of society. Clearly from the above thoughts one gets the sense that the introduction of Citizenship Education in the schools in England was seen as the right move in the direction of education innovation and policy imperative aimed at addressing the many challenges of society. In short, it would appear that Citizenship Education as a subject was seen in the context of providing opportunities to learners to engage and get involved in matters of social change and transformation of society.

Banks (in Tuomi, Jacott & Lundgren, 2008:7), uses a linked concept of Multicultural Citizenship Education to imply Civic Education which can make the students to learn how to act to change the world or what this study is calling transformation of society. Additionally, the arguments of Banks are such that citizens need knowledge, attitudes and skills if there are to function in their ethnic and cultural communities and beyond their cultural borders. The functionality of these students in society will have to be supported by programme like Civic Education promotes and creates possibilities in a number of ways for the learners to engage in the construction of a national civic culture that is a moral and just community that embodies democratic ideals and values such as those embodied in the Universal Declaration of Human Rights. Clearly from such a statement one sees the component of service learning and also the relevance of Civic Education in schools and how it can act to bring about the transformation of society. In other words, Civic Education as a subject can make people act in a manner that can bring about change of society and this change permeates all areas of human endeavour.

Other scholars did point out that research on Citizenship and Citizenship Education in the recent past had been directed towards the development of conceptual frameworks that infused new and expanded understandings of what it meant to be a citizen. For this purpose, Sears (1967:7) analysed Citizenship Education based on an elitist to activist position by comparing themes of government but at the same time trying to relate with knowledge, values and skills of the citizens and how there are supposed to participate in the affairs of the community and the nation at large.

Having attempted to discuss some working definitions in trying to understand how Civic Education contributes to social change and transformation of society, it is important to indicate at this stage that what has been given is not exhaustive as they could be other definitions that could be worth considering in future by other researchers who will conducting

a similar study. In the next section I give the history of its practice and also discuss the contemporary emergence of this movement.

2.5 Historical and Philosophical Background of Civic Education

The historical and philosophical background of Civic Education would not be discussed fully without examining the subject of citizenship. Citizenship, as a social construct, is very much linked to the emergence of the Civic Education in most of the countries around the world and in this study it would not be correct to ignore this aspect even as we try to establish the history and the philosophical perspectives underpinning Civic Education. The discourse on citizenship has been very much on the agenda of education systems in many democracies. Whether influenced primarily by fears of the young's disengagement with political processes, as in England and Wales, or by concerns about social cohesion in multicultural societies, as in South Africa's commitment to nation building (Jackson, 2003:1-26).

Citizenship Education has emerged, either as a curriculum subject in its own right or as a dimension of the wider school curriculum. In those societies where the term 'citizenship' (or its equivalent) is not used, other elements are or have been emphasized such as democratic values, virtues and political literacy, or Civic Education as the case maybe with the Zambian scenario. An important element of the citizenship debate has always raised concerns on various issues and there has been some debate on how these issues would be addressed. Its primary meaning, 'citizenship' has always been seen in the context of membership of a political society, involving the possession of legal rights, usually including the rights to vote and stand for political office. For many centuries citizenship was a privileged status given only to those fulfilling certain conditions such as owning property. However, in modern states, citizens' rights have been a new position usually considered to be an important aspect of nationality,

usually granted automatically to all those born in a particular country as well as to others in certain circumstances, such as permanent settlers. In this sense, citizenship could indeed be described as a distinctively democratic ideal which embodies various public values and virtues.

Citizens, in contrast to subjects, have legal protection against arbitrary decisions by their governments. At the same time they have the opportunity to play an active role in influencing government policy. Whereas Aristotle considered citizenship (*politeia*) primarily in terms of duties, citizenship, in modern liberal thinking, has tended to be viewed more in terms of rights—citizens have the right to participate in public life, but also the right to put their private commitments before political involvement or better still the common good agenda. Many commentators, even including those writing from a communitarian perspective (e.g. Etzioni in Jackson, 2003) have argued and continue to argue that citizenship should involve a balance between rights and duties, usually with the latter resulting from a feeling of responsibility and belonging, rather than compulsion.

In Marshall's (1950) often cited discussion, "citizenship is a status related specifically to the nation-state, which confers civil rights, political rights and social rights". These rights are seen to be addressing the concerns of the citizens at various levels. In case of civil rights address rights that deal with personal liberty, freedom of speech, association, religious toleration and freedom from censorship; Political rights address the right to participate in political processes, while social rights address the right of access to social benefits and resources such as education, economic security and welfare state services (Marshall, in Jackson, 2003: 1-26). Clearly from the above statements on citizenship, one gets the impression that a lot of issues have emerged in this field which have also an implication on Civic Education as will be seen in the following discussion where Derek Heater is providing some elaborate explanation on the emergence of Civic Education. He starts by giving what he

has termed as foundations and variations to the emergence of Civic Education and this is based on the classical origins.

Heater (2004: 1-25), states that Education for citizenship or what we are now calling Civic Education emerged in Greece during the Archaic Age (776–479 BC) and flourished in the following Classical Age, during which time it was the subject of some distinguished thinking. Both the pedagogical and literary activities were said to be occasioned by the development of the status of citizenship: Individuals needed to learn how to act in that capacity. By the eighth century the typical Greek socio-political entity was no longer the kingdom or tribe, it was the polis. The polis or city-states as it was called Sparta, Corinth, Thebes, for example – was a micro-state by today's standards. Even the demographically bloated and democratically governed Athens at its apogee contained, during its very brief maximum, probably only about 50,000 members of citizen families, though to this number must be added resident foreigners and slaves.

In this situation one would see that citizens were required to take part in the affairs of their states though some had to work for the others. In fact, as alluded to earlier the citizens were required to learn how to act and work an indication that service learning framework was somewhat emphasised. The polis, according to Heater (2004), was a compact community dominated by a relatively small and ethnically cohesive group, for whom outsiders – the foreigners and slaves – undertook vital work. As a consequence, the dominant group enjoyed the privileges of relative wealth and leisure to participate in the government of the polis, to be, in short, citizens.

But behind this opportunity to be citizens lay two other determining factors and according to Heater one was commitment to the well-being of the polis, including the

willingness and desire to be involved in public affairs, which in themselves contained both a negative and a positive element. The negative was a hatred of an autocratic rule disrespectful of law. 'Arbitrary government,' it has been said, 'offended the Greek in his very soul' (Kitto in Heater, 2004). The positive element, the origins of which may be detected in the heroic era portrayed by Homer, was the habit of gathering to discuss the community's affairs, indicative of a deeply felt civic interest. The second determining factor was a product of the Greek capacity for abstract thought.

The object of the citizen's political allegiance was no longer the chieftain, lord or king, but a conceptual entity, the state. The citizen was in fact, in the common phrase, an individual able 'to have a share in the polity' (Hornblower & Spaworth 1998: 152). Though the precise range of that share depended on the constitutional mode of the state, whether oligarchy or democracy. It would be argued from the thinking of the Greeks that despite their shortcomings in other aspects of their system they still saw the need for the people in their city states to get involved in the welfare of their communities. Probably they saw that it was only through such involvement that social change and transformation would be realised. It would be argued undoubtedly that from such a position one is able to see the kind of role that could play in society. From the Greek perspectives, it is clear to note that Civic Education was centred on the issues of participation or what I propose in this study service learning framework. As will be seen in chapter three service learning's emphasis is mainly getting the learners to practice what they learn and it is participation if one was to put it in another way.

However, from the Roman perspective Civic Education was about the ownership of legal rights and participation of the citizens in local affairs was not emphasised. As such what could be clearly stated here is that there was fundamental dissimilarity between the Greek and Roman notions of citizenship. The essence of Greek citizenship was participation while that of

Roman citizenship was the ownership of legal rights and that the principle of involvement in public affairs was by no means absent from the meaning of the Roman citizenship, but social and geographical realities placed very severe limitations on the practice. In this sense, it is very clear to note that there were variations in the forms of Civic Education that were devised at the time and each of the two groups had their own way of looking at issues revolving around the subject of Civic Education. This kind of picture on the subject of Civic Education appears to be consistent with what has been discussed under the conceptual challenges inherent in Civic Education. This should however, not be seen as weak argument regarding the significance of Civic Education in addressing issues of social change and transformation in society. Civic Education still plays a significant role in building capacities and abilities in learners so that they become effective members of society who will be able to drive social change and transformation of society. This is only possible in the context of service learning framework and it is this case that the study is building upon. This is also the gap that has to be filled up in schools where Civic Education is taught. Unless teachers of Civic Education are grounded in service learning framework, it is difficult to see Civic Education serving as indicator of social Change and transformation of society. The only way it can be brought out to bear its correct responsibility upon the learners is through the application of service learning framework during lessons. That way, it will be seen to be contributing to the learner's abilities and capacities of engaging in local activities and other engagements required of them in society. It should not just be a matter of teaching for the sake of providing knowledge and skills to the learners. Apparently one would argue that the current styles of teaching Civic Education schools does not conform to service learning framework and that way it is difficult for society to appreciate the relevance of the subject in totality hence the gap.

In the next section an attempt is also made to show the different ways in which other people looked at Civic Education and the focus here will be on the perspectives of Plato and

Aristotle. In different ways, Plato and Aristotle are said to have put their minds to this matter, each reflecting his own judgement about Civic Education.

2.5.1 Plato and Aristotle on Civic Education

Although theorizing about politics or education can rarely shake it free of the social and intellectual environment in which the philosopher works, the theorist can produce ideas and proposals that are not confined tightly by practical considerations – indeed, that is the very function of the theorist. The contributions of Plato and Aristotle to the thinking about Citizenship Education can therefore be appreciated only by taking into account both the influences of the time and place when they were working and the value of their ideas that may be judged to be perennial. Heater (2004:1-25) states that Plato's way of looking at Citizenship Education was mostly centred around the Republic and Laws and the Republic was more concerned with the advanced education of an elite, the Laws more with elementary courses for the generality of citizens. Indeed, he had a qualified admiration for the Spartan system of education. In his own works he is said to have adopted the state provision of education and the institution of common messes, while yet regretting the over-emphasis of cultivating courage and military skills at the expense of fostering temperance and training the intellect (Plato in Heater, 2004).

Plato's educational philosophy was grounded in the belief that the proper purpose of *paideia* (education of the whole person) was to develop the mind and character of the individual, not to make the individual an athlete or a businessman, as such, Plato, in line with the pre-Cynic tradition, took it as axiomatic that human development could take place only within the political framework of a polis. Consequently, humane and Citizenship Education were, or rather needed to be linked symbiotically by Citizenship Education. A clear reflection of what this study is focusing on. The teaching of Civic Education in schools needed to develop

the mind and also the character of the citizens so that they would be able to perform their role of transforming society at different levels. Further, Plato argued and indicated that any training which had its end with wealth, or perhaps bodily strength, or some other accomplishment unattended by intelligence and righteousness, it [i.e. his argument] needed to be counted as vulgar, illiberal, and wholly unworthy to be called education. In contrast, he described true education as, “that schooling from boyhood in goodness which inspired the recipient with passionate and ardent desire to become a perfect citizen, knowing both how to wield and how to submit to righteous rule”. It was education that was meant to build the character of the citizens so that they are grounded in all matters that required their involvement in matters of public policy in the community.

Accordingly, the citizen who rules must be educated to be wisely just and to rule lawfully, and the citizen who is ruled must be educated to accept that what he wants is what is lawful; that is, his behaviour must become virtuous. However, as Socrates declared, virtue cannot be taught. Plato’s solution was to argue that goodness was derived from an understanding of ultimate truth, and that truth could be discerned from the teachings of the Sophists. This was only possible by a very lengthy and carefully programmed student life devoted to the pursuit of knowledge and understanding and the cultivation of the faculty of reason.

While Plato was innovative in providing for a state educator in his hypothetical constitution, some of the content of his educational programme borrowed ideas from actual Greek practice, particularly Athens and Sparta. It ought to be stated here that this study has some limitation in addressing all the issues that Plato raised in the area of Civic Education especially in classical times since that requires another study to squarely deal with those issues and aspects and at this stage we need also to bring out the thoughts of Aristotle on the

emergence of Citizenship Education. Aristotle shared his teacher's enthusiasm for 'common tables' (Aristotle in Heater, 2004) and, indeed, for many others of his recommendations, notably the state provision of education. He believed that education needed to make citizens virtuous because virtue was a pre-condition of happiness; but the individual's natural proclivity to virtue must be supplemented by the cultivation of good habits and reasoning power; that was supposed to be given by education.

What, then, are the implications of the co-existence of Aristotle's twin guiding principles for citizenship education, namely, to suit the constitution and to foster virtue? A modern authority according to him needed to provide some education which was supposed to form the characters of citizens and also help in preparing and encouraging individuals to actualize their human potential. In short, he saw that education was supposed to make persons at once excellent citizens, excellent human beings and excellent individuals (Swanson, 1992: 144-5). He also argued that education of the habits needed to be pursued through supervising children's moral behaviour and teaching some form of gymnastics and 'music'. The latter according to him was vital for the cultivation and maintenance of good citizenship from puberty to mature adulthood; because performing or listening to the various rhythms and harmonic modes will evoke the various qualities of civic virtue (Aristotle as cited by Heater, 2004).

Without such free time, a thorough, extended, state-provided education for citizenship would not be possible. The alternative was the early Roman system of a basic civic instruction of boys by their fathers. This also provided some element of Civic Education which played some role in the lives of people that lived in the classical age. What is being discussed in the next section provides some picture of what was happening in Rome as reported in Heater (2004).

2.5.2 Greek and Roman Education

Firstly, it must be pointed out that Greek citizenship, especially Athenian, was an essentially political concept and status, defining the citizen's political function while the Roman citizenship was primarily legal, defining who were a citizen and his rights in law, though, in truth, both peoples expected of their citizens the quality of virtue in their respective languages.

Secondly, Greek education was conceived in its civic purpose distinct from military training, focused on leading the soul or personality to virtue by the affective moods of the musical disciplines. The Roman citizen of any culture rated music beneath his dignity and dancing as positively degrading, undermining his prized gravitas and Roman Civic Education was pragmatically concerned mainly with learning about, living within and interpreting the law.

Thirdly, the Greeks – apart from the special cases of Sparta and Crete, came to accept the necessity of the institutionalization of education in schools; Rome retained more firmly, though not entirely, the conviction that education was essentially a familial responsibility. The family was, in fact, the essence of Roman life. Throughout republican times and even, probably, as early as Rome's monarchical era, parents of citizenly status undertook the education of their children. The mother or another female member of the family moulded the characters of the youngest, for example, as Tacitus, revealed, explaining that, whilst the child's character was still fresh and open and unspoiled by wrong, he should be taught to embrace the practice of virtue with all his heart; and that whether destined to be soldier, jurist or orator, his whole energies should be solely devoted to duty (Gwynne in Heater, 2004).

What can be picked from the above is that the Romans valued Civic Education even at the level of the family where virtues moulding the character of their children were not only the sole responsibility of the school but also that of the family. It may not have been the kind of Civic Education that we would wish to see in modern times but in their time it was something that made some sense to them.

Thus from these historical and philosophical perspectives, it is clear to note that the ancient ideas of and practices of Citizenship Education did not die with the deaths of the philosophers and the demise of the Greek and Roman states. To the contrary, they have continued to provide the direction on the how the ideas of Civic Education have been evolving. They also, in a way, provide some indication of the persistence of the classical traditions in the area of Civic Education. They also provide or give some indication of the classical consciousness and content of Civic Education in the broadest sense from the Renaissance period onwards (Heater, 2004).

The classical revivals of the Renaissance and Enlightenment, not surprisingly, brought about a renewed fascination in Spartan education. In other words, what seems to be coming out clearly from this account is that the classical world exerted an influence on Citizenship Education for several centuries in three main ways. Through the study of classical literature and Greek and Roman history, youths were taught or learnt about ideas concerning citizenship and the various styles in which the Spartans, Athenians and Romans practised that role. The ancient art of rhetoric, with its forensic and political potential, persisted in school curricula, and some educational theorists and politicians have argued that the ancient virtue of civic consciousness should be restored by the broadest educational means for the benefit of modern states. In questioning the absolutism of ancient regime monarchy, revolutionaries in the period which came to a climax with the French Revolution were able to look back to the classical

traditions of republicanism and citizenship as an attractive alternative. Effecting the change was an educational as well as a political challenge. Then came the age of revolutions and rebellions where three main features of Citizenship Education were being practised and advocated for in Europe in the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries.

The first was the principle that the security of the monarch and the security of the state required the subjects of the realm to be taught to help achieve these objectives. The second principle was the religious context in which these objectives were not only commended but actually practised. The third principle was the concentration on educating what was being described as the ‘gentlemen’ in order to provide the state with loyal and efficient administrators. The leading political theorists according to Heater (2004) during these years of rebellion from the mid-sixteenth to the mid-seventeenth century were Bodin and Thomas Hobbes who published a number of works that had some reflection on the principles of Civic Education and also encouraged the authorities in their arguments on their views that education needed to reflect the element of Civic Education. They argued that a radical change in educational practices was essential if endemic violence in society was to come to an end. They argued that children needed to learn the virtues and habits that brought social cohesion in society. From their arguments it is clear to note that the value of Civic Education was being noticed and the influence that it was making to society at that period of time.

Therefore the people were to be taught to abstain from violence to one another’s person and fraudulent surreption [i.e. theft] of one another’s goods (Hobbes in Heater 2004:1-25). This, accordingly, was somehow a well conceived prospectus for the generation of good citizens, virtuous and informed, albeit targeted mainly at adult ‘classes’. From the point of view of Hobbes, the feature of Civic Education in this period was focusing on the importance of religion through the church because it was seen as the main principal channel for conveying the

messages of good citizenship. Put another way, the church was seen as better placed to induct in people good virtues and habits that were probably responsible for the change of their society than other virtues and public values. Though, it would be argued that the role of religion or the church during this time was not the only one out of the many elements that were responsible in shaping citizens through Civic Education especially before the advent of the revolutions and rebellions of the eighteenth century.

Others like Martin Luther played some role also in shaping the thinking of people which was also seen in the context of Civic Education. For instance, he opened the way to the formation of State churches through the provision of education for all children so that they could absorb the principles of Christian and civic morality which was in essence Civic Education. Kosok (in Heater, 2004:1-25) reports that because of such efforts that Luther made in this area he was regarded by German educators to have been the founder of civic training. The churches themselves were often left to perform the function of civic educators, because it was understood that Civic Education without a solid theological content would have been ineffective, indeed unthinkable.

However, at this stage it is also important to note that this study will not go into further details on the rebellions and revolutions other than stating that the age of revolutions revolutionized Citizenship Education and, as a consequence, posed new educational questions which need some good attention to date. The old citizenship was based on the assumption of the elite, small in numbers and virtuous in civic conduct as has already been alluded to in this section. The new citizenship, according to Riesenberg (1992: 272-273), is based on the assumption of the masses endowed with democratic rights and owing loyalty to the nation-state. Peter Riesenberg called this new style of citizenship ‘second citizenship’, and identified

three phases in its development during the nineteenth and twentieth century which this study will try to briefly highlight as a way of putting into perspective the focus of the study.

Illustrating a point, Gollancz (in Heater, 2004) contends that politicians and educationists over the past two centuries, have been able to navigate their way through these difficulties to positions where they have had the power to develop educational processes for helping young people to grow into effective democratic citizens and nevertheless still been faced with complications concerning the methods to be used to achieve their goals. Essentially, three methods have been indispensable. Foremost and utterly basic, it goes without saying, is literacy – a formidable problem in all underdeveloped countries. Until the production of cheap radios, illiterates have been dependent on acquiring information and arguments second- or third-hand, a poor and potentially dangerous means of making the judgements required of citizens. This was described by Gollancz as mere basic education without any cultivation of critical thinking or as the growing pains of democracy.

Secondly, pupils needed to learn the elements of their country's traditions, institutions and current issues facing it. Literacy achieved, classes in civics have been commonly organized. However, the third and most difficult strand to arrange and teach according to Gollancz has been civic moral commitment. Literacy provides the fundamental tool, civics provides the essential knowledge; but they do not necessarily cultivate good citizenly behaviour. Hence, attempts in some countries to ensure that the ethos of the school are conducive to this need; arrangements for pupils to participate in the management of the school; and creating opportunities for young people to undertake practical work in the community. This resonates well with the focus of the study where service learning is being suggested as a critical element in the teaching of Civic Education in schools.

In the next section the study attempts to discuss the contemporary emergence of Civic Education across the globe and appreciate the focus behind.

2.6 Contemporary Emergence of Civic Education across the Globe

In modern times, Torney-Purta (2002) has observed that, “the concept of Civic Education appears to have had its first experience boom from the late 1950s through the 1970s.” As such this is said to have generated some considerable research on political socialization and on the related topic of Civic or Citizenship Education. During this time studies focused on the global North and the United States in particular. As Torney-Purta writes, “much of this research was conducted by political scientists who were concerned about tracing partisanship from generation to generation or about assessing the sources to diffuse support for the national political system, or about understanding the roots of student protest”. Also, [t]he faded question that guided so much of the early work [was]: Which agent is most important – the family, the school or the media? Though the focus was not so much about the role of Civic Education could play in social change and transformation of society. To the contrary, the very fact that a need was seen to promote this movement demonstrates the fact that Civic Education was something that could be considered in addressing and responding to societal needs.

. Hahn (2010: 5-23) also states that, “scholarship on education for citizenship and democracy has greatly expanded over the past decade as researchers from all parts of the globe are conducting empirical studies that use a wide variety of methods”. Clearly, the field of comparative and international Civic Education has gone global. Although for centuries scholars wrote about the importance of education for citizenship, it was not until the 1960s that political

socialisation researchers (primarily in the United States and Western Europe) began to systematically study how young people acquired their political knowledge, skills and attitudes.

Ehman and Hahn (in Hahn, 2010: 5-23) state that early researchers focused on how agents of socialisation, such as the family, school and media transmitted messages about the political world to youth. Since then the term Civic Education has been expanded to include the many ways young people construct meanings of civil society as well as the political world. Importantly so, today the dominant constructivist paradigm posits that youth are active constructors of meaning rather than passive recipients of adult messages (Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald and Schulz, 2001; Torney-Purta, Schwille and Amadeo, 1999). In the context of this study I also argue that active construction of meaning over time among learners has the potential to change or transform communities and this is possible in the light of service learning being applied in the teaching and learning of Civic Education. The theoretical perspectives regarding service learning is discussed in chapter three.

Hahn (2010: 5-23) states that numerous scholars have written descriptions of policies and practices of Citizenship Education in their particular countries and regions and these include among others (Arthur, Davies & Hahn, 2008; Georgi, 2008; Grossman, Lee and Kennedy, 2008; Lee and Fouts, 2005; Banks, 2004; Kennedy and Fairbrother, 2004; Morris and Print, 2002 Cogan and Derricott, 2000; Cogan; Torney-Purta et al, 1999).

2.6.1 The United States of America

Many scholars in the United States have conducted studies in the area of Civic Education and have analysed data mainly from surveys of large, nationally representative samples of the youth and varied findings have been found. In a frequently cited study that used NAEP data, Niemi and Junn (1998) found out that deliberate instruction in civics and government was associated with student knowledge; students with such instruction performed better on NAEP

assessments than those without instruction. Other studies done by scholars who used data from other nationally representative samples similarly found that students who received deliberate instruction in civics or government had higher levels of civic knowledge than their peers who lacked such instruction (Hart, Donnelly, Youniss and Atkins, 2007; Torney-Purta and Wilkenfeld in Hahn, 2010: 5-23).

Similar studies have also pointed out that civic related programmes increased civic knowledge in students and thereby making them to participate in matters affecting their communities and generally their well-being. Clearly from this scenario one would argue that students who have done Civic Education are more likely to be agents of social change in their communities than those not exposed to the ideals of Civic Education. This kind of situation, as is being argued by this study, has the potential to transform society at various levels. Unless the citizens have civic knowledge, civic skills, correct attitudes and values or dispositions it would be difficult to transform society. It is also not just getting these values, skills, virtues and knowledge but has to go side by side with correct pedagogical approaches in the teaching of Civic Education in schools.

In some recent longitudinal study, researchers found that students who experienced a combination of civic opportunities such as classroom instructions, service learning and extra-curricular activities among others had increased levels of civic commitments, concerns for the local issues and expectations of future involvement (Kahne and Sporte, 2008:738-766). This statement is in agreement with the theoretical framework of this study which looks at the teaching of Civic Education using the lens of service learning as a methodology. Students who are exposed to this kind of approach have the potential to contribute meaningfully to social change and ultimately the transformation of society at various levels of their engagement with matters that affect the well being of society.

Other researchers such as Butts (in Heater, 2004) have, in fact, reported that 1916 was the turning point in the history of Citizenship Education in the USA. In that year there were published: the Report of the American Political Science Association's Committee of Seven on government instruction in schools, colleges and universities; the report on Social Studies in Secondary Education, the report of the National Education Association's Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education; and John Dewey's Democracy and Education. The second and third of these were exceptionally influential, though the belief in the crucial contribution of the school to democracy and community, in line with Progressive political thinking, characterized all three publications.

The NEA report adopted the term 'social studies' and identified this multidisciplinary field as the means of transmitting Civic Education. The recommendation was adopted and remained the sturdy structure for this work henceforth, despite detailed worries and adaptations through subsequent decades. Social Studies in Secondary Education therefore owed analysis in some detail (the following matter relies heavily on Butts 1989). The tone and therefore importance of this document may be gleaned from a preliminary working paper which was written then by the Chairman of the Committee that Good citizenship needed to be the aim of social studies in high schools.

The old Civics, which was almost exclusively a study of Government machinery, was supposed to give to the new Civics which was to be, a study of all manner of social efforts to improve mankind (Butts, 1989: 126). As a result, the report opened the way for high schools across the nation to pursue a social studies curriculum composed of the several pertinent disciplines with emphasis on citizenship, relevance and the problems approach. The report declared that while all subjects should contribute to good citizenship, the social studies – geography, history, civics and economics needed to have this as their dominant aim (Butts,

1989: 127). Accordingly, all these subjects were supposed to be taught, not in an academic style for their own sake, but for their contributions to individuals' understanding of current issues with which their lives are surrounded. This change in teaching objectives inevitably called into question traditional teaching modes; thus, instead of confronting pupils with copious facts and data, they needed to be presented with problems drawn from the disciplines for them to solve. This again confirms the role of service learning in the teaching of Civic Education in schools. It is not about giving the learners with copious facts and information but it is all about engaging with them in solving the problems of the community together. This is the argument in this study that teaching approaches in Civic Education should move away from the traditional ones to those that consider different pedagogies that bring in the learners closer to what is happening in the community and other members of the same community need to be seen to be addressing the problems with others in those communities.

In other words, the teaching of Civic Education is supposed to engage the learners in the whole process of learning so that they could make meaningful contribution to society or the transformation of society. This can be seen to be very much in line with the focus of this study especially with regard to the way Civic Education needs to be taught in schools. This revolutionary change is clearly stated in another NEA document, Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education for liberal democracy Education, which was published two years later in 1918 and commended that, "the assignment of projects and problems to groups of pupils for cooperative solution and the socialized recitation whereby a class as a whole develops a sense of collective responsibility" (Butts, 1989: 128).

Two further features of the NEA recommendations round off their concept of Citizenship Education, what was called intra-mural and extra-mural democratic participation. The Cardinal Principles report explains the first of these that, "the democratic organization and

administration of the school itself, as well as the cooperative relations of pupil and teacher, pupil and pupil and teacher and teacher, are indispensable” (Butts, 1989: 128). The extra-mural feature was the recommended application of classroom learning to social action in the local community whereby pupils might advocate, for instance, more parks or railroads or post offices or pure food laws.

Thus the aims of the teachers of the NEA were supported due to the widespread concerns about the state of American democracy on the eve of the country’s involvement in the Great War and by the innovative thinking of educational philosophers, preeminent among who was Professor John Dewey was actually more concerned with the education which was supposed to be participative or experiential in nature. In fact, Curtis and Boulwood (in Butts, 1989) state that two outstanding convictions directed the whole course of his educational work a conviction that traditional methods of schooling were futile and fruitless, and an even firmer conviction that the human contacts of everyday life provide unlimited natural, dynamic ‘learning situations’. In fact, from the position of this study it is undeniable that the current methods of teaching Civic Education would be described as being futile and fruitless because they seem to be lacking in the contact with everyday action with the community. This has the negative effect on the expectations of society in so far as the transformation of society is concerned. The current teaching methods are lacking in service learning and also not liberating learners to become useful elements in their society and also in the transformation of society.

In the views of Dewey, the school has a vital role to perform especially in giving the learners the experience of the give- and –take of the community (democratic cooperation). By community he meant not merely the feeling of belonging to school or locality but an expansive sense of membership of a great community embracing many cultures and traditions, a sense that could be cultivated on by means of education or put in another way by means of Civic

Education (Butts, 1989). Welter (as cited by Butts, 1989) puts it that the techniques of progressive education as expounded by Dewey, were intended to produce free men whose intelligences would engage in social reconstruction for democratic ends. He further argued that, “schools needed to cultivate this capacity and an appreciation of its social purpose; also that society needed to have a type of democracy requiring the type of education which gives individuals a personal interest in social relationships and control, and the habits of mind which secure social changes without introducing disorder” (Dewey, 1961: 99).

From the ideals of Dewey it will be interesting to note that issues of generalisation appear to have been difficult because of the loose guidelines that were interpreted in different ways. Morrisett (1981: 39) reports that, “during this period guidelines themselves reached the teacher in three separate forms”. One of these guidelines included among others the social studies framework deriving from the work of the NEA and developed by a new professional body. This was consequently founded, and was called the National Council for the Social Studies (NCSS). Several units were particularly significant or relevant to Citizenship Education from grades 3 to 12. These included among other things, community civics, national civics, American history and American government. According to the NEA Report (1916), “one of the characteristic features of the programme was its cyclical organization, topics repeated at different levels”. The NEA Report of 1916 explained the reasons for this pattern that, “the course of social studies proposed for the years VII-IX to constitute a cycle to be followed by a similar cycle in the years X-XII and presumably preceded by another similar cycle in the six elementary grades”. Looking at the findings from the report, it would appear that this kind of grouping had somewhat coincided with the psychological periods of adolescence, but was based chiefly upon the practical consideration that large numbers of children complete their schooling with the sixth grade and another large contingent in the eighth and ninth grades.

Another set of guidelines was provided by state legislation. The entry of the USA into the First World War provoked an intensification of patriotic feeling and a demand that the schools be more assiduous in teaching historical and political topics with the overt purpose of enhancing that sentiment. Slowly, from 1917, the states framed statutes to require schools to teach for citizenship: within ten years all had passed such laws. Thus did Citizenship Education become universal (Pierce as cited in Heater, 2004). Therefore the teaching for citizenship and patriotism having been made mandatory, many of the states' superintendents of public instruction, and many city authorities, issued courses or manuals of study. What we can see from the above is that, by about 1925, Citizenship Education was entrenched firmly in American schools, by professional guidance, state legislation and the publication of textbooks, in a loose framework which offered teachers freedom to choose precisely what and how to teach; to innovate – or to sink into dull reliance on 'the textbook' that was to hand in the school.

By the mid-1920s, therefore, there can be no doubt that American schools were fully fledged and expected to engage in education for citizenship. One could also be tempted to assume that, from this period onwards young Americans effectively learned in their schools what it meant to be a citizen or what they were supposed to do for sake of transforming their society. The political events and moods of the generation at that time could not avoid influencing the nature of Citizenship Education. By the late 1920s the flagrant patriotism of the wartime and post-war years was subsiding; subsequently the Great Depression and the New Deal turned attention to economic and social problems. The Second World War resurrected the atmosphere of patriotism, which became degraded in the McCarthyite anti-Communist hysteria an episode in the Cold War, which generated a mix of fear and hubris.

Against this background, a vast number of attempts were made to improve the quality of Citizenship Education. In the words of Freeman Butts, the outpouring of proposals and projects to create more effective Civic Education programs during the mid-twentieth century would take volumes to relate. This drew the conclusion in the following ways that: In order to develop such knowledge, understanding, and skills on the part of all youth – not just those who will enter the professions or the skilled occupations – it will be necessary for the high school to employ a wider variety of ways and means of developing civic competence than have been generally used (Robinson, 1976: 33).

According to Robinson (1976: 34) the distinguished educationists and political scientists who gave these projects their impetus have been called ‘social frontiersmen’ because they succeeded in persuading the schools of their responsibility to prepare their pupils for citizenship, though it was clearly an uphill task. Yet even that progress had almost ground to a halt by about 1960 as a result of the new focus which was equally taking an important part in the life of America. This was in the area of science, mathematics and foreign language. There seem to have a new emphasis in these areas especially in the late 50s and early into the 60s. Jarolimek (1981: 9) contends that keeping up with – better, overtaking – the Soviet Union in the space and missile races seemed self-evidently so much more urgent priorities than Civic Education. One gets the sense that the two decades of the 1960s and 1970s were years of dramatic political and curricular activity. For instance, the prosecution of the war in Vietnam led to much heart-searching and expressions of heart-felt hostility to government policy.

In 1972, a year before that conflict ended, there began the startling events of the Watergate scandal, which led to the humiliating resignation of President Nixon in 1974 and the consequent cynicism about and disillusionment with the political system. At the same time, Citizenship Education was in chaos. One authority is said to have even described the condition

of social studies as having been into disarray in the early years of the 1970s. The description was further confirmed by the results of a survey undertaken by the National Assessment of Educational Progress (NAEP) between 1969 and 1976. This revealed, for instance, that one-third of 13-year-olds could not name the Senate as the partner in Congress of the House of Representatives. Moreover, scores declined over the seven-year period. Aware of the dire state of affairs, two private foundations set up a task force to investigate and frame recommendations to rectify the situation.

Eventually, there came another surge in activity to improve matters, made even more imperative by the passing of the 26th Amendment to the Constitution in 1971 enfranchising 18-year-olds. There were three difficulties facing the concerned educationists and academics: persuading teachers, parents and school authorities that Citizenship Education was important; re-creating some form of national coherence in what to teach; and producing new teaching materials to assist this organized revival. The collapse into incoherence, even beyond the tradition of local interpretation, was the core problem. The hard work of the early years of the century was dissipated in the 1960s and 1970s by the havoc of each teacher teaching what he or she felt inclined to do. It took some time to reverse this process of disintegration.

One attempt was the 'New social studies' movement advocating teaching the constituent subjects' investigative processes (Fenton, 1966), but this was by no means universally adopted. More useful was the work of academics to improve textbooks during the 1970s (Butts, 1989: 200–4). American teachers, as we have seen above, have always been heavily reliant on textbooks. One collaborative effort, begun in 1970, produced a critical survey of available materials (Turner n.d.). This carried an Introduction by John Patrick of Indiana University, who, with Howard Mehlinger, produced a highly successful book entitled *American Political Behaviour* (Mehlinger and Patrick 1972). Mehlinger was later to describe

the situation as ‘The Crisis in Civic Education’ (Brown 1977: 69–82). The book evolved from work undertaken by the University’s Social Studies Development Centre, established in 1966, and was the outcome of the rigorous testing of the material in a large number of schools before publication. Also, it went out of its way to present the subject-matter in an interesting and easily comprehensible manner to secondary-level pupils (Mehlinger & Patrick, 1972; Morrisett & Williams, 1981: 81–2). This is one example of the serious efforts to rescue Civic Education by improved teaching materials.

During the last two decades of the twentieth century every component of American society concerned about Citizenship Education strained to make the schools much more effective institutions for shaping citizens in some true sense of the term – the federal government, state governments, universities, research foundations, publishers (Butts 1989: 205–25). Most conspicuously, in 1983 the federal Department of Education issued a report entitled *A Nation at Risk*, thereby opening up a long and searching discussion on the desperate need for educational reform. It identified six goals, two of which relate to Civic Education. One of these goals was that, “every school in America will ensure that all students learn to use their minds well, so they may be prepared for responsible citizenship, further learning, and productive employment in our modern economy”. The other goal stated that, “every adult American will be literate and possess the knowledge and skills necessary to compete in a global economy and exercise the rights and responsibilities of citizenship” (Cogan & Derricott, 2000: 84).

The 1990s however, saw a number of significant developments. These included the establishment of the Center for Civic Education; the launching of the National Campaign to Promote Civic Education to encourage systematic teaching in this area; and the designing of ‘CIVITAS: A Framework for Civic Education’ as a model. Even so, the proponents of better

Citizenship Education still had to struggle against doubting or hostile forces. Uncritical patriotism preferred to a questioning civic mind (Janowitz, 1983; Turner, 1981), and the attempt ‘to eliminate [public education’s] citizenship function in favour of a narrowly defined labour market perspective’ (Giroux, 1987: 72) are two obvious examples, though they are by no means confined to this period, as we have seen above. So much research has been undertaken since the 1990s especially concerning the subject of Civic Education and some of which have a bearing on the efforts and events that took place in the USA. It would appear that the US experiences in the Civic Education have been used in other places and countries to design Civic related programmes for the schools. It is not the intention of this study to go further in such discussion but what has been given out is only meant to show where Civic Education is coming from and where it is going in different places at any given particular time and space.

Controversies have continued though concerning multicultural vs. national cohesion objectives, national vs. world citizenship; structure of the disciplines vs. problems of democracy approaches (Cogan & Derricott, 2000: 81–3), learning about institutions vs. learning civic behaviour, academic study vs. community service. However, the IEA research as noted by Cogan and Derricott (2000: 87) did criticise the US educators in the implementation of Citizenship Education by the schools as being too weak to amount to anything and that there have been many difficulties in making progress in accomplishing it and that this has been the experience of the United States in the area Citizenship Education.

Avery (2007: 22-39), reports that, “ in 1999 social studies scholar Carole L Hahn wrote a chapter entitled ‘Challenges to Civic Education in the United State’ in which she described the social, political and cultural contexts for US Civic Education”. Interestingly enough, this

chapter was actually used as the first phase of the IEA Civic Education Study (Torney-Purta, Schwille & Amadeo, 1999; Torney-Purta, Lehmann, Oswald & Schulz, 2001).

It must be pointed out that despite the challenges that the US could have been experiencing in this area it cannot be denied that a lot has taken place in the area of Citizenship Education and this has had an effect on other countries and Zambia inclusive. For instance, in 1999 there were many important Civic Education initiatives that were undertaken in the US and some of which were prompted by the IEA Civic Education Study with the view to identify some of the shortcomings that were there in the area of Civic Education and possibly provide some alternatives. For example, Carnegie Corporation & CIRCLE (2003:12) a consensus report based on the deliberations of over 50 noted scholars and practitioners in the field of Civic Education was published reporting on the major research programmes that had taken place in the field of Civic Education. Some recommendations were also made to the educators in the field, researchers, policy makers and other interested organisations in this area.

The report affirmed the important role that schools were performing or were to perform in the impartation of norms to the citizens. The report further urged instruction in government, history, Law and Democracy that actively engages young people in discussions of public issues, in making connections between complex democratic concepts and their communities, in situations of democratic processes and in linking service learning experiences with civic outcomes. Whatever the case, it is important to note that there are many positive developments in US Civic Education and Civic life that we could pick to shape the focus of Civic Education in the school curriculum and any other system that may be interested in Civic Education. The American situation provides to this study valuable insights on how Civic Education has evolved or is evolving around the world. The American scenario may not be the only example that we have to discuss in this study but there are also other scenarios that does give some

different positions in this area and in subsequent sections an attempt is being made to highlight what has been happening in other areas around the world in so far as the Civic Education is concerned.

In the initial stages (Finkel & Ernst , 2005; Dudley & Gitelson, 2002 and Torney-Purta, 2002) state that, “Civic Education focused mainly on the effects in terms of knowledge, values and attitudes and also that most of the early studies and research were mainly focusing on the minimal overall effects of the Civic Education on society”. In other words, the argument here is that Civic Education was seen as something that had less or no impact at all on society (Dudley & Gitelson, 2002: 179; Langton & Jennings, 1968: 865). Whether this situation is still the same today or not will have to be answered or addressed though this study so that one does not do not end up making speculations and recommendations that are not supported with evidence based results.

In fact Torney-Purta et al (2004:4-5) report that, “the late 1980s and early 1990s witnessed some renewed interest in Civic Education.” This revival was mainly due to a number of factors some of which were based on the establishing or re- establishing of democracy in Eastern Europe and Latin America; the perception of a democratic deficit especially among youth in countries characterised as well established democracies. It had also to do with the broader cultural factors. This was especially so with regard to the intensification of a global youth culture which was in itself characterized by a decreasing interest in hierarchically organized political groups such as political parties, in favour of active grassroots involvement in causes such as the protection of the environment and the promotion of human rights. Such positions appear to have necessitated the desire for Civic Education. The fact that Civic Education was seen as something that could help in the establishment or re-establishing of democracy in some countries is enough evidence to argue that the subject came up about in

order to bring about social change and transformation of society. Changing of the world order in many ways amounts to some re-structuring of social institutions and structures and this in the view of this study is social change and transformation of society in many ways. This means therefore that Civic Education contributes or serves as indicator of social change and transformation of society.

Other scholars such as Giddens (in Torney-Purta & Amadeo 2004:4-5), argue that, “the nature of the challenges posed by globalization require that the formal approach usually favoured by traditional Civic Education be replaced by a Citizenship Education not only focused on political knowledge and engagement, but also on social and moral responsibility as well as community involvement”. Given the profound effects that globalization is having on citizens’ lives and identities Giddens contend that, “Citizenship Education must be reframed as a priority issue”. Referring to the situation in the West, particularly in Europe, Giddens stressed that national identity was undergoing deep changes due to the reshaping of the nation-state and the resulting “fuzzy sovereignty” which gave rise to multiple identities.

Globalization is also said to have contributed to the spread of diverse forms of governance and democratic participation, many of which have been introduced or reinforced in Latin America in the recent past. Some of these processes as observed by Giddens include, among others, decentralization and devolution, strengthening of local governments and the development of a more robust civil society through the promotion and practice of novel patterns of deliberative or direct democracy. Further, Giddens suggests that globalization has also encouraged a massive and rapid embrace of information and communications technology, which has significantly altered the political socialization of children and youth. The effects of globalization and the full recognition of children’s rights within the human rights framework, together with country-specific factors, as pointed by Giddens are said among the many factors

to have contributed to a renewed interest in the role of Citizenship Education and also on the true meaning of the subject as could be reflected in curriculum reforms being implemented in various countries. Huntington (in Ruitta, 2007) seems to argue in the same line with Giddens that, “the expansion of studies beyond the United States has been largely due to the global and national changes that have occurred since the late 1980s...” In this sense Huntington does also include the collapse of Communism and the changes it caused for new and transitional countries; European unification, including questions of identity and the problem of democratic deficit; globalization; and the “third wave” democratization and the consequent rise in democracy aid, of which Civic Education programmes are a part. In other words, the studies on Civic Education have not just been confined to one part of the world but have also been extended to include other parts of the globe thereby generating new approaches and ideas about the subject. In England, for instance starting in 2002, Citizenship Education had become a new statutory foundation subject in secondary schools, and part of the non statutory framework in primary schools; in France, the reform of the lycée system initiated in 1999, involved for the first time the introduction of a compulsory programme of *éducation civique, juridique et sociale* (Torney-Purta, 2004).

2.6.2 Latin America

Reimers (2007:5-21) gives some elaborate information on the status of Civic Education in some Latin American countries and this study will attempt to discuss some of the pertinent elements in the light of the focus of the study. The politics, programmes and policies relating to the reform of Civic Education in Latin America have been discussed or examined in the context of the impact on policy and practice of the IEA Civic Education Study which was focusing its attention on Citizenship Education as a purpose of instruction in some of the countries in the region. The study appear to have contributed greatly to the expansion of understanding of the broader aspects of Civic Education as opposed to the narrow view which

was only looking at the acquisition of knowledge and skills without necessarily applying these skills in real life situations.

As noted by Torney-Purta, Lehman, Oswald and Schultz (2001: 176), the understanding of Civic Education needs to incorporate the ability of learners to utilize knowledge and skills and be able to participate and engage in various organisations and the broader community. This somehow was not the position in which Civic Education was viewed in some countries in Latin America due to some various reasons some of which are discussed in this section.

Payne et al (in Reimers, 2007:5-21) state that during the last twenty years or so Latin America had experienced significant political change. For instance he states that in the early 1980s attempts were made to return the region to democratic rule especially that around this time the region had experienced periods of military rule. He notes that in fact before 1978 only Colombia, Costa Rica and Venezuela elected their leaders through what he described as competitive and free elections. But between 1978 and 1990 efforts had been made to return the whole region to democratic dispensation and as a result democratic transitions were said to have taken place in countries such as Argentina, Bolivia, Brazil, Chile, Dominican Republic, Ecuador, El Salvador, Guatemala, Honduras, Nicaragua, Panama, Paraguay, Peru and Uruguay.

With the exception of Cuba, all the countries in this region had gone through some elections of some sort at this time and this increased awareness and political participation and representation brought in new questions about the way this wave was going to be deepened. One gets the impression that the deepening of this wave was for sure going to call for all the countries in the region to refocus their education systems and practice to consider the path of Civic Education. As a result, in the early 1990s, most of the countries in the region embarked on some advanced education reforms which were meant to increase on issues of governance. The assessment of civic knowledge and skills was taken as an integral part of these reforms. In

fact from the overall results of the IEA study of Civic Education results showed that across countries in the region student knowledge and skills in a range of key concepts about democracy were significantly below the international mean (Torney-Purta, et al as cited by Reimers, 2007: 5-21). This means that the aspects of civic knowledge and other related civic skills were not being observed in the learners or that there was some deficit in civic knowledge. This can have some telling effects especially in the area of social change and transformation of society. Where these skills are missing among the learners, it becomes difficult to visualize a kind of society that will be built. If the learners were lacking greatly in this area then chances of social change and transforming their communities were also hanging in balance. Unless the learners come to grips with life situations in their learning processes it will always be difficult to talk about the change or transformation of one's society and one would be tempted to believe that this was the situation which was obtaining in the Latin America during this period.

However, Guevara and Tirado (as cited in Reimers, 2007: 5-21) observes that the impact of the IEA study on Latin American States was mostly at the level of policy and with regard to Citizenship Education in the region very little had changed especially with regard to classroom practice. Challenges were still observed in the pedagogy of Civic Education where probably the teaching of the subject followed some traditional methods that did not allow participation and engagement of the learners in the process of learning. Changing perspectives of society require the full participation of all the concerned parties and to do that it means the method of delivery should consider appropriate methodologies such as service learning and other approaches that allow learners to engage with the lessons and then connect with what is happening in the community. It would appear from the speculations of the study that even in the 2000s other developments occurred in regions that were meant probably to address the challenges mentioned above.

Cox, Jaramillo and Reimers (in Reimers (2007:5-21) reports that, “the Ministry of Education of Colombia undertook a long term national programme to develop citizenship and conflict resolution competencies”. The main aim of the report was to shift teaching of Civic Education from isolated subject in the curriculum towards organizing schools and instruction in all subjects in ways that continuously promoted the development democratic values and skills. Accordingly, the programme involved among other things defining standards, evaluating citizenship competencies, organizing training workshops throughout the country, organizing regional and national forums to identify successful teaching experiences including those coming from universities and non-governmental organisations, promoting Citizenship Education for university students and offering structured programmes to promote citizenship. These developments were meant in a way to bring about changes and new developments in the area of Citizenship Education by ensuring that the teaching and learning taking place in schools was one that could provide the learners with knowledge, citizenship competencies and also allowed to engage in action based activities that were going to make them become effective members in transforming society.

The impression one gets from the afore-mentioned issues is that the focus in the teaching and learning of Civic Education needed to ground learners in cognitive, emotional, constructive and other skills that they needed to have if they were to act constructively in their communities and later on in society. As a result, it would be argued that a number of activities focusing on Citizenship Education in the Latin American States received support from governments and other stakeholders an indication that Civic Education needed to be given that attention in schools.

Torney-Purta and Amadeo (2004: 142) state that, “there were a lot of activities at the regional level that were contributing to placing the study and practice of Citizenship Education more centrally on the education reform agenda”. This arose also from the fact that a number of

challenges had been identified in the region due to possibly lack of coherent Civic Education in schools. As such, “concurrent with this activity, the Education Unit of the Organisation of American States launched the Inter-American Programme for Democratic Values and Practices in 2006” (Reimers, 2007). In fact Reimers(2007) seems to suggest that, “ it was a three pronged initiative that was meant to support democratic Citizenship Education through research, professional development and exchange of information and dissemination of best practices”.

Though to the contrary, Reimers has hypothesised that the studies and initiatives that were conducted in the region in the 1990s contributed more on policy than on pedagogy or practice. This may sound true also in the context of the many studies in other regions where focus has always been more on policy than on practice and this appears to be the situation in the Zambia as will be noted later in the study. Despite this, it is important to note and appreciate that the studies that were conducted in Latin American States were meant to place interest in Citizenship Education more centrally in their education systems for the purposes of demonstrating an ability to shape some fundamental changes in the social context of schools so that learners from such schools would be purveyors of social change as well as transformation of society. It was for this reason that countries such as Argentina, Brazil, and Chile initiated in the mid-1990s major educational reforms, prioritizing Citizenship Education as an indispensable requisite for the advancement of both socioeconomic development and democratic culture. In Colombia, the adoption in 1991 of a new constitution accelerated the Curricular Renovation Program initiated during the mid-80s. Thus, in 1995 the General Law on Education was enacted, which decentralizes education and gives greater autonomy to individual schools in educational decisions, within a framework of enhanced teacher, parent, and student participation. In this new context, traditional courses on Civic Education, many based on rote learning, were replaced by Education for Democracy as a cross- curricular theme

which stresses the importance of “living democracy at school” (Torney-Purta & Amadeo, 2004:4-5). These examples here reflect also the other scenarios that other countries have done in the area of Civic Education and this situation is also no exception to the Zambia.

These and other changes discussed above present enormous challenges to citizenship formation and, especially, to the approaches and curricula traditionally used for teaching Civic Education. Perhaps one of the most profound changes that are reorienting Citizenship Education is the recognition that it is valuable for children as children. In other words, Citizenship Education is no longer considered solely as an area designed to prepare young people for their adult roles in society, but, rather, as a tool that will also help them improve and understand their lives and interactions in society. This outlook has usually created considerable changes and meanings on the whole concept (Giddens in Torney-Purta and Amadeo, 2004:4-5).

This kind of argument by Giddens and others is consistent with the focus of this study especially in considering the fact that Civic Education serves as a tool that can help improve the lives and interactions in society. It also means that the teaching of Civic Education through service learning framework has the potential to build the capacities of the learners to become citizens who will be able to contribute positively to social change and transformation of society.

2.6.3 Europe

Arbues (2014:226-232) states that, “within Europe two distinct reference points can be identified which enable understanding of the movement in favour of education for democratic citizenship”. The first being the fall of the Berlin Wall together with all of the surrounding circumstances and subsequent consequences it had and principally for countries in eastern and central Europe. The second event is closely related to the first, was a movement which brought

important consequences for society: the criticism of extreme liberalism. It was not until the end of 1980s that various intellectual movements emerged, initially in the United States and Canada but later extending to Europe, which criticised extreme liberalism among them but in a very specific way, communitarianism. As such Arbues (2014) observes that, “a combination of these and other factors meant that across Europe citizenship and education focused on citizenship becoming an important and compulsory element in ensuring a high quality education”. For instance the Council of Europe in 1997 launched the curriculum development project, ‘Education for Democratic Citizenship’. In its third phase (2006-2009), the project aimed to promote education for democracy (EDC) and human rights education (HRE), with emphasis on social cohesion, social inclusion and respect for human rights (Starkey & Osler, 2009: 334-347).

In the United Kingdom for instance subsequent to Parliament making citizenship a statutory requirement for all English secondary schools from 2002 onwards, the government funded a large-scale longitudinal study to monitor the implementation of the new initiative and determine its effects. Cleaver, Ireland, Kerr and Lopes (in Hahn 2010: 5-23) report that in one of the early reports the Citizenship Education Longitudinal Study (CELS) found that socio-economic status correlated with student knowledge, feelings of empowerment, levels of trust, community attachment, engagement. It must be pointed out here also that most of the CELS annual reports were however, focused primarily on the implementation of Citizenship Education in schools rather than on student learning and this could explain why most of the results and findings are not clearly pointing out the effects of Civic Education on the learners.

However, Kerr, Lopes, Featherstone and Benton (in Hahn, 2010: 5-23) noted in their report that there was some change from 2002 when most citizenship teaching occurred through subjects across the curriculum, assemblies and from the school ethos. It was reported further that there was increased use of active instructional methods and teacher confidence in the

teaching of Civic Education though there were still no valuable information on how particular approaches to Citizenship Education were affecting student learning. In this case, it is important to state that this study becomes an important tool to provide or appreciate the extent of using service learning and other maximal approaches would yield positive results in the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools. Much seems to be said about the importance of Civic Education in schools but little is said about the effect that the subject does to the learners, society including responding to the needs of the community.

Nevertheless, taking a different approach, the Nestle Social Research Programme conducted telephone interviews with a representative sample of young people ages 11-21 years old in England, Scotland and Wales (Hahn, 2010: 5-21). From the findings of the research it was found out that from 25 percent to 50 percent of young people were civically engaged either by helping in the community or making their voices heard or both. what they were doing is what is being argued in this study as the correct way of teaching Civic Education through using approaches such as service learning and other activity based strategies of delivering Civic Education in the schools. It should not be done in the context of what Freire(1970) has described as, “ the assumption of a dichotomy between the human beings and the world”. That is a situation where a person is merely in the world, not with the world or with others; the individual is spectator, not re-creator. That way of teaching Civic Education does not provide spaces for social change in the learners and eventually the transformation of society.

In the early the 1990s, the CIVED project noted that most of the countries in Europe succeeded in creating democratic institutions. To sustain the new system, Torney-Purta, Schwille and Amadeo (in Avery, 2007:22-39) state that, “Civic Education was to be recognised as needing re-conceptualization and reconstruction”. In this connection, it was felt that school based-Civic Education needed to be treated as the subject preparing the young generations for

citizenship in a society. Several factors had to be considered in most of the countries in Europe. For instance, the information about democracy, its history, nature, institutions and functioning was lacking in the actual life of students and was not related to concepts that were meaningful to them. Secondly in most countries, the programmes were rooted in traditional, conservative societies that contradicted some aspects of the democratic way of life in a modern society.

Thirdly, most of the schools were still having the hangover of despotic rule. In other words learners were not allowed to question certain actions of the school system and later on society. With the wind of change that was blowing across the continent it was becoming clear that the need for Civic Education was paramount and also that the teaching methods needed to be revisited. The focus was to be on active learning [service learning] where students were to be given some latitude to engage with the process of teaching and learning. Students were to be asked to debate or look at issues critically and not just accepting things on face value. In some cases, efforts were equally made to re-orient the providers of education in the area of Civic Education and also in the area strategies and approaches necessary for effective learning.

In Continental Western Europe, similar studies were conducted as those that were done in other parts of Europe and the findings were different from each other though differences in pedagogical cultures embedded in distinct civic cultures were noted (Hahn, 1998 Davies, 2002; Phillips & Schweisfurth, 2007 and Hahn, 2010: 5-23). According to Hahn she noted that there were different pedagogical issues that were used in the teaching of Civic Education.

In Central and Eastern Europe after the fall of the Soviet Union, Hahn (2010:5-23) reports that many Non Governmental Organisations in Western Europe and the United States undertook projects with partners in Central and Eastern Europe to promote Civic Education for democracy. Various projects and programmes were developed with a focus in curriculum materials in Civic Education and prepared teachers to use the new curricula using student-

centred pedagogy. In Ukraine for instance, developers designed lessons to teach skills for democratic citizenship such as group cooperation, decision-making and civic action and the findings were that students in the treatment group who used the new curriculum outperformed a control group on a test of civic knowledge and they compared favourably with respect to attitudes and behaviours (Craddock, 2005). Other scholars measured the effects of similar projects in Bosnia (Soule, 2002 in Latvia and Lithuania; Vontz, Metcalf and Patrick, 2000).

Other evaluators measured the effects of the project, 'Deliberating Democracy on students in Azerbaijan, the Czech Republic, Lithuania and three cities in the United States to scaffold students discussions of public policy issues, discussed national and international issues more with their teachers than previously and liked hearing diverse views and being encouraged to express their own views thereby developing participatory attitudes, dispositions and competencies that are critical for social change and transformation of society (Avery & Simmons, 2008 and Hahn, 2010:5-23).

The picture given above demonstrates the argument that Civic Education has the potential to transform society. When students are exposed to such skills of participating and problem solving at early stage of their human development the chance of them creating a transformed society in future is almost guaranteed. The approach in teaching Civic Education should avoid the banking concept to education where as clearly contended by Freire. For Freire, "Projecting an absolute ignorance onto others, a characteristic of the ideology of oppression negates education and knowledge as processes of inquiry" (Freire, 1970: 53). Put simply Civic Education which takes this approach as described by Freire negates any form of social change and transformation of society. As argued by Freire, "education should or must begin with the solution of the teacher-student contradiction, by reconciling the poles of the contradiction so that both are simultaneously teachers and learners". That way chances or

spaces of engagement are created for both parties to look at issues critically and reflectively and in the long run find solutions aimed at transforming society.

Furthermore, the Eurydice Report (2012:1), contends that, “all countries are now emphasising the importance of acquiring social and civic competences in their steering documents, and this applies to all levels in the schools”. As such, in most European countries three approaches seem to have been taken though it must be noted that their implementation differs from country to country as can be seen in the following:

- 1) Citizenship Education in some countries is taken as a stand-alone subject: 20 education systems for example in Europe (3 more compared to the 2005 study) treat Citizenship Education as a compulsory separate subject, sometimes starting at primary level, but more usually at secondary level. The length of taught time varies greatly within this approach across countries, ranging from one year in Bulgaria and Turkey to 12 years in France. In other countries the Eurydice Report has noted that they have integrated Citizenship Education into the wider subject/curriculum areas;
- 2) Integration of Citizenship Education into wider subjects/curriculum areas; entails that the subject is treated as a standalone or taught separately but rather it is embedded into the curriculum of other subjects in the vast majority of countries. This integration tends to take place in various teaching blocs of subjects like in social sciences, history, geography, languages and ethics and religious education. The Eurydice Report observed further that this kind of integration was/is prominent in the Czech Republic; and
- 3) Citizenship Education as a cross-curricular dimension of the curriculum: This approach exists alongside one or both of the above-mentioned approaches in all countries. As a cross-curricular dimension, all teachers must contribute to implementing Citizenship Education and its related objectives as defined by national curricula.

Across Europe, the Eurydice Report (2012) seems to provide four main categories of objectives that surface up in Citizenship Education curricula and these are described in the following ways: achieving political literacy, developing critical thinking, analytical skills, and attitudes and values; and fostering active participation in school and/or in the community. These are very important attributes that make Citizenship Education a suitable tool in transforming society. The most common subject themes addressed across Europe relate to knowledge and understanding of the socio-political system of the country, to human rights and democratic values as well as to equity and justice. However, the national context is not the only focus of Citizenship Education. European and international dimensions also tend to play important roles. From this it can be seen that Citizenship Education is looked at from different positions though one thing is clear that most countries across the globe are beginning to embrace it and this must be an indication that it serves to uplift the well being of society. From the Eurydice report it would appear that the focus is only in Europe where Civic Education has been revived. To the contrary this revival has also been experienced in other parts of the world and as earlier alluded to Zambia is one such countries among the many in Africa where we have also seen some revival in the area of Civic Education. Hence the focus of this study to examine the extent to which the teaching of Civic Education in Zambia could serve as an indicator that enhances or impedes of social change and transformation of society.

While imparting the necessary knowledge of Citizenship Education to students constitutes an important basis, the nature of the subject seems to be concerned with learning outcomes which are more likely to be met through learning-by-doing than traditional teaching methods. To this end, countries where Civic Education has been introduced have also gone a step further to introduce some form of central regulations in terms of the teaching approaches that are aimed at promoting the involvement of pupils and students in school governance,

allowing them to have a voice in the running of their schools. Involvement ranges from the election of class representatives to the establishment of a student council and/or a student representation on school governing bodies (Eurydice Report, 2012). This in itself reflects service learning framework whose focus is in ensuring that learners not only do they learn theory but should also be seen to be putting into practice the theories learnt in class to bear results of social change and transformation in their communities.

Additionally, the Eurydice Report (2012:4) noted also that 19 countries included citizenship-related issues in regulations and/or recommendations on external school evaluation and 17 on internal evaluation. Areas of evaluation included school culture, school governance, and relationship with the wider community and teaching and learning, including Citizenship Education in the criteria for monitoring the whole education system is becoming a widespread practice in Europe. Over the last ten years, around two thirds of countries have carried out national monitoring processes (such as research projects, surveys, etc.) which were targeted at teaching and learning Citizenship Education.

2.6.4 Asian and African States

Soon after getting their liberation and independence from foreign domination most of the Asian and African leaders saw the need and conviction in education and education for citizenship which was seen as a significant element for their new born nations. There was widespread conviction among these leaders that education and education for citizenship were vital necessities for their new-born nations. For example, Kwame Nkrumah, who was to be the future President of Ghana, addressing pupils in an elite school in the then Gold Coast, now Ghana, stated quite bluntly that the purpose of all true education was to produce good citizens (Nkrumah, 1961: 57). This interpretation was echoed at greater length by KANU (the Kenyan African National Union) in its outline of the education policy it would pursue on independence:

The first aim of that education will be to produce good citizens, inspired with a desire to serve their fellow men.

The democracy to be created was going to be more than a set of laws and institutions. It was going to depend upon the understanding and participation by all the people in the democratic process (Cowan et al., 1965: 123). This again resonates very well with the type of Civic Education that this study is proposing. The teaching of Civic Education should not be seen as just getting information and knowledge but how that knowledge and information is utilised in the service of the community. One gets the impression also that at this time the kind of Civic Education was not only supposed to be theoretical in its orientation but the one which was going to make citizens active in the affairs of their newly independent states and this meant education for social change and complete of transformation of all the systems. No wonder Freire (1970:54) was able to make some serious observations on the way teaching in schools where learners were not allowed to think for themselves but through their teachers and described such teaching in the following ways:

“That the teacher should not just teach and make students as having been taught”; “the teacher knowing everything and the students knowing nothing”; “the teacher thinking and the students listening attentively”; “ the teacher disciplining and the students being disciplined”; “ the teacher choosing and enforcing his choice and the students complying”; “ the teacher acting and the students having the illusions of acting through the actions of the teacher”; “ the teacher confusing the authority of knowledge with his or her own professional authority, which is set in opposition the freedom of the students”; “the teacher as being the subject of the learning process while the students being seen as mere objects”. If this kind of teaching was to be allowed in Civic Education lessons would end up not making the learners to think critically. This has potential to derail the process of social change and transformation of society. The

argument here is that there can never be transformation of society in the absence of criticality on the part of the people in that particular society.

However, most of the studies that have been conducted in this part of the world have shown that Civic Education if correctly taught yields positive results in the learners and similar results have also been found in other parts of the world establishing on the effects of Civic Education (Eisikovits, 2005; Ichilov, 2005; Perlinger, Cannetti-Nasim and Pedahuzur, 2006). It has also been found or observed that students who had been exposed to Civic Education courses exhibited higher levels of civic knowledge than those who did not. The main arguments from such observations or findings is that Civic Education or Citizenship Education promotes active, participatory learning activities and that it creates an open climate for discussion on many key issues that concern everyone in the community and this if instilled in learners has the potential to change their perspectives about their communities in many ways. Students who had Civics and especially those who had perceived an open climate for discussion reported higher levels of political efficacy, political participation and democratic orientations than students who experienced a less open climate (Perlinger et al., 2006).

In other studies, Ichilov (in Hahn, 2010:5-23) revealed some challenges for civic educators in some divided societies. She compared students from Hebrew state schools, Hebrew religious schools and Arab schools in the State of Israel using the data from the IEA Civic Education Study. Students from the two opposing sides thus Jewish and Arabs exhibited different approaches to issues of Civic Education in nature. Moreover, some, notably the Arab (and some other Muslim) countries, possessed a cultural coherence that could offer a solid basis for education in national self-awareness and loyalty. This point was made very forcibly by a French scholar who noted in the following words: "Of all the factors which influenced education in the Arab countries nationalism was the major ideological factor in the education

of children". The Arabic language and its potential emphasized, the past notably after the coming of Islam was taught; even when teaching subjects as far removed as biology and psychology the spirit was stamped with this nationalist fervour (Szyliowicz in Hahn, 2010).

On the other hand, most new states had no such cultural bonds, apart from the imperial ties which they were engaged in loosening. Large countries such as India, Nigeria and the former Belgian Congo were culturally heterogeneous to some degree and this had some effect somehow on the type of Civic Education that they wanted their people to embrace. Then, there was the problem of poverty. School buildings, teachers, new textbooks, furniture and equipment required outlays that could barely be afforded, certainly by the more impecunious countries. Perhaps the greatest disadvantage and the most daunting task to be tackled as a priority was illiteracy. This point could be attributed to the fact that Civic Education was greatly lacking in most of the countries at this time.

However, in some Islamic countries the situation was somewhat different because the kind of Civic Education they were encouraging was not allowing critical thinking of their citizens. Focus was on Islamic studies which heavily relied on the study of the Koran though some challenges were encountered in the process. For instance, Grant (in Hahn, 2010) contends that in Indonesia, during the Presidency of Achmad Sukarno (1945 to 1968), Islamic education was such a force, especially in Java, that a Muslim Teachers' Party (NU) became a significant political movement. On the other hand, the President's policy of 'guided democracy' was designed to restrain independent civic thinking. The effect of this atmosphere on schools revealed some serious challenges on the livelihoods of citizens.

The provinces of India which on independence became Pakistan were formed into a consciously Muslim state in contrast to the predominantly Hindu state of India. Now, although

those reaching university standards in their education had the opportunity to read some of the western political texts in Urdu, by and large, compared with those of a Hindu background, the Muslims were slow to develop a national consciousness. This disparity has been succinctly explained: ‘The tardy and sluggish growth of Muslim nationalism was in great part due to a lack of educational progress. Schools and colleges were neither adequate to the needs of Muslims nor good enough for the standards demanded of them (Aziz in Hahn, 2010).

At the time of independence, even in the more developed French West Africa, let alone French Equatorial Africa, Hargreaves (1967: 12-13) state that the proportion of children enrolled in primary schools varied widely. The Ivory Coast, Togo and Dahomey (now Benin) all had nearly one-third, while Mali, Mauritania, Upper Volta (now Burkina Faso) and Niger had under one-tenth. An indicator of the effects of a firm commitment to education is given by Mali, which increased primary school enrolments from 8 per cent in 1960 to 12 per cent in 1962 to 20 per cent in 1972 (Toure 1982: 192). The nationalist political impulse for independence in Mali was refocused on education from 1960 to 1962. The prime consideration was ‘the political and cultural decolonisation of the people through the medium of the schools’ (Toure, 1982: 191) – to put the French policy into reverse. The product of this exertion ‘was a Malian school system distinct in character and purpose from the colonial school system.

In other words, the kind of education that was put in place was meant to address issues of liberation on the part of the citizens and in this sense there was some effort made in the curriculum to bring in programmes that were tailored along the lines of Civic Education. This is supported by Toure (1982: 191) who has argued that in the post-colonial era education was seen as a sure weapon of nation building, development and modernisation. Though there is no mention of Civic Education in the statement but it is clear that the only weapon that was capable of nation building, development and modernisation lie in Civic Education. In the case

of Guinea stress was on what could be described as a communitarian mode of education where the learning was supposed to integrate people's ways of life, concerns, struggles and indeed their expectations. It was more or less based on what this study is describing as service learning way of teaching Civic Education (Harber1989: 143). Through a close look at the whole programme one gets the sense that education being offered at this period was closer to indoctrination than anything else. In most Asian countries governments of respective states in principle were of one mind that education for citizenship was significantly important but had variations in the kind of education that was going to suit each state as an individual case.

2.6.5 Australia

Mellor (1998) and Print (1995) report that up until the 1990s, Australia did not have a strong tradition of Civic Education. As a result it was found out that on average students exhibited low levels of political knowledge, political interest, efficacy, trust and civic tolerance. Lacking in these attributes poses a serious challenge in social change and transformation of society. However, Dejaeghere & Tudball (2007: 40-57) state that, "Civics and Citizenship Education was officially revived in Australian schools through the development of the Discovering Democracy (DD)." These were the resources that were supporting classroom teaching and learning nationwide teacher professional learning programmes and the inclusion of Civics and Citizenship Education (CCE) in curriculum frameworks across the nation (Curriculum Corporation, 1997; Print, 1996, 1997).

One of the many reasons that led to the revival of Civic Education in Australia as noted by Mellor, Kennedy and Greenwood (2001: 7) was that, "the teaching of Civic Education was able to make a difference for students' political civic development and mattered a great deal for the country". Another reason worth mentioning here is that, "the teaching of Civic Education was seen as providing the opportunity through school practices to link to the community" (Holdsworth et al, 2000 in Dejaeghere, 2007: 40-57). It is clear therefore from the above

situation to argue that indeed Civic Education if well taught in schools is able to make a difference to the learners and the difference could lead to social change and ultimately contribute to the transformation of society.

Apart from that CCE was being emphasised in the Australian curriculum policy debates since the Senate Inquires into Active Citizenship arising from the background that there were clear inadequacies in relevant programmes in schools and teacher training institutions and evidence of ignorance and apathy concerning core structural, legal and procedural aspects of mainstream political life among school leavers and the wider community (Senate standing Committee on Employment, Education and Training, 1989, 1991).

Another reason that can be mentioned here is that, “the education system was seen to be failing to adequately engage young people in active and informed participation in the civic life of the nation and the wider world and failing to provide them with knowledge and participation skills to empower them as citizens”. In fact this point could be viewed as one of the major challenges in most of the education systems around the world. The Zambian education system is no exception either and this is one of the areas that this study is attempting to deal with. No wonder, DeJaeghere & Tudball (2007: 40-57) report that, “in May 1997, the Discovering Democracy programme for all schools was launched in response to the identified civic deficit of young Australians but also in recognition of the fact that Civics and Citizenship Education was central to Australian Education overall and to the maintenance of a strong and vital Australian citizenry” (Curriculum Corporation, 1997).

In other words, one would also argue that the kind of Civics and Citizenship Education that was being promoted in the Australian situation was one which was aimed at transforming their society. To buttress this point, the VCAA (2006) contended that, “the curriculum needed to include a critical focus on students appreciating the uniqueness and diversity of Australian’s

multicultural society and the efforts of individuals and groups to achieve political rights and equality”. This meant that as students, they were expected to consider human rights and social justice issues at local, national and global levels. Through this approach it was going to be very easy to talk about Civic Education that would enhance the transformation of society. The challenge though would be on the type of approaches that are used in the process and this will be discussed in detail when we examine the different approaches of delivering Civic Education in schools.

Some scholars and researchers have argued though that in some states of Australia Civics and Citizenship Education that was being implemented was one which took some narrow political and economic reasons (Kennedy, 2008: 23-30). Though this part has been challenged by DeJaeghere (in Dejaeghere and Tudball 2007: 40-57) who has found that the subject was located in the personal and social learning area of the curriculum thereby giving students opportunities to engage in activities including local community programmes. This agrees with the focus of this study where the argument is being made to the effect that the teaching of Civic Education should take an approach which allows the learners to engage with the local community programmes or what this study is calling service learning. That way, it will make them to contribute meaningfully to the transformation of society. Unless such an approach is made part and parcel of teaching Civic Education in schools the aspects of social change and transformation of society will always be a pipe dream. This study argues further that a change in pedagogy toward authentic learning and student engagement should be made key in teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools and there is also need to examine the different approaches that would be required in the teaching of Civic Education in schools.

2.7 Different Approaches and Models of Civic Education

Abowitz and Harnish (in Tuomi, Jacott & Lundgren, 2008: 9), analyses the multiple, shifting meanings of citizenship in the discourses of some contemporary theoretical and curricular texts related to Citizenship and Citizenship Education. Their examination is based on different assumptions and meanings of citizenship and how they relate or are connected to the teaching of Civic Education in schools. As such in this section focus will be on the different models of Civic Education available in the contemporary literature and see how they relate to the focus of this study. Based on studying the sources and most of the experts' ideas, Gholtash and Mahammadjani (2011: 1-7) state that, "Citizenship Education consists of various approaches and these can be divided into general groups which is either described as conservative or progressive". For the sake of clarity on these approaches an attempt is being made to discuss briefly each of them and others within the study (Banks, 2008; Dejeaghere, 2007; Schugurensky & Myers, 2003; Kerr, 2002).

Gholtash and Mahammadjani (2011:1-7) contend that, "Citizenship Education can be applied as a means of maintaining the present condition (Conservative) or make individuals capable of struggling for elevating alterations (Progressive)". The Conservative approach is that which is seen to that provide a specific priority for revising the culture, social and economic disciplines. The common principle is to induct in those getting Civic Education the sense of national loyalty, obedience to power and authority, willing and volunteerism and unify individuals and any other group of persons in the society. This kind of approach does not allow learners to interrogate issues that affect them and only follow with blind faith whatever is given to them. It does not also allow the learners to take and defend some position as they interact with one another in the community. This way of delivering Civic Education can be said to be dangerous because it does not make learners think. The thinking aspect is mainly done by the teacher while the learners are treated as receptacles. Learners trained that way may find it

difficult to be agents of social change and transformation in society. Teaching is about reflection on action, reflection in action and reflection for action and where these are missing it becomes difficult to talk about the transformation of society. Unless the learners are exposed to such skills during Civic Education lessons no much change of attitude and behaviour can occur in the learners and this can have a negative impact on the transformation of society.

Education ought to give learners opportunities of exploring their potential and not suppressing them. In this sense, one can see that the conservative approach to Civic Education does not clearly spell out how learners can interact with the process of learning and if there is no interaction then even participation fails to take off. This can be detrimental to the needs of the learners and society at large. In other words, the conservative approach to Civic Education does not give space to the individuals to explore other avenues in the quest to bring about transformation or any other form of change that they may wish to pursue in the community. There is limited thinking, lack of critical engagement in the affairs of society and lack of reflection and commitment to the ethos of a transformed society.

Progressive Citizenship Education, on the other hand, as an approach is different as it encourages participation of the individuals in the affairs of their society and promotes open mindedness. For any society to be transformed, a progressive approach to Civic Education is of paramount significance. Civic Education should always be progressive as opposed to being conservative and in this study I argue that unless the Civic Education is progressive there can never be any social change and transformation of society. In this sense, the notion of Civic Education must be looked at from two perspectives with some focus on the concepts, principles, mechanisms and processes of decision making, participation, governance and legislative control that exists in societies (Gholtash & Mahammadjani, 2011:1-7).

Another approach that could be considered in this discussion is that of David Kerr's (1999) "Citizenship Education Continuum" in which two ranges of approaches are given on the conceptual usefulness of Citizenship Education. On one end is the minimal interpretation and at the other is the maximal interpretation. On the minimal interpretation Civic Education's focus is always exclusive meaning that it is not all inclusive to the people that are exposed to it; that it is elitist in its orientation and does not allow many to be part of it; that it is formal by following some accepted patterns or system when teaching the learners or that it is based on formal education and didactic teaching thereby giving little room for the learners to engage, interact and create opportunities for initiative and reflective or experiential learning.

On the other end is the maximal interpretation which by logical extension is the opposite of the minimal interpretation of Citizenship Education. The maximal interpretation of Citizenship Education combines both formal and informal approaches to learning such as inclusiveness, activism, participation, and process based, values based and promotes critical interaction and thinking. One would see from the two approaches that the focus again fits very well with the study objectives even though Kerr (1999) tries to draw a line of distinction between the two. In the light of this, Citizenship Education is seen as a programme in the schools that can create very good opportunities for the learners to transform their society or communities. Based on a study that was conducted in 2008 and 2009 by the International Civic and Citizenship Education Study (ICCS), "Citizenship Education encompasses three main aspects such as knowledge of civic concepts, systems and processes of civic life; skills of civic participation, problem solving and negotiation and; disposition which is a sense of belonging, values and ethics". It is a full package which brings out so many issues that require close analysis. As a result, teaching such a subject would require careful analysis of the whole process. Otherwise taking a casual approach to teaching such a subject can be disastrous if there is no due consideration to the issues that are being raised in the discussion above.

Cogan and Derricott (2000, 1998), “provide key issues related to the approaches to Citizenship Education and is a multi-dimensional model to Citizenship Education”. The areas are categorised in terms of the four interconnected dimensions that include the personal, the social, the spatial and the temporal aspects. In their argument, Cogan and Derricott (2000, 1998), contend that, “these dimensions address the integration of personal, knowledge, attitudes and identity as a citizen with the civic/community roles of a citizen”. For example if we are look at the spatial dimension, it is clear to note that it draws attention mainly to the identity and roles of citizens in local, regional and global arenas. The temporal dimension addresses the understanding of the past, present and future perspectives. As a way of illustrating this dimension better, Cogan and Derricott (1998, 2000) came up with a model which can be seen in figure 1:

Figure 1: Multi-Dimensional Model to Citizenship Education

Personal		Social
A personal capacity for and commitment to a civic ethic characterised by responsible habits of mind, heart and action		
Spatial	Citizen	Temporal
Capacity to see oneself as a member of several overlapping communities- local, regional, national and multinational		
		Capacity to locate challenges in the past, present to future; a sense of heritage and an eye to the future in touch with reality

Adapted from: Cogan and Derricott (1998: 132)

Accordingly, in the above model, Cogan and Derricott (1998: 132), suggests that, “there is need for the schools to adopt such a model or approach in the teaching of Civic Education both for the curriculum and for the school as community and within the community. This kind of an approach has also been supported by others (Parker et al., 1998).

Furthermore, there are also other models or approaches that can still be employed in the delivery of Civic Education in schools. For instance, Kennedy (in Dejaeghere & Tudball, 2007: 40-57) argues that, “ there are calls for expanded models of Citizenship Education which

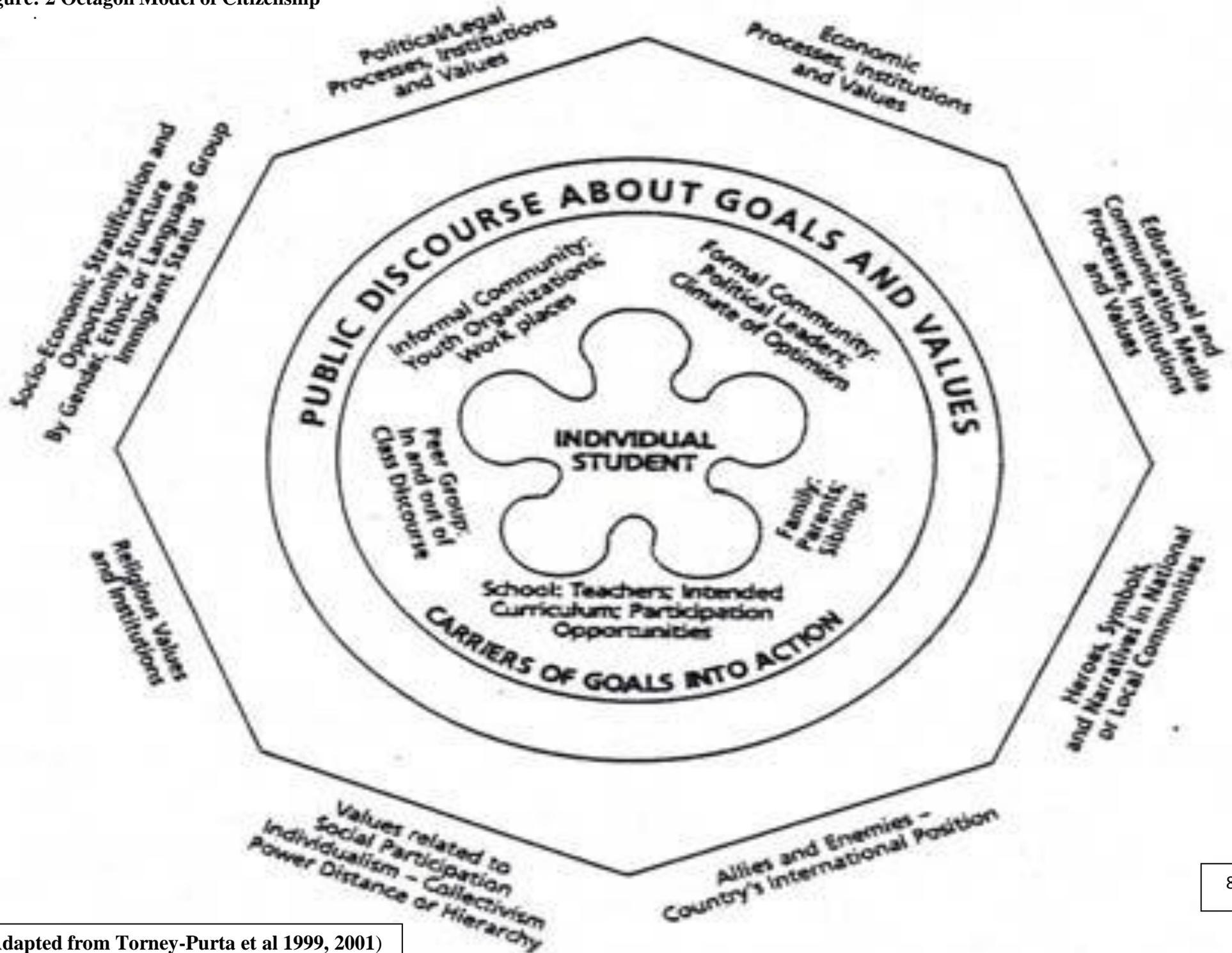
need to take into account the current geo-political realities, civic mega trends and civic realities”. This means that Civic Education has to be taught in such a way that it touches on many areas that may have a bearing on people in one way or the other in the community. Geo-political realities include among other issues, “the pressure for environmental protection and global conflicts, the impact of economic and cultural globalization on individuals and nation-states”. For Civic mega trends it refers to multiculturalism or multicultural education and civic realities as, “the manifestations of the problems confronted by citizens young and old”. In this approach it is clear to state that all these efforts are aimed at finding ways and means of transforming society and this equally conforms to the focus of this study in one way or the other.

The above model is somewhat in line with what Arbues (2014: 226-232) has argued about Civic Education states that, “it is a social necessity, a response to the problems of a society that is excessively technical”. This means that Civic Education can be looked at variously and a lot of issues have to be factored in if one is to fully appreciate its relevance to the needs of society. As such one is able to agree with Arbues (2014) who sees Civic education as a panacea to the many problems posed by contemporary societies. These statements are very important in the context of the objectives and research questions of this study and also the theoretical framework underpinning the study. They help in cementing the argument that Civic Education has the capacity to bring about social change and transformation of society as long as correct approaches are followed during the teaching and learning process. In fact, Cortina, (1997); Camps and Giner,(1998); Bartolome(2002) ; (in Arbues, 2014: 226-232) argue that, “Civic Education is the type of education which is concerned with the civic dimension of helping to overcome the individualism that isolates individuals from the community in which they live”.

Additionally, Civic Education can bring about transformation in society and this is well illustrated in the Octagon model of Citizenship Education as suggested by Torney Purta et al (in Dean, 2007: 7). Accordingly, Torney Purta et al asserts that, “the octagon model of Citizenship Education places the individual at the centre surrounded by public discussion about goals, values and practices relevant to Civic Education”. As for the public discourse and practices of society, Torney Purta et al contend that these influence the individual through direct contact with family, peers, school staff and neighbours and through its institutions and the mass media. Further, they contend that, “the outer octagon that circumscribes these processes includes institutions, processes and values in domains such as politics, economics, education and religion”. From the point of view of Torney Purta et al these may include the country’s position internationally, local and national heroes and symbols, the socio-economic stratification structure and opportunity structure and values related to social participation. As such the model affirms the position that learning about citizenship is not limited to instruction in schools but engagement with all that surrounds the individual and provides the context in which the development of the understanding of citizenship takes place.

Put another way, that the teaching and learning of Civic Education places the learner at the centre of all the activities of society and this has the potential to engage him in such matters that he would be required to address in the community. Through this it gives him an opportunity to participate in the transformation of society at various levels and this can be demonstrated in the following illustration:

Figure: 2 Octagon Model of Citizenship



(Adapted from Torney-Purta et al 1999, 2001)

The Octagon Model of Citizenship Education clearly demonstrates that if the teaching and learning of Citizenship Education in schools was to be taken along such a framework, issues to do with transformation would be greatly addressed in society. After all, the learners who are citizens themselves are supposed to be connected to the community and it makes logical sense that the teaching of Citizenship Education should prepare learners to get involved in their affairs in the community and society at large. In fact, most writers and other political commentators are all agreed on the argument that, “the conceptions of citizenship began with Greeks where all free men shared in the decision making and operation of common affairs” (Turner, 1986; Resnick, 1990; Clarke, 1994 in Dean, 2007: 10). Equally, it cannot be denied that, while the Greeks have played their role in matters of citizenship, it is also undeniable that, “modern conceptions of citizenship have been influenced by the French Revolution through equality, social fraternity and national sovereignty especially as it was related to the rise and new understanding of the individual's relationship to each other and the state (Sears, 1996 and Dean, 2007).

Presently, citizenship is understood, “as the relationship between an individual and a political community in which the individual is provided with certain rights and has to fulfil certain responsibilities” (Bottery, 2003 and Dean, 2007). This kind of looking at citizenship demonstrates the relationship between the individual and the community. As such it is proper to argue that the teaching and learning of Citizenship Education should put the student at the centre of all activities that are relevant to the community and contribute to the transformation of society.

Another approach worthy of discussion is the one DeJaeghere (2006) calls critical Citizenship Education. Critical Citizenship Education “includes several dimensions that extend the dimensions of knowledge, values and participation in minimal and maximal forms of Citizenship Education”. From the perspectives of DeJaeghere, this approach heavily relies on

the ideas of Westheimer and Kahne whose study forms part of the three forms of citizenship and also from the multidimensional model of Cogan and Derricott (1998, 2000). This model creates opportunities for the citizens or learners in addressing societal challenges and creates social change through the knowledge acquired from the lessons and also by participation. In other words, both knowledge and participation are used to empower learners in helping them to understand their role in society and how they can contribute to the transformation of society. This is done through what has been called by Kennedy (in Dejaeghere & Tudball, 2007: 40-57) as ‘teacher’s civic professionalism’.

Teacher’s civic professionalism is about the teachers and students taking part in decision-making processes together and trying to establish knowledge, skills and values required to practice duties and responsibilities in the community. This approach appears from the outset to be good but it may be difficult to implement owing to different contexts and also the fact that the power relations in some places such as Zambia may not be necessarily the same with those obtaining from other countries.

Cogan and Derricott (in Dejaeghere & Tudball 2007) provide a multidimensional framework to guide the intended curriculum which has already been highlighted in the previous sections and it does provide a broader framework for the understanding of Civic Education. While this is the case there is also another aspect of Civic Education whose focus seems to concentrate on what is being described as Critical Citizenship Education. This type of Civic Education extends the ideas from these models to suggest pedagogy – teaching, learning and assessment – that addresses causes of discrimination and inequalities, power asymmetries, hybridity of identity, and collective social action (Mouffe, 2000).

In fact, Merryfield, Merryfield and Wilson (in Dejaeghere & Tudball, 2007) suggests three critical pedagogical approaches needed or required to integrate global and multicultural dimension into Citizenship Education while Westheimer and Kahne’s work (2004) adds a fourth pedagogical approach. These approaches are reflected below:

- a. The contrapuntal pedagogy or the inclusion of unrepresented voices and experiences in the curriculum. Contrapuntal pedagogy “is the inclusion of non-mainstream literature, history and ideas that create new knowledge and understanding in contrast to dominant discourses”. It is a kind of approach in which students and teachers inquire about and understand how certain aspects of the knowledge gained from Civic Education as an example could be used to shape mainstream knowledge. This pedagogical practice allows for the views of marginalized people to be incorporated in teaching and learning processes. What happens is this that the learners are expected to learn from taking the perspectives of people who are disadvantaged, poor, oppressed, or lacking in many areas. Such a pedagogical approach tends to address the civic realities of many people; it also challenges a majority of young people to consider perspectives they may not have encountered. It does not replace mainstream ideas about citizenship, cultural groups, or rights; rather it allows for a diversity of perspectives to be contrasted and debated in the classroom. The inclusion of indigenous knowledge, voices, and history, would be one of those classic examples where an attempt would be made in ensuring that issues affecting the marginalized groups and their perspectives are included in the curriculum. This is critical if all the learners are to get involved in the process of learning. It seems to create spaces where all the learners regardless of their background. To some extent in this approach there is some element of service learning especially in the area of getting into the perspectives of different people in order to understand the civic realities ought to be addressed for such people. This could also be tried in the

teaching and learning of Civic Education in the schools if we are address issues of social change and transformation of society.

- b. Double consciousness, this is said to be “one way of examining one’s self and identity through the eyes of another, and understanding the complexities of identity affected by discrimination and oppression”. Through this pedagogy DuBois, (1989), goes beyond Hanvey’s (1983) notions of perspective consciousness, which aims to understand how others view the world. Accordingly, when teachers and students acquire double consciousness, it may mean that their aim would be to see the “world both from the mainstream and from the margins.” Thus, understanding themselves and others by examining how privilege and power underpin awareness (Merryfield, in Dejaeghere & Tudball, 2007).
- c. The third pedagogical process is cross-cultural experiential learning within different contexts of power. This is the learning that is said to go beyond the usual intercultural learning experience to one in which teachers and students experience, understand, and address issues of power and marginalization. This kind of learning may prove helpful in Civic Education lessons as it may have the potential to create possibilities necessary in terms of social change and transformation of society.
- d. Strategies for collective social action involve “collaborative mobilization with groups of people around an issue”. This means that knowledge and awareness of issues are used to examine structural inequities and the effects of these inequities on individuals’ lives. These strategies are also aimed at engaging young people and teachers in developing solutions and enacting them. From the point of view of the study, implementing such strategies in the curriculum has the potential to allow students to acquire critical knowledge, skills and attitudes related to citizenship. It is also correct to argue that implementing such strategies in the Civic Education lessons would go a long

way in shaping and preparing the learners in the process of social change and transformation in the society.

Other approaches such as those involving Education about Citizenship, Education through Citizenship and Education for Citizenship are equally important pedagogical strands of Citizenship Education. There are three major pedagogical strands of Citizenship Education that inform its approach to curricular issues (Kerr, 1999). There is Education ABOUT Citizenship and this according to Kerr (1999), strives to provide students with “sufficient knowledge and understanding of national history and the structures and processes of government and political life as done in the traditional, classroom-based civic education”. The second approach is Education THROUGH Citizenship which “involves students in learning by doing, through active, participative experiences in the school or local community and beyond”. Ultimately, this reinforces the knowledge component through direct field experience. The third strand is Education FOR Citizenship which demands that students should be equipped with a set of tools knowledge and understanding, skills and aptitudes, values and disposition. Thus, they require participating actively and sensibly in the roles and responsibilities they encounter in their adult lives. This strand links citizenship with the whole educational experience of students.

Further, Votz and Nixon (as cited in Ogunyemi, 2011: 378-385) state that, “ the idea of issue-oriented social studies and Citizenship Education curriculum flows directly from the second pedagogical strand with a long tradition dating back to Dewey’s experiential and activity-based learning and the Socratic way of questioning”. This means that the aspect of social studies or Civic Education should be taken as a programme that is meant to prepare the learners and the citizens so that they can learn to engage and participate in a democratic society as transformed citizens (Ogunyemi, 2011).

In all the approaches and models of Civic Education available in contemporary literature my argument is that there is no one model and approach that is holistic. All have some limitations and as such there is need to incorporate them in Civic Education lessons in one way or the other. Civic Education being an evolving subject from time to time may not need rigid approaches but rather a combination of approaches and especially those that service learning oriented.

In fact, Zyngier (2012: 1-21) argues that, “students should not just acquire the civic related knowledge, attitudes and skills but teachers need to take an approach which he has been described as thicker democracy in their teaching”. This means that they ought to teach reflectively, critically, participatory, tolerant and non hierarchical because this has the potential to make the learners understand and appreciate themselves as members of the public with an obligation to promote the public good. He further observes that teachers should not use what may be called as, “a thinner or authoritarian democracy based on uncritical knowledge, standards and competencies as the measure of the ‘good citizen’ as education need to assume a deep democratic engagement”. From the above argument, it can be clearly noted that if properly contextualised Civic Education could be delivered in a manner that takes care of thicker democracy as opposed to thinner democracy. The argument also seem to imply that the teaching of Civic Education ought take an experiential kind of approach or service learning approach if the learners are to be very useful in their community or put simply if there are to contribute to social change and the ultimate transformation of society.

Instead of education reproducing thinner democracy kind of approach to teaching that leads to disengaged citizens, it would be necessary that teachers practice an educational framework of teaching which supports thicker democracy. According to Zyngier (2012), “this kind of an approach can lead to a more participatory, empowered and engaged citizenry and a more inclusive participation in, and therefore safeguarding of, democratic society”. This means

a more holistic, dynamic, pedagogical, experiential, political, social, economic and cultural approach is a necessary step in attaining a decent society, and to produce citizens who are engaged, critical, and productive agents of positive change in society. In other words, Civic Education ought to provide space and the opportunities in which the learners are built into individuals that will add value to society and consequently be able to contribute to the well being of society as a whole.

Other studies of civic related curriculum have equally found out that Citizenship Education requires the incorporation of certain approaches if it is to be seen as relevant to the needs of society. For instance, Dejaeghere, 2006; Davies & Issitt, 2005 and Criddle et al., 2004 Cogan and Morris, 2001 all found that Civics and Citizenship Education in Australia incorporated both minimal and maximal approaches to Citizenship Education. (McLaughlin 1992; Kerr, 1999 and Dejaeghere & Tudball, 2007), state that, “on one hand minimal approach to Citizenship Education includes preconceived notions of what citizenship is often in exclusive or elitist terms”. They further state that, “it is often confined to promoting the good citizen who is law abiding, works hard, and possesses a good character, but does not discuss problems or issues found in societal structures creating inequalities among citizens”. On the other hand, “maximal approach to Citizenship Education tends to promote values, attitudes and behaviours related to participation in democracy and citizenship at all levels”. These approaches are being re-emphasised here again and this is indicative of the fact that the delivery of Citizenship Education ought to pay particular attention to such approaches if it is to address the challenges faced by society. I also contend here that it may be difficult to stick to one approach when dealing with Civic Education because of its complex nature. Therefore it is important that only those approaches that have a bearing on service learning framework are encouraged in the teaching of Civic Education and as such it is important that teachers of Civic Education bear this aspect in their teaching practices.

In fact Davies and Reid (in Tuomi, Jacott & Lundgren, 2008), advocates for what they are calling as, “the development of a new form of education for world citizenship” which according to them would require more than simplistic educational proposal such as the addition of some international content or global education activities into citizenship education programmes. Davies and Reid appear to be suggesting that Civic Education is a new form of education which is not simplistic in its approach to challenges facing society but a more practical and reflective kind of education which is responsive to the needs of society. This is the more reason that in this study I argue that the teaching of Civic Education ought to be tailored along the fundamental principles of service learning because it such an approach does expose the learners to hands-on knowledge and skills needed for them or of them to effect change in society. This in a way links well with the thoughts of the study whose focus is teaching Civic Education through pedagogical principles and practices which should invoke some thinking on the part of the learners so as to be as meaningful citizens as possible in their communities and society at large. In this sense, Civic Education is viewed as a subject that is designed to train the learners to learn how to think and argue how to take some position and defend what they stand for without ever getting to lose the focus of the arguments in the process. This kind of Civic Education if promoted in schools has the potential to make learners become critical and this way will make them contribute effectively to social change and transformation of society in the long run.

No wonder Sandstrom and Stier (2008: 69-73) have argued that schools, everywhere has some role to play especially in creating opportunities meant to address the needs of society. In this connection, they have argued that schools as social institutions have three democratic roles: (1) to teach students democracy, (2) to operate democratically themselves and (3) to educate members of society to function in a democratic society”. Schools on their own without the appropriate strategies and approaches would not realise its true mission. The employment of service learning in Civic Education lessons help to build a cadre of learners that will be able

to reproduce what they could have been learning in manner that will serve to initiate social change and transformation of society. In this sense, one would argue that Civic Education as a field of study induct learners into being democratic members of society who in the long run will take it upon themselves to be agents of social change and transformation of society. In other words Civic Education has to be seen to be reproducing itself through the positive actions and attitudes of the learners in the community. In this way it would be seen to following the arguments raised by Michel Foucault and Pierre Bourdieu on cultural reproduction.

2.8 Teaching Civic Education as a Tool for Cultural Reproduction through the lenses of Foucault and Bourdieu

The teaching of Civic Education in a way can be seen as an effective tool for cultural reproduction in society and in understanding this part; the study will try to borrow some thoughts in this regard from Foucault and Bourdieu in establishing whether indeed it can be viewed as a tool of cultural reproduction. One thing that must be understood from the outset is that the study is looking at the teaching of Civic Education in schools by examining trends that could initiate social change and transformation of society. The question that has to be addressed at the very beginning of this discussion is: how does the teaching of Civic Education effect change in society? How is Civic Education a tool of social change in society? Is culture or society changed or reproduced in the teaching of Civic Education in schools? These and other questions are critical in trying to underscore the notion that Civic Education could be used as a tool of cultural reproduction. Few insights from Foucault and Bourdieu be adopted in the discussion to see if the teaching of Civic Education could be seen in the context of cultural reproduction.

According to Grenfell and James (1998:11), Bourdieu looks at culture as a key word that refers to the world of knowledge, ideas, objects which are the product of human activity.

Since education is part of culture it goes without saying that the teaching of Civic Education in schools could be seen in the world of knowledge of ideas, skills, objects that are shared with the learners in order to give them insights required for the reproduction of their culture. From this position probably it would be seen as tool of cultural reproduction. Further, it is interesting to note as well that Bourdieu identifies two traditions in the study of culture and calls them the structural tradition, which sees culture as an instrument of communication and knowledge, as a 'structured structure' made up of signs based on shared consensus of world meanings; and the other one as the functionalist tradition, which sees culture as an ideological force or political power for imposing social order (Bourdieu, in Grenfell and James 1998:12-26). This again can confirm the position that if we are to look at Civic Education from the traditions of structured structure and functionalist tradition, what appears to be the issue is the knowledge that learners get from the subject and use it to manipulate society or use it to understand the various systems in society. In this way, it is possible that what is learnt from Civic Education using the thinking of Bourdieu could actually be used as a tool of cultural reproduction. Put another way, if that is the case, and then one would also be right to assert that the teaching of Civic Education following the same pattern as above could equally be seen as serving enhance social change and transformation of society. At the same time it could as well be seen to be impeding social change and transformation of society depending on how it is delivered to the learners in the schools.

In fact, Bourdieu broadened out his main argument in terms of what he called a 'reflexive objectivity'. Such objectivity directly opposed the identification of static rules based on pseudo-experimental analyses, as in the 'scientific theory' of Popper. Indeed, Bourdieu's notion of reflexive objectivity opposed any study which was aimed at reducing its object to an undynamic 'thing'. For Bourdieu, knowledge without a knowing subject would be anathema (Bourdieu, 1979: 252). This is exactly what the teaching of Civic Education stands for. It

opposes learning that is fixed and unreflexive because that does not make them (Learners) active and contributes to the well being of their society. Put simply, Civic Education that gives learners knowledge which fails them to interact with their communities could be only described as anathema to the whole process of learning. In this connection the ideas of Bourdieu in Civic Education on this aspect is significant to the main argument of this study.

It is common place now to assert as a matter of social theory, that human societies must be studied as systems of economic and cultural production. If we are to use such a theory in teaching Civic Education then it would be important that we follow the principles that Bourdieu is using in understanding the society or how society would reproduced. Bourdieu's concept of mode of reproduction, "privileging symbolic capital is intended to provide no less a powerful means of investigating systems of cultural reproduction" (Nash, 1990: 431-447). This means that, " societies, and social groups within societies, must reproduce as well as produce, in fact, it might be said that they produce in order to reproduce; and in order to manage the regulated inter-generational transmission of real and symbolic capital societies must necessarily develop appropriate structures which enable successful cultural reproduction". If this is the case, then we could as well contend that the teaching of Civic Education should be done in such way that what is learnt in the classroom is meant to reproduce a society that will be transformative in nature.

Civic Education that will not just produce and reproduce a society for the sake of it but producing and reproducing for the sake of transforming all systems in society. It must be pointed out here that we are looking at a Civic Education whose orientation is rooted in progressive/activist/maximal approaches which are as a result of a process of social reformation or social transformation if we are to put it in the focus of this study. This type of Civic Education is regarded as a tool for empowering individuals and groups to struggle for

societal transformation and social justice. We are not talking about a Civic Education which is rooted in traditional/elitist/minimal approaches which conceive Civic Education as a tool of social reproduction of the existing socio-economic order with capitalism and democracy as perfect complements of each other (Winton in Ogunyemi, 2011:378-385).

Understanding society as combination of social groups makes sense in looking at the teaching of Civic Education since its goal is to allow these social groups to engage actively in the processes of learning and also in borrowing Bourdieu's language pursuing active strategies to facilitate the inter-generational transmission of physical and symbolic property (Grenfell and James, 1998:12-26). As has been aptly put by Schugurensky and Myers (2003:2), "the teaching of Civic Education ought to produce good citizens who are compassionate, politically engaged, concerned for social justice and the environment, tolerant of others". This means that people should be willing and able to dialogue and active participants in public life and this in the view of the study is not teaching for the sake for reproducing the existing social order but in many ways goes beyond shaping society for the better.

However, it would appear that in most education systems schools everywhere tend to be conservative institutions, slow to social change. Obagi (in Abdi & Cleghorn, 2005: 297-315) defines social change as the alteration in patterns of social structure, social institutions, social processes and human behaviour and interaction over time. Futurist scholars provided insight into this process. For example Daniel Bell (in Abdi & Cleghorn, 2005) wrote about a new "post-industrial society" society, characterised by increased affluence, automation and too much leisure. Alvin Toffler wrote about the modern society being in a permanent state of future shock meaning that technological and social change can take place faster than people's ability to adjust to it. William Ophuls described a scarcity society in which depletion of resources leads to a lower standard of living and a strong, authoritarian state that regulates

conflicts between groups struggling to share the scarce resources. In this sense sociologists have described the school as a social institution, a community, a society and/or a socialising agent (Abdi & Cleghorn, 2005: 297-315). This means that the school has a vital function to play in any given society.

Datta (in Abdi & Cleghorn, 2005:297-315) using a structural-functional perspective, identified six functions of education, all of which require a critical interpretation in the context of Civic Education

- a. The conservative function preserving the society's dominant culture and passing it on from generation to generation(also referred to as cultural reproduction)
- b. The innovative function where the school is seen as a major source of new ideas and knowledge (also referred to as culture production
- c. The political function contributing to political socialization, the transmission of values, beliefs, ideas and patterns of behaviour pertaining to the generation, distribution and exercise of power
- d. The economic function contributing to economic development by inculcating knowledge, skills and work related behaviours
- e. The selective and allocative function as a filtering agency, a sieve in selecting and allocating individuals for areas of specialisation and levels of operations
- f. Unintended consequences of education referring to the outcomes of education that may neither be recognised nor deliberately intended by those who organise and run the system

As can be seen from these six functions of education it would appear that there is an overlap in one way or the other. In other words all these aspects of education interact with each other and can either take a conservative or a progressive way depending on how they are

delivered by those that are charged with the responsibility of teaching learners in schools. So as to whether, Civic Education promotes social reproduction or otherwise will depend largely to the approaches that are employed by the teachers during the process of teaching and learning.

The relevance of this in Civic Education is critical and can be seen as an agency for the reproduction of society in the positive sense. It is true that schools can also be used as instrument of oppression but looking at Civic Education it is correct to argue that it promotes socio-economic and political consciousness which allows learners to be always alert with matters of life. If one was to look at it on the face value in Bourdieu's analysis, then it would be right to challenge the optimistic liberal perception of the whole school system as an environment of social reform and equality. In the context of Civic Education it is difficult to see how a school could be typed as conservative force. On the contrary, the school with the support of Civic Education can be an effective instrument of social change and transformation of society. In using some of the ideas of Bourdieu we could argue that Civic Education in its active sense could be used as an instrument of transformation and not just as a tool of cultural reproduction. This is a follow up argument to what has been described above by (Grenfell & James, 1998:12-26).

It is also important to note that the teaching of Civic Education takes on, to some extent, what Bourdieu describes as the internalisation of externality and externalisation of internality or put simply, the incorporation and objectification of what goes on in the process of teaching and learning in the schools and outside school. This means that there is interplay between what is taught and what should be reflected in society arising from Civic Education lessons. The teaching of Civic Education if viewed from Bourdieu's perspective goes beyond the opus operatum or structured structure and lays emphasis on the modus operandi or the productive activity of consciousness (Bourdieu 1968: 105). With regard to the ideas of

Foucault, the theory of discourse becomes critical in understanding how Civic Education could be used as a tool of cultural reproduction. It is also important that we get the sense of what is meant by discourse if we are to use it in drawing some understanding of how Civic Education could be used as a tool of cultural reproduction or is it the cultural production?

If we are to bring in the theory of discourse as asserted by Foucault, one would get the impression that the teaching of Civic Education could equally be seen in the context of the discourse. Pitsoe and Letseka (2013:23-28), state that, “in the simplest sense, discourse is conversation or information” and in citing Foucault they have also argued that, “it is through discourse (through knowledge) that as (society/culture) we implying that people are created and that discourse joins power and knowledge and its power follows from the casual acceptance of the reality with which we are presented”. Seen in this way, one could argue that Civic Education is a discourse. As a discourse it creates or transforms society through the knowledge, skills, values and dispositions that are taught to the learners. The knowledge is passed on to the learners by way of engagement and other participatory strategies meant to create a climate of open space and debate with the view to promoting opportunities required for them to transmit values, beliefs, knowledge, skills, ideas and dispositions in the light of social change and transformation of society.

The kind of engagement and participation being talked about could take the form of conversation between the teachers and learners themselves. In this way we could see Civic Education as discourse whose power of knowledge and skills mediates through the learners who are supposed to share the experiences gained from the lessons with members of their society and in the long run can trigger change or transformation society. In the teaching of Civic Education there is communication that takes place and so the learners receive it from the teachers on how they want them to behave once there are out of school. They also

communicate to them how they should be part of the contribution to the transformation of society or better still how they should produce and not reproduce what they learn in school into their cultures. It must be noted here that it is not just receiving knowledge from the teachers but learners are also given opportunities to think, reflect and criticise taken for granted positions in society. That way it will be obvious that they could act to transform society. As noted and observed by Foucault the language plays a very important role in reproducing and transforming power relations in society.

Pitsoe and Letseka, (2013:23-28) further using Bourdieu's argument observes that, "language has also a critical part to perform in the social reproduction of society since it is not only an instrument of communication or even knowledge but also an instrument of power". That way it is possible to argue that through Civic Education as a matter of language it is able to work and could be used as a basis upon which it can transform society. On Civic Education as a discourse, Pitsoe and Letseka, (2013: 23-28) asserts through the lens of Foucault that, "discourse can transmit, produce and reinforce power but at the same time can undermine and expose power, rendering it unstable and possible to thwart". According to Weedon (1997: 108), "discourses exist both in written and oral forms and are inherent in the very physical layout of every institution be it in school or otherwise". If we are to take the thoughts of Weedon into the Civic Education then we would not be wrong to assert that the teaching of Civic Education can also be taken as a discourse since the teaching exists in both written and oral forms. Since a discourse is said to be something interwoven with power and knowledge, it can also be used to oppress others. This is a fact that cannot be ignored but it must also be noted here that we are looking at Civic Education as a discourse which does not stand in the way of others but focuses on bringing everyone on board for the sake of social production and not social reproduction per se.

The teaching of Civic Education tries to lay emphasis on how the patterns and distributions of influence inherent in the methods can be positively taken advantage of so that what is transmitted to the learners is that which engages them along the lines of debate and critical thinking. In this sense, the study is not really using the thoughts of Foucault and Bourdieu in the negative sense but in the positive sense. We are trying to understand how the power of language can be an effective tool in the teaching of Civic Education and later on transform society. In fact, Pitsoe and Letseka (2013: 23-28) have pointed out that there is a strong connection between power and social reproduction. So it is not only the power of language that is being emphasised here but even the whole concept of power which is seen as a tool of social reproduction and that it has the capacity to shape or mould individual learners to be able to play a role in the transformation of society.

Some empirical evidence has shown that the school is the main site through which reproduction of culture could be attained. As much as may be the case, I argue here also that it is not only in this context but it can also be in the context of social production. In real sense the school does not reproduce culture but it also produces culture and we see Civic Education as a subject that can in fact produce culture that is premised on the positive values that will lead to social change and transformation of society. In this sense, the nature of Civic Education cannot be seen only in the line of reproducing culture; Civic Education as a field of practice empowers the learners with knowledge to become responsible citizens and be responsive to the needs of society. To borrow Bourdieu's thoughts, the knowledge of Civic Education is capital because as a symbolic product of social field has consequences that go beyond symbolism. It gives the learners capacity and makes them assertive in positioning themselves in society and helps in the social production of society or indeed the transformation of society.

In other words, knowledge or capital should be understood in terms of its practical consequences in society and not just for the sake of it. Knowledge is a translation of the French word 'connaissance'. However, connaissance in French implies familiarity at an implicit, tacit level as much as knowledge of facts and things. Its practical power is only ever partly objectifiable by those who hold it (Bourdieu, 1990b: 112). The teaching of Civic Education through service learning approaches would give to the subject the practical consequences that can induce social change and transformation of society. Furthermore, knowledge is rarely only knowledge about something, but includes knowledge of how to do things. This latter, practical, procedural knowledge is not only pragmatically based, for example how to drive a car or make a cup of tea, but includes how to act, think and talk in relation to social orthodoxies and heterodoxies. If this is the position of Bourdieu on knowledge then it is proper to also state that Civic Education seems to take the same approach. Indeed, it also makes the learners to act, think and talk in relation to societal needs and makes them to come up with solutions of how they can address such needs so that society is transformed. Bourdieu argues further that the value of capital is dependent also on the degree of reconnaissance attributed to it, and 'agents possess power in proportion to their which can help.

As I conclude on this aspect, it is important to re-emphasise what has already been stated especially on language, that it plays a critical role not only in cultural reproduction but also in the cultural production. Therefore, the teaching of Civic Education, through service learning framework can be seen to be playing the role of cultural production but if defective approaches are used then it would indeed be seen to be playing the role of cultural reproduction. It would be important therefore to see from the Zambian Education context how the issues that impinge on the teaching of Civic Education have been addressed or are seen to be addressed. It may not just be looking at the teaching as an isolated issue from the large body of education but looking at every aspect of education in Zambia will help in trying to address

the focus of this study. Therefore in the next discussion I provide brief overview though significantly important regarding the status of Education in Zambia.

2.9 Development of Education in Zambia: Brief Historical Perspectives

For the purpose of the study, it is imperative that the development of education system in Zambia is discussed as a way of giving the readers a picture of where we are coming from as a nation, where we are and where we are going especially in the light of Civic Education. Zambia gained independence on the 24th of October, 1964. From independence to 1972 the country was under Multi the Party System of Government where there was more than one political party participating in the governance of the country. Multi party system did not stand the test of time because in 1972 the constitution was repealed to ban the existence of plural politics and was replaced with another piece of legislation which only allowed the existence One Party System of governance. Thus from 1973 to 1991 the country was governed through the one party system under the authoritarian and autocratic rule of Kenneth David Kaunda and the United National Independence Party or UNIP as it was popularly known during this time. However, 1991, Zambia moved into a politically functioning, but otherwise fragile democratic arrangement under the Movement For Multiparty Democracy (MMD) and later into a more fragile democracy under the Patriotic Front government (PF) which came into power in 2011 after defeating the MMD. In terms of tangible postcolonial economic development, Ihonvbere (as cited in Shizha & Abdi, 2005: 241-258) observed that it was one of the failed categories and the country's opportunity to prosper seems not to be improving with the processes of democratization. These observations seem to be correct and one can also argue here that things as at now in this area appear to be more blurred than they were probably 3 years prior to 2011 or so. These are views of the researcher but may not necessarily be the views of the people in the community. It is not the intention of the study to get into such discussions and details but is merely trying to speculate on the current state of affairs where things appear to be bleak under

the PF regime. Despite the not so encouraging realities currently obtaining in the country education, ought to remain intact and should remain so in the coming years and decades (Shizha & Abdi, 2005:241-258).

The development of education in Zambia can be traced through a historical contingent starting from pre-colonial traditional systems of learning to the time it was driven and guided by colonialism and Christian missionary-managed education. Later the post independence educational campaigns, as elsewhere in the continent, were aimed at expansive national development. It would appear that the educational campaigns during this period were not necessarily preparing the learners for real social change and transformation of society. We can pick the gap in this area as early as this time when education was seen in the context of expansive national development. This can be confirmed in the following statements:

The main tasks during 1964 and probably in the subsequent years after independence were to integrate the different systems of education obtaining in the country; to promote a purpose of unity without necessarily requiring a uniformity of practice; to ensure equality of educational opportunity for all children; to increase such opportunities rapidly at all levels to meet the national needs for educated and trained man and women; and in the process to maintain, extend and improve existing educational standards (MoE, 1964: 1-3).

Clearly, from such statements it was not the kind of education that was going to promote civic engagement and involvement of the learners but rather the kind of education that was meant to correct the wrong systems that were in place before independence. It would also appear that since then, the perception of education as central construct and practice for Zambian development has continued in the policies as well as the rhetoric of the post Kaunda democratic governments though there seems now to be ray of hope under the current PF

government to provide education which is going to address issues and needs of society as is enunciated in the new Zambia Education Curriculum Framework of 2013. The vision is meant to make learners; “creative, innovative and productive learners; connected to family, community, national and global developments; actively involved; capable of learning and living with others; life-long learners; and leaders and agents of change in the transformation of the society” (MESVTEE, 2013: x). It would appear from this that each government has been involved in coming out with its own system of education and this is evident in all the successive governments that have ruled Zambia since independence.

This argument is also supported by Shizha and Abdi (2005) who have stated that in Zambia, each government, through various educational policies, has attempted to effect educational reforms and transformation in order to democratize the system as reported by M.o.E (2000a) and that despite several changes that have occurred since independence, the Education Act of 1966 has continued to set the basic framework for the Zambian education system. Needless to say that other policy changes effected in the 1990s have also played a critical part in informing the current educational provisions and practices. This will be seen in the latter part of this discussion.

In realising the aim of education and the aspirations of the Vision 2030, the Ministry of Education in Zambia desires to design and develop a curriculum that produces a learner who is acquainted with the national attributes and values listed below:

- a. “maintains and observes discipline and hard work as the basis of personal and national development”,
- b. “is animated by a personally held set of civic, moral and spiritual values within the national and international content”,

- c. “is analytical, innovative, creative, versatile, employable, entrepreneurial, productive and constructive”,
- d. “appreciates the relationship between mathematical and scientific thought, action and technology on the one hand and sustenance of the quality of life on the other”,
- e. “is free to express own ideas and exercises tolerance towards other peoples’ views”,
- f. “cherishes and safeguards individual liberties and human rights”,
- g. “appreciates Zambia’s ethnic cultures, customs and traditions, upholding national pride and unity”,
- h. “participates in the preservation of the ecosystem in one’s immediate and distant environments and for future generations”,
- i. “apply entrepreneurial knowledge, skills, positive attitudes and values to accomplish greater achievements in life”,
- j. “is technically competent”,
- k. “is scientifically, technologically and financially literate and”
- l. “is able to provide competent leadership and team” (MESVTEE, 2013:2-3).

From such attributes it is clear that the new government’s vision is aimed at providing an education which will be responsive and relevant to the requirements of society. From the point of view of Civic Education such attributes are critical because for them to be realised they will need to be delivered using pedagogical practices that are service learning oriented and not just the same traditional approaches that have been used in the past. It is this gap that has not made things move in the direction of social change and transformation of society in the past and this study provides an exciting opportunity to advance the knowledge of service learning

framework in the teaching of Civic Education as one such approach that will realise such important goals and the vision for the country by 2030. In the absence of such approaches and strategies it will always be the same issues over and over again.

2.9.1 Curriculum Situation Position

What is given here is the current information as has been developed in the *Zambian Education Curriculum Framework of 2013*. As earlier stated this information is important in the context of addressing and guiding the focus of this study in so far as the teaching and learning of Civic Education in Zambia is concerned.

2.9.2 General and Teacher Education

Since independence in 1964, the Ministry of Education (M.o.E) has undertaken three major education policy reforms in its quest to improve the quality of education provided to learners at different levels (M.o.E, 2013). Firstly, through the Education Act of 1966 the main objective was to overhaul the whole system in order to meet the aspirations of an independent African country. In this sense the Education Act paved way for some reforms in Primary and Secondary education which were aimed at standardizing and diversifying the curriculum, besides relating the content to the needs of the learners. This also meant that the focus was not only in diversifying the two sectors but it also meant that at the Secondary School level, for example, new topics such as Modern Mathematics were introduced, and in Science a course based on the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization (UNESCO) Scheme was equally adapted and this meant that science could not be taught without conducting experiments. The expansion of Commercial Studies and Agricultural Science in the schools was yet another area of need that was to be addressed in the curriculum as the two had previously followed a strictly non-vocational curriculum. At the Primary School level, the

Government introduced English Language as a Medium of Instruction from Grades 1 to 7. There was also the integration of some learning areas such as Home- craft, Needlework and Hospitality as Home Economics; Carpentry and Joinery, Metal Work, Leather Work and Bricklaying to Industrial Arts; while Agricultural Science and Nature Studies became General Science. In addition, History and Geography were integrated and offered as Social Studies. From this Act it was clear that the government then was making decisions that were meant to address educational needs of it people so that once they have acquired the knowledge, skills, values and dispositions from such type of education, they would become useful members of society and contribute immensely to the transformation of society as a whole.

At teacher education level, M.o.E(2013) reports that, “in 1966, the Government introduced the Zambia Primary Course (ZPC) whose focus was to develop competences in students that would enable them teach all grades; Grades 1 to 7”. Besides, the course imparted English language skills in students in order for them to use English as a Medium of Instruction and communication in all the subjects. In actualising such efforts and plans, the government through the National In-service Training College (NISTCOL) played a pivotal role in retraining teachers in the Zambia Primary Course (ZPC). Before this reform, Primary School teachers were trained to teach either at Lower Primary or Upper Primary. The two courses were: 2 Year Lower Primary Teacher’s Course (L2) and 2 Year Upper Primary Teacher’s Course (U2). The reform was meant to train teachers who could teach from Grades 1 to 7(Mo.E, 2013).

Secondly, through the Educational Reform of 1977 government brought in changes in the education system. For example the Primary School and part of the Junior Secondary School Education (Forms 1 and 2) became Basic School Education while the Senior Secondary Education and part of the Junior Secondary School Education (Form 3) became High School

Education (M.o.E, 2013). For example, Basic School Education was to be done in nine years – Grades 1 to 9; whereas High School Education became a three year course - Grades 10 to 12. In view of the above changes this also had to be reflected at the Teacher Education level where, the Zambia Primary Teacher’s Course was now renamed as the Zambia Basic Education Teacher’s Course in order to link it to the school course. The curriculum for the Basic School Education underpinned the importance of teaching survival skills and communication skills. Practical subjects such as Industrial Arts and Home Economics and Hospitality were revamped and communicative methodology became the main feature in the teaching and learning process. These reforms were implemented in the middle of the 1980s. Looking at these reforms at this particular level it is clear again to note that the focus was indeed meant to bring about social change and transformation of society. The teaching of survival skills was the main thrust of this reform and it is no mistake to argue here that what this study is suggesting through Civic Education is meant build on the efforts that could have been started during this period despite losing the focus in the years later.

Thirdly, based on the national policy on education, Educating Our Future of 1996, the Teacher Education Department in 2000 reformed the Zambia Basic Education Teacher’s Course to Zambia Teacher Education Course (ZATEC) and the curriculum was changed, too(M.o.E, 2013). The Zambia Basic Education Teacher’s Course consisted of a large number of separate subjects among which there were only few links. Accordingly, M.o.E (2013), reports that, “the subjects competed amongst each other creating both superficiality and overcrowding”. The focus of ZATEC was based on the assumption that children do not view their life and their experience in neatly compartmentalised segments but rather holistic with no boundaries.

In view of this idea, ZATEC adopted a concept of Study Areas in which the subjects were grouped according to clearly definable relationships among them. From twelve(12) traditional subjects that ZATEC offered; English, Mathematics, Science, Home Economics and Hospitality, Physical Education, Music, Creative Activities, Industrial Arts, Social Studies, Spiritual and Moral Education, Education, and Zambian Languages, ZATEC integrated them into Six (6) Study Areas: Literacy and Languages; Education, Mathematics and Science, Expressive Arts, Technology Studies and Social, Spiritual and Moral Education. According to this course, students spent one year in college and the other in the school. The one year School Experience was meant to give students enough practice in their training and at the same time increase the number of teachers, and subsequently reducing the number of untrained teachers in Basic Schools (M.o.E, 2013).

In the same year, 2000, the Curriculum Development Centre (CDC) also embarked on the school curriculum review starting with the Lower and Middle Basic Education (Grades 1 – 7). The purpose of the review was to link the school curriculum to teacher education. Specifically, the review that commenced in 2000 was meant to; re-define the desired learner, re-define the teacher-educator/instructor and re-define the teaching/learning themes and outcomes so as to make education relevant and responsive to the individual and society. This kind of thinking agrees with the focus in this study where I argue through the teaching of Civic Education that it should be taught in such a way that it responds to social change and transformation of society.

The Secondary School curriculum was last comprehensively reviewed in the early 1970s. It consists of a small number of core subjects but a wide range of optional subjects. However, evidence from the Junior Secondary School and School Certificate Examinations results show that almost all learners take academic subjects, with less than 15% taking practical subjects of

any kind. In regard to the performance, there is some improvement in the achievement levels but Practical Subjects, Mathematics and Sciences continue to record unsatisfactory results in all kinds of assessments. On average, less than two-thirds of the candidates who sit for either the Junior Secondary School Leaving Examinations or the School Certificate Examinations pass Mathematics each year. Cumulatively, one-third of boys, and two-thirds of girls, have registered complete fail in Mathematics since 2005, while only half of the boys and one-fifth of the girls have managed to obtain a pass or better. In Sciences, the scenario is slightly better but not satisfactory. A massive proportion of candidates obtain a fail or only mediocre passes each year, with girls always lagging far behind boys. With regard to Language and Communication, much as the learners are taught Languages at various levels, a number of them are unable to communicate effectively. This is indicative of the absence of the communication skills component in the teaching of the Languages (M.o.E, 2013).

Quality education requires the availability and use of educational materials. The current situation in Secondary Schools is that educational facilities and resources are not available for the learning process, effective teaching and learning. Most of the teaching and learning is done theoretically, even for Practical and Science subjects. Regarding the ability to read and write among adults and youths who missed chances to attend formal education, arrangements have always been made to cater for them through Adult Literacy Programmes (M.o.E, 2013).

Adult Literacy in Zambia was introduced in 1966 and abated in 1970. In 1972 it was re-launched as Functional Literacy which spearheaded skills development programmes in areas of agriculture, such as growing more maize through (Muzenge in Chitonga, Shibukeni in Icibemba, Busile in Silozi). Generally, Adult Literacy during this period lacked connection to other levels of learning. A learner attended it for two years and ended there and nothing beyond was offered. During this period Adult Literacy was under the Ministry of Community

Development and Social Services (MCDSS). Since 2004 the mandate to oversee the provision of adult literacy has been given to the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (M.o.E, 2013). Adult Literacy did not tap into existing learning designs that included basic adult education at Open Learning and Skills Training Centres of the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education and line Ministries. In its design Adult Literacy did not promote learning that was associated with different life styles and human activities but promoted monolithic knowledge confined to few areas (M.o.E, 2013).

2.9.3 Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training

Before the coming of the missionaries, vocational educational and training was provided through the family socialisation systems. After the coming of the missionaries, they introduced schools that had workshops in which some Trades or Crafts were taught outside the family social system. These were mainly for the purpose of servicing the expansion or maintenance needs of Mission Stations and associated schools. Later, Government followed the example of missionaries and established Carpentry and Bricklaying trades as part of training in some educational institutions. This was the beginning of Trades Schools in Zambia (M.o.E, 2013).

Following the Saunders Report of November 1967, M.o.E (2013) reports that, “ it was recognised that technical education and vocational training deserved the highest priority as a contributor to national development”. This led Government to formally establish technical education aimed at providing comprehensive training programmes. Therefore, the objective in technical education was to train Zambians to meet the needs and requirement of industry for skilled manpower. The volatile economic environment brought about by the changing demographic (youth population growth), high oil prices, declining copper prices and privatisation of the parastatal companies (which displaced skilled labour from the formal into the informal sector of the economy) compelled the Government to review the 1968 TEVET policy.

In 1994 the Government of the Republic of Zambia began to review the 1968 post-independence policy on Technical Education and Vocational Training. In 1996 the new policy was adopted. The policy incorporated and mainstreamed entrepreneurship, and as such became known as the Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training (TEVET) policy. The aim of the policy was to create a national system of providing TEVET that would satisfy the labour market, address socio-economic concerns and exploit resource based opportunities in the economy.

More specifically the new policy according to M.o.E (2013) sought to:

- a. Balance the supply of skilled labour at all levels with the demands of the economy;
- b. Act as a vehicle for improved productivity and income generation; and
- c. Be an instrument for the minimisation of inequalities among the people.

As such the objectives of the new policy were grouped into economic and social contexts as follows:

Economic objectives to:

- i. “Improve the productivity of the labour force in both formal and informal sectors”;
- ii. “Promote entrepreneurship, and economic participation in both the formal and informal sectors with the aim of increasing the efficiency of the national economy”;
- iii. “Develop a Zambian society with people that will be versatile, creative, employable, entrepreneurial and productive”;
- iv. “Provide qualitative training for imparting appropriate vocational skills relevant to the socio-economic development needs of Zambia”.
- v. “Promote a rational use of local resources in training and post-training activities of entrepreneurs”; and
- vi. “Promote the economic empowerment of the women in our society”.

Social objectives to:

- i. “Provide skills and opportunities that will respond to Zambia’s needs such as poverty reduction, improved housing and improved health care”;
- ii. “Instil a culture of preventive maintenance and stimulate the development of quality assurance”;
- iii. “Provide access to training opportunities to all the people in the community”;
- iv. “Acquire a culture of entrepreneurship and promote self-reliance in the Zambian society” and
- v. “Ensure greater participation of the women in the development process”.

Recognising curriculum as a key input into the training system, Government made a commitment to work towards creating an environment in which the development and review of the curricula is end-user driven through increased coordination between end-users and training institutions. The mandate to develop curriculum for the TEVET sector based on this policy principle was later enshrined in TEVET Act No. 13 of 1998 as one of the functions of a new institution called the Technical Education, Vocational and Entrepreneurship Training Authority (TEVETA).

Given the above situation, the study contends that the education during the period after independence has remained, on the general expansion, at the expense of relevance to the real needs of the Zambian society coupled with classroom environment and teaching methods that do not really address social change and the transformation of society. As noted by Mumba (in Shizha & Abdi, 2005) the goals [in the education reforms] which sought to bring education to as many as possible, thus democratizing access to and participation in education but were never achieved. Put simply, reforms that have been made in the past have not achieved the intended targets and real change and transformation of society seems to be ever elusive.

In an effort to move forward, the Ministry of Education Reports (2000a, 2000b) strongly argued that, “Zambia’s attempts to be democratic and representative was an issue of national development” As such, national symposia were held where various issues of national concern were to be identified for inclusion into the school curriculum and undoubtedly so the re-introduction of Civic Education into the school curriculum was to be one of the many issues to be considered. It was seen as one area that would bring positive impact on the learners and eventually lead to social change and transformation of society.

2.10 Introduction of Civic Education in Zambian High Schools

The initial feasibility study on the introduction of Civic Education in Zambia’s high Schools was commissioned by the Southern University /Democratic Governance project under the USAID in 1995. This study was undertaken by a group of experts who were led by Professor Geoffrey Lungwangwa, an academician at the time from the University of Zambia. The findings pointed clearly to the fact that Civic Education needed to be extended to the high school level as opposed to the junior level of the school system where it was confined partially for many years under the guise of civics. However, due to some institutional framework challenges at the time the vision could not be realised and it was not until 2002 that another study was embarked upon. This time it was commissioned by the Governance Portfolio of the Irish Aid.

The main aim of the study was to determine the feasibility of introducing Civic Education in Zambia’s high schools and also identifying the current context as well as the structure, processes strategies and support necessary services for its possible introduction. As was the early findings, it was identified that there was an urgent need for the introduction of Civic Education at high school level to mitigate the gap arising from the confinement of the

subject to the junior level of our school system. Though one would argue that it was not really the kind of Civic Education that I discuss in this study but more of civics which was minimalist in nature and only allowed the learners to memorise structures and operations of government without any critical mind. Civic Education is maximalist in nature and looks at a number of issues broadly and critically examines the merits and demerits of each situation before a solution could be presented.

2.10.1 Rationale

The study did establish the rationale for the introduction of the subject in high schools arising from the following factors:

- a. That Civics taught at junior level had created a gap between the upper secondary and Tertiary levels and that was an urgent need to bridge up this gap.
- b. That the content at junior level was too loaded and detailed to be grasped by the level of learning difficulty for the learners at stage of the school system.
- c. That the skills and values in the content were also limited to enable the learners understand and practice their civic rights and obligations.

Though this aspect remains debateable in that some studies have shown that formation of character in children starts at an early stage and that is when learners can learn and master certain skills and values necessary for their survival in the society. Nonetheless, at the time of the study, it was felt that skills and values were limited and could not enable learners to practice their civic rights and obligations.

- d. That trained civics teachers had a low esteem of the subject and that preferred teaching other subjects to civics and also that anyone could be asked to teach civics.

- e. That also the pupils thought of the subject as not important and therefore did not give the magnitude that it deserved (Irish Aid Report, 2002).

Apart from the reasons above, the other rationale for the introduction of civic education was based on the understanding of the Zambian Government's White Paper on Governance; the National Capacity Building Programme for Good Governance in Zambia which identified and stated that central to the development of good governance was the expansion and intensification of Civic Education. It noted that in a democratic states such as Zambia, the whole population was supposed to be educated and socialised into safeguarding and implementing the constitutional order...if the populace was to realise that they had the ultimate political power, which they could exercise by withdrawing their cooperation , refusing to submit, even the most brutal dictatorship and the government was to endeavour to realise this through education , literature, arts and any other means of communication with the people. The White Paper further acknowledged that Civic Education had a key role to play in addressing a range of governance related difficulties specially:

- a. Lack of a culture of constitutionalism
- b. Human Rights violations
- c. Lack of active participation by civil society to the overall development process

(Conceptual Report, 2002:114-118).

2.11 Policy Issues and Challenges in the Implementation of Civic Education in Schools

In the light of the vision, mission, goals, and broad objectives, guided by major international and regional commitments, several policy developments within the education sector have been developed since independence. These are divided under laws and policies and some of them will be highlighted in the context of the study.

Government Laws

2.11.1 The Education Act of 1966

This was the first post-independence Government Law on education. It was meant to overhaul the colonial education system in order to meet the aspirations of an independent Zambia. The act paved way to a number of curriculum reforms, for example, the introduction of English as a language of instruction from Grade One to Tertiary. The teaching of Business Studies, Civics and Agricultural Sciences and Practical Skills were encouraged. Another reform was the teaching of Science in a practical manner (M.o.E, 2013).

2.11.2 The Constitution of Zambia, Act No. 1 of 1991 and the Amendment Act No. 18 of 1996

The constitution of Zambia was reformed in 1991 in order to take into account plural politics which are guided by democratic principles. This meant that the education system was also to be reformed in accordance with democratic dispensation. Thus, there was an amendment of the Act in the constitution in 1996. The Act became the cornerstone for educational restructuring and subsequent reviews in Zambia (M.o.E, 2013).

2.11.3 The Education Act of 2011

This is a law on the Zambian education system. It stipulates guiding policies on how best education in Zambia could be provided at all levels in the light of democratic dispensation. The Act adheres to the education development principles of Liberalisation, Decentralisation, Equality, Equity, Partnership and Accountability. It is from this Act that the emphasis on the need to clearly include knowledge, skills and values in the curriculum from ECCDE to Tertiary is based (M.o.E, 2013).

2.12 Government Policies

2.12.1 Educational Reform of 1977

This was the first comprehensive reform in the education system, which aimed at making education as an instrument for personal and national development. The main features of this reform were the introduction of Basic and High School education system and the focus on skills orientation in Basic and High Schools (M.o.E, 2013).

2.12.2 Focus on Learning of 1992

The declining economy in the 1980s had a negative effect on the provision of social services including education. All Government institutions of learning experienced serious inadequate resources of all kinds, including materials to support the curriculum. In 1990, Zambia attended the World Conference on Education for All, and in 1991 a National Conference on Education for All was held in Zambia. The proposals and working strategies aimed at improving education delivery were drafted at the conference and compiled as Focus on Learning. The document was used to lobby Government and Cooperating Partners to consider allocating enough resources to the education sector in order to improve the quality and quantity of education in Basic Schools (M.o.E, 2013).

2.12.3 Educating Our Future of 1996

The Zambian Education Curriculum Framework adheres to the National Policy on Education, Educating Our Future (1996). It is developed according to the aims of education outlined as goals in this Education Policy Document (M.o.E, 2013).

2.12.4 The Fifth and Sixth National Development Plans of 2005 and 2011

These are five year National Plans that cover the period 2005 to 2015. The Fifth National Development Plan embraces Vision 2030. The Sixth National Development Plan supplements the earlier plan by spelling out the key strategies in terms of education delivery. The plan embraces formal, technical and vocational education with the broad objective of developing, revising and improving the overall framework for quality education (M.o.E, 2013).

2.12.5 VISION 2030

This is a long term national development plan for the country. It provides a strategic focus of where the nation is expected to be by 2030. The specific theme of the vision is of Zambia becoming A Prosperous Middle-income Nation.

The Vision spells out the kind of a citizen the country desires. Hence, the Ministry has taken into consideration the issues therein in defining the learner in the curriculum (M.o.E, 2013).

As has already been explained, what has been given above is meant to situate the study in its correct context and also to understand the place of Civic Education in the school curriculum. At this stage it would be important to discuss further the direction of education in Zambia after independence if we are to understand the focus of this study.

Immediately after independence the Government of the Republic of Zambia embarked on reforming the education system in line with the aspirations of the people. With the legal backing of the 1966 Education Act in 1977 a major reform was born dubbed the 1977 Educational Reforms. The main aim of this policy was anchored on the understanding that each individual was to be accepted into the education system without consideration of status and that education was to be provided to everyone with the right kind of environment and opportunities for learning to promote satisfactory adjustment to an individual's life at each stage of

development. In other words, “ the aim of this policy was to develop the potential of each citizen to the fullest for his/her own well being as well as that of society and for selfless service to his fellow men” (M.o.E, 1977).

In fulfilment of the aims and principles of education, opportunities were to be created for each person by making sure that individuals obtained an education based on their interest, abilities and necessary needs to attain intellectual excellence and acquisition of practical skills and experience; education was meant to make individuals contribute to the economic and social development of the country; individuals were supposed to learn how to participate in the national and community problems and also learn how to foster national unity; develop emotionally, morally, spiritually, socially and politically so as to be increasingly able to cope with life’s problems; develop cultural and aesthetic appreciation and also develop the spirit of self-reliance and patriotism and sense of international solidarity (M.o.E, 1977:2-5).

In meeting some of the above objectives subjects like political and social studies were to be taught in schools and this was meant to get the learners involved in the understanding of Zambian Humanism which was the guiding philosophy of education provision, Zambian political institutions and their functions, social studies, cultural and economic development. From the above, it is clear and evident that the policy took care of Civic Education as early as this time though it was not clear on how this was to be realised in real terms of social change and actual transformation of society. Whatever the case, the policy appears to have been furthering the kind of education which was going to ensure that greater relevance to the cultural environment of the country, better preparation for citizenship, active participation in change and great understanding of humanity were attained.

Educational institutions were to be seen as being part of society and not regarded as islands because one of the purposes of education is to prepare the young people to be useful to society. Not only preparing young people to be useful but it should also prepare the young people to learn how to engage and get involved in community service and bringing about social change and transformation of their societies. It was here that in fact Political Education and Humanism found full expression and practical application. There was also emphasis in the policy that students needed to be involved in programmes that had a link with the community so that they could learn about the social, political and economic organisation of the nation and its institutions (M.o.E, 1977:43-46).

Going by this policy it would appear that it had embraced the principles of service learning and learners needed to be involved in the community so as to appreciate the linkage between theory and practice. It is also clear to note that the teaching of Civic Education was taken care of in one way or the other. What is not clear though is the extent to which the learners applied their knowledge and skills in the transformation of society. We cannot doubt that the policy at this time had all the good intentions of Civic Education but to what extent were the objectives with a focus on Civic Education followed and implemented? This question may not be answered by this study but it is such an important question that every study in this area would wish to ask so that we can appreciate the positions and directions that have been taken on Civic Education in the reforms and policy directions by the governments.

In 1992, another policy came on board on the understanding that the earlier was lacking focus in learning and the government then was trying to emphasize a new focus that learning was an important component of national development. According to M.o.E (1992:3-8), focus on learning's main agenda was on the strategies for development of school education and also trying in addressing fundamental questions such as:

- a. What was the system aiming at? In other words what kind of education was policy trying to project?
- b. How was the policy at present?
- c. What was the policy framework for?

It is important to note at this time that Zambia had evolved into a new kind of society which was inspired by democratic values and also characterised by the fundamental respect for the dignity and rights of all human persons. In the face of grave economic problems arising from the previous UNIP government of Dr Kenneth Kaunda which had lost power to the new government of Movement for Multi Party Democracy (MMD) under Fredrick Chiluba, a need was seen to change the policy and align it to the manifesto of the new government. In the new policy the role of education and of schools as the principal institutionalised form of educational provision were to be redefined. The policy was meant to prepare learners as individuals who would live in their society and develop into a new type of person needed to meet the challenges of life in Zambia at the beginning of the 21st century. The policy was to respond to the needs of both of the individual and of society.

The main objective of this policy therefore was to foster the fullest possible development of each individual for his or her personal fulfilment and as a significant member of the Zambian community (M.o.E, 1992). Among the many objectives of this policy, the study will highlight those that had a focus on Civic Education. For instance, the policy was trying to provide to the learners a thorough and sound intellectual formation which included among others a growing ability on the part of the learners to reason reflectively, logically and critically. An appreciation for the achievements, cultures and traditions of the past; the development of the imaginative, affective and creative dimensions of each learner in all courses of study; the development of character traits regarded as important and of a personal sense of moral values and moral responsibility; the harmonious development of physical

qualities and attributes that promotes the ability to use the best qualities of each individual to contribute to the greater advantage of the group. In other words, the policy was going to give the schools tasks of stimulating students to master certain segments of organised knowledge and of evaluating the extent to which they learners did so.

The policy was also meant to create opportunities within the curricula that were focusing on learning or taking a learner-centred approach rather than on the materials to be covered; promoting active student participation rather than passive reception. In the climate of learning, the task of the teacher was to help students become independent learners and assume responsibility for their own education. The teaching methods used needed to be those that would awaken political consciousness of the learners so that they become increasingly aware of social power and its components and of the forces working in the school, the local community and the nation.

Clearly, from the above it would be seen that the principles underpinning the teaching of Civic Education in schools were well spelt out also in the new policy just as the case was in the 1977 Educational Reforms. The teaching and learning needed to encourage students to express their own ideas freely and to be tolerant of the views of others. When learners are allowed to get involved in their learning, it becomes easy for them to appreciate their roles in society and in the long run they will be able to contribute meaningfully to the needs of society and later on this could serve as a catalyst of social change and transformation of society. In fact, the policy clearly stated that the principal purpose of a school system was student learning that is learning to think, investigate, question, reflecting, discovery, appreciation, achieving competencies in essential skills and thus acquisition of knowledge and skills that enhance the quality of life; laying the basis for skills that can be useful in making a living or providing goods and services (M.oE, 1992:27).

Though again under this policy the question to be asked is to what extent did the system address the needs of society and transformation of society? Clearly the policy had the focus of Civic Education at heart but it would appear that it was the same story as in the previous reforms and policies where on paper ideas were good but translating them into tangible results has always remained a big challenge. The current policy on education provision of 1996 equally has very clear goals and objectives that provide the direction in the area of Civic Education. For instance, most of the goals actually lay emphasis on the principles of Civic Education. Goals such as, “being animated by a personally held set of civic, moral and spiritual values”, “developing an analytical, innovative, creative and constructive mind”; “cherishing and safe guarding individual liberties and human rights”; “appreciating Zambia’s ethnic cultures, customs and traditions” and “upholding national pride, sovereignty, peace, freedom and independence” and “ maintaining and observing discipline and hard work as the cornerstone of personal and national development among the other goals” (M.o.E, 1996:5-6).

Other reforms such as Investing in Our People: Investment Programme ESIP 1996 Policy Frame Work; MOE Strategic Plan 2003-2007; National Implementation Framework 2008-2010: Implementing the Fifth National Development Plan Sixth National Development Plan; Review of the Ministry of Education Sector Plan 2006-2007, among the many others, have all indicated in their vision, mission, goals and objectives issues that have a bearing on Civic Education and it also appears that the language is almost the same in one way or the other. If that seems to be the case then the big question is the teaching and learning of Civic Education in the schools failing to hit the target of the various reforms and policies that have been undertaken since independence? Could it be that the strategies and approaches being employed are not effective enough or could it be that the teachers are lacking in pedagogical practices?

Fullan (2003) cited in M.o.E (2006/7: 19-20) states that:

“the answer does not lie in designing strategies... No amount of sophistication in strategizing for particular policies will ever work. It is simply unrealistic to expect that introducing reforms... in a situation which is basically not organised to engage will do anything but give reform a bad name”.

One would agree with the above statement. Policies have been well designed but the challenge is on how the subjects like Civic Education are taught. The teaching of Civic Education has what it takes to translate the objectives of policy that has been designed but it is probably the method of delivery which must be questioned. In this study I still argue that the teaching of Civic Education has the potential to bring about social change and transform society but it is the way the teaching is done which has remained a challenge to date. The aspect of service learning framework is clearly missing in the Civic Education lessons. This study therefore offers some important insights into service learning framework and several other approaches that could be taken advantage of in the teaching of Civic Education that would eventually lead to social change and transformation of society. The other challenge that can be discussed here is that the policy appears to be lacking in the monitoring and evaluation system in trying to see how the goals and objectives are implemented on the ground or in schools.

Any government policy or reform worth mentioning is not implemented or followed in meetings, offices or workshops but must be seen to be directed towards the intended target. If the previous and current policies and programmes have not realised what has been intended then the blame goes back to the whole programme. This can lead us in borrowing the questions that have been asked before with regard to the policy reforms in education for Zambia.

Questions like: Is the education system serving the needs of Zambian society in the 21st century? Put simply, is the education system serving the goals and objectives of Civic Education in schools and society at large? Is the current policy the right policy for Civic Education? Could we also say that reforms and other policies before have been the right one or were simply not the correct ones for Civic Education.? If all the policies that have been examined above are said to be good then where could be the problem? Is it on implementation where the problem lies? Are our schools places of real learning or they have just become places where people could be and pass time? Are the people delivering this policy and other reforms accountable to the Zambian people or accountable to themselves? There are many answers to such questions and this study will not give all the answers but what must be noted here is that probably the learning going on in schools does not make the learners critical, reflective, creative, imaginative or logical in most cases and as result the policy goals and objectives have not been realised as a result.

Equally, in the Zambian Education Curriculum Framework of 2013 similar questions as the ones being asked above have been raised in the following statements:

- “Do we have a shared vision for learners and their learning?”
- “Does the vision sufficiently represent what we want for our learners and our education system?”
- “How do we incorporate our vision in the national curriculum?”
- “Do we have professionally trained and motivated teachers and lecturers?”
- “Do we have appropriate infrastructure and resources?”
- “Have we identified and agreed on those values that we believe and agree as important for our country?”

- “Are the values that we have identified and agreed upon complimentary to the Vision 2030?”
- “Do we know how our identified and agreed values will be integrated in teaching, learning and the whole education system?”
- “Have we identified the systems and processes that we shall use to determine our effectiveness in promoting our values?”
- “Have we identified the competences that we would like to nurture and develop in our learners?”
- “Have we developed the necessary conditions that will facilitate the development of these competences?”
- “Do we have procedures to guide learners towards monitoring their own development and how they might demonstrate their competences?”
- “Have we clearly defined all the critical dimensions of purposeful learning, subjects, and learning areas?”
- “Do we have the means of verifying whether our education system is meeting the needs and interests of learners?”
- “What possibilities exist for cross-linking the vision, values, competences and learning areas?”
- “Do we have systems and procedures for monitoring learning and progression in relation to learning objectives? (MESVTEE, 2013: x-xii)”.

Such questions are critical if we are to take stock of the kind of education that is being delivered to the learners and the country at large. Put simply, such questions are critical in

guiding the kind of Civic Education that will be seen to be leading to social change and transformation of society.

The policy – as articulated in ‘Educating Our Future’ and even in the previous policies, is that all of them have been good but not being implemented effectively. Most schools are generally overcrowded making it difficult for all the methodologies to be applied in the best interest of the learners and this poses a serious challenge in policy implementation. The policy appears to be less accountable to the learners and the community at large. A robust and viable education system must be accountable to the learners and the community (M.o.E, 2006/2007). In the absence of that then, the policy experiences challenges and this could be one of the reasons why the policy does not come out very clean on Civic Education even though ideas on paper are excellent. It would not be wrong to speculate also that there is little willingness to embrace change and this might have a negative effect in subjects like Civic Education which at best is there to awaken political consciousness of the learners and prepare him/her to become relevant and responsive to social change and ultimately transform of society. It would appear that this need on Civic Education has now been realised that the subject has the potential to bring about social change and this can be evidenced from the Zambia Education Curriculum Framework of 2013 where the subject has been made mandatory in all the schools in the country.

2.13 Civic Education: National Context

Given that ‘Civics’ was historically understood in the Zambian school system as largely referring to political and somewhat constitutional education, there is need to draw a line of distinction between civics and Civic Education. The latter include a broader view of issues than the former which is limited in its focus. In fact, the findings from the report that was done by Irish Aid from 2003 to 2006 indicated that there existed a gap in Civic Education provision at

high school such that schools were producing graduates with little or no experience of civic life, a weak framework for collecting, analysing and processing information about society and their roles in it as regards rights and responsibilities (Irish Aid Report, 2003-2006). This meant that civics was not giving the learners the kind of skills that would be required to initiate social change and eventually transform society. In other words, students were not prepared for life as citizens and if this was the case, then it would be argued in another way that those students were not ready to transform society even if they had done some civics or something similar to that. As such the coming of Civic Education into the picture seems to address the gap. In fact, this is even clearly demonstrated and recognised in the 1996 National Policy on Education which states among other things that:

“Those who leave school should have knowledge and appreciation of the values that inspire society knowledge and understanding of individual liberties and human rights and awareness of responsibilities to themselves, to others and to society in general. While education towards this is important at all school levels, it is crucial for those in high school who are on the threshold of becoming adults” (M.o.E, 1996: 56).

In essence, the Civic Education programme is anchored on the goals of the Ministry of Education National Policy on Education of 1996 which are aimed at producing a learner who is capable of:

- a. “Being animated by a personally held set of civic, moral and spiritual values”;
- b. “Developing an analytical, innovative, creative and constructive mind”;
- c. “Appreciating the relationship between scientific thought, action and technology on one hand and sustenance of the quality of life on the other”;
- d. “Cherishing and safeguarding individual liberties and human rights”;

- e. “Appreciating Zambia’s ethnic cultures, customs and traditions and upholding national pride, sovereignty, peace, freedom and independence”;
- f. “Participating in the preservation of the ecosystem in one’s immediate and distant environments” (M.o.E, 1996: 5).

From the above goals it would be argued that Civic Education can be seen as having the potential in influencing the learners through the acquisition of civic knowledge, skills, dispositions and values which are vital elements in the transformation of society. The goal of Civic Education is, “therefore competent and responsible participation in local, provincial and national civic and political life (Oliver, 2006:6). Civic Education provides opportunities upon which learners could be empowered to and provided with various skills required to shape their communities. Put another way, Civic Education creates possibilities where participation of the learners is of the essence and for them to do that they have to acquire a body of knowledge and understanding; they may also have to develop the intellectual and participatory skills; they have also to develop certain dispositions or traits of character; and a reasonable commitment to the fundamental values and principles of constitutional democracy. Such skills if harnessed very well during Civic Education lessons there are chances that change and transformation of society will become a reality.

While Civic Education needs to be based on active student engagement, students need to know that civil or political issues are usually problematic and contested; resolution involves debate, discussion, negotiation and compromise (Kennedy cited by Abdi, Shizha & Bwalya 2003). The context of the research topic however is not only limited to student engagement but addresses the extent to which Civic Education serves to enhance or impede to social change and/ or transformation of society. To understand the level of and extent of Civic Education in

Zambia, one has to look at the role of the state in providing Civic Education (Abdi, Shizha & Bwalya 2003:56).

Further, they contend that while one needs also to review the content of the school curriculum and its impact on social and political attitudes. This probably agrees with the research topic which is trying to examine the trends in the teaching of Civic Education and how it responds to the needs, social change and/ or transformation of society. Early studies in the USA concluded that teaching civics was not hugely successful (Patrick, 1977; Langton & Jennings, 1968), although a central aspect of Deweyan philosophy of education was the relationship between higher, mass-oriented levels of education and democracy.

Denver and Hands (1990) found, on the other hand, that teaching politics to students in the UK resulted in improving their knowledge but did not change their attitudes. The issue here remains on whether or not that this could have been linked to the pedagogies and some trends applied in the teaching and learning of politics.

This study therefore seeks to establish this aspect on Civic Education in determining the extent to which the methods being used during teaching and learning enhance or impede social change and/or transformation of society. Flanagan (as cited by Abdi, Shizha and Bwalya 2003:59) observed that for young Zambians to be socially and politically incorporated into the body politic and develop habits that promote and sustain social, political and cultural rights, they should be given opportunities to exercise these rights and learn to fulfil responsibilities in community institutions. While one may agree with Flanagan but the focus is not only limited to developing habits that are tied to the body politic rather should have more to do with what it should be able to do in the area of changing the communities around and also being responsive to the needs and transformation of society.

An evaluation of the effects of Civic Education on political culture in Zambia which was conducted by Bratton et al. (1999) however revealed attitudinal change among the majority of Zambians. But we need to be careful here that we are not just looking at Civic Education in terms of change on political culture. Rather, the kind of change should be that which goes beyond the political culture. It should embody school based community service as a way of linking classroom activities with community life and this agrees very much with theoretical framework this study is using and this discussed in detail in chapter three.

Authur and Davison (1989:7) have observed that, “since the nineteenth century, the concept of service has informed curricula aimed at the social development of pupils”. The main purpose of such curricula was to develop habits and dispositions of thrift, prudence, and industry to preserve the social fabric and equip future workers with skills as well as qualities such as perseverance and humility. During the first half of the twentieth century, for instance, the construction of vocational and social education was anchored in the workplace and this was based on the premise that inculcating in pupils a desire to be of service to the nation, or society was an important virtue which had the potential to transform communities around. In the 1960s, however, the notion of individual needs in relation to citizenship was regarded as equally important. Such concerns slowly shaped policy at the time.

In fact, Authur and Davison (1987) contend that, “the 1980s vocational and social education was primarily driven by a desire to develop libertarian citizens who would be able to operate successfully in a market economy”. By the end of 1990s, Authur and Davison reports that however, this approach gave way to a commitment to the development of the social aspects of the curriculum founded on community service. Further, Authur and Davison (1989) contended that, “even The New Labour government in the United Kingdom at that time stamped its ethical mark on the National Curriculum by placing an obligation on schools and

teachers to promote social cohesion, community involvement, and inclusion together with a sense of social responsibility among young people”. Citizenship Education or Civic Education thus could be seen to be putting emphasis on a range of social skills and schools in this sense are to ensure that children will develop positive social dispositions through the curriculum. Certainly such social dispositions could be better articulated in the teaching and learning of Civic Education than any other curriculum subject in schools.

The above statement is also supported by Tupper (2007: 261) in the following ways:

When Citizenship Education in schools is limited to understanding the structures of governments without interrogating how governments may perpetuate conditions of oppression for many so-called citizens while simultaneously reinforcing the privileges of others, the possibilities for care-less citizenship abound.

The point being made above is that Civic Education remains a critical component in social change and the transformation of society. It creates chances which learners could utilise if they are to challenge and interrogate taken for granted positions in society. This is also supported by the findings from Bratton et al. (1999) on Zambia which indicated that Civic Education was likely to have a positive impact on the acquisition of political knowledge, civic skills and values as well as awareness of political, social and cultural rights of individuals. Put another way, Civic Education if well structured and correctly taught in schools could effectively bring social change and transform communities around.

According to The Crick Group’s final report (1989: 7), “the central aim of strengthening Citizenship Education in England was to effect no less than a change in the political culture of the country both nationally and locally.” This means that it had to prepare citizens to assume roles that would make them think of themselves as active citizens and willing also to work towards improving and transforming their communities. In other words, the above statement is very much in line with the study and for society to be transformed the teaching of Civic

Education will have to be examined and identify the best pedagogical practices that make students to think of themselves as important members of society.

This study contends, therefore, that the teaching of Civic Education ought to be done in a manner that will strengthen capacities of the citizens so that they are able to influence public life. As noted in the Advisory Group Report of 1998, this study shares the same thoughts especially with regard to the central aim of any Civic Education that it should not just be taught to effect change in the political culture of the country but rather it should be taught to bring about social change and transformation in the existing traditions of community.

In fact, as stated by Olssen (in Anderson & Hoff, 2002), “the education of children has a direct bearing on citizenship, for when the state compels all children to be educated it has the requirements of citizenship clearly in mind”. The right to education is indeed a genuine social right of citizenship, because the aim of education during childhood is to shape the future adult. Fundamentally it should be regarded, not as the right of the child to go to school, but as the right of the adult citizen to have been educated. This idea could be linked to the aims of this study in the area of learning Civic Education that it should not only be for knowledge acquisition but learning to become productive members of the community and thereby responding to the needs of society as well as transforming it.

As such, we could still re-emphasise the point raised by Davies, Gregory and Riley (as cited by Schoeman, 2006:129-142), “that conclusions reached and recommendations offered based only on opinion and conjecture have little merit particularly when speculation presumes to offer recommendations intended to effect change”. They further contend that, “if research activities are to go beyond mere speculation it is important to have a firm scholarly foundation

for conclusions and recommendations”. Accordingly, a firm and scholarly foundation is only achievable through empirical research and findings.

In this vein, this study therefore fits in well with such arguments because unless empirical research is done, it remains difficult to argue and speculate that Civic Education has the potential to transform society or is responsive to the needs of society and it is for this reason that this study attempts to make a major contribution to research on the teaching of Civic Education in Zambia by demonstrating that a service learning framework would help in addressing the main research question: (a) to what extent is the teaching of Civic Education serving to enhance or impede social change and/or the transformation of society? It is hoped also that through such an overarching question and other sub-related questions this study will make an important contribution to the field of Civic Education in Zambia by way of providing a firm foundation and conclusions regarding the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools.

2.13.1 Policy Direction on Civic Education in Zambia

In terms of policy direction it would be argued that Civic Education has been identified as one of the key elements in all the policy documents on education provision in Zambia. This has been recognised in the 1977 Educational Reforms, Focus on Learning 1992 and the current 1996 National Policy document on Education provision and now in the Zambia Education Curriculum Framework of 2013. For instance, one of the key issues from this policy direction is on governance. From the point of view of the Ministry of Education in Zambia, “Governance is a key issue in the delivery of Civic Education in schools and through appropriate strategies it can enhance the levels of learning of the learners and prepare them to respond to the needs of society at various levels”. This aspect comes out clearly in the new curriculum. This could be an indication that the place of Civic Education is being recognised as a key component in social

change and transformation of society. Further, “Governance is about developing, implementing laws, and evaluating policies and rules which guide and govern the actions of every society at all levels”. This means that Governance issues are an integral part of every society and therefore, should be included in the Zambian curriculum. As such it is significantly important that learning institutions expose learners to good governance by upholding democratic tendencies and it is from such that learning institutions could play a vital role in ensuring that communities are built on sound principles required for social change and transformation of society (MESVTEE, 2013:23-24).

Another direction from the new curriculum is that there will be what has been coined as the Academic and Vocational or technical pathways. The academic pathway is meant for learners with passion for academic subjects and desire for careers in that direction. The Vocational and Technical Career Pathway is for learners with ambitions and interests in technical and practical jobs. In the case of Civic Education at the junior level it has been integrated into social studies together with Geography and History in order to give the learners rich and vital essential knowledge, skills and values required for them to function and respond positively to the needs of their communities at various levels. What is important to note here is that a recognition has been made that learners at all levels of the school system will need to be exposed to Civic Education issues in one way or the other.

The academic pathway for the senior secondary school will consist of the following options:

- a. Social Sciences
- b. Business Studies
- c. Natural Sciences

In all these options Civic Education has been made as a compulsory or mandatory subject to be taken by all the learners following the academic pathway with a time allocation of 3hrs 20mins and 5 learning periods per week.

Under the vocation or technical pathway Civic Education is coming out as one of the options to be undertaken, and according to anecdotal evidence, learners are taking Civic Education as first priority as opposed to taking other optional subjects like Geography, History, Zambian Language and Religious Education. It would appear that even under the technical pathway others feel that Civic Education should be taken as a key subject. The time allocation remains the same as the one allocated under the academic pathway thus 3hrs 20mins and 5 learning periods per week.

Clearly, from the new curriculum framework, it can be deduced that Civic Education has been given strong position that all the learners ought to do and from this one gets the sense that if correctly delivered to the learners it can bring about social change and transformation of society. The onus remains on those who are charged with the process of delivering the subject to use approaches that will yield positive results to effect social change and transformation of society. In this connection, MESVTEE (2013:56) notes in the new curriculum that, “it is important that teachers and teacher-educators use a variety of teaching methods and techniques in order to cater for the range of learning needs taking into account the available local resources”. The teachers and teacher-educators should as much as possible, use methods that promote active learners’ participation and interaction. In addition, they should use methods that encourage learners to reflect, think and do rather than reproduce from rote learning. In this regard, teachers and teacher-educators are strongly advised to use the Learner-Centred Approach in the teaching and learning process. This is in agreement with the focus of this study especially in the area of approaches and strategies that are critical in the delivery of Civic Education that will bring about social change and transformation of society.

Gross (as cited in Anderson 2009:14), emphasises the importance of, “authentic and purposeful civics and citizenship learning in schools”. Accordingly, Gross observes that, “the transformation of disinterested, apathetic students (or the mobilisation of engaged, idealistic students) into active and informed citizens is the goal of many a battle-weary teacher”. He further contends that, “it is always a delight when a student has a light bulb moment when a teacher knows that at least one student in the class will take the information they have learned and apply it to their everyday lives and future learning”. This and many other statements on Civic Education confirm the argument that Civic Education lessons in schools could be delivered better along the lines of service learning approaches than other approaches. Transformation of society is only feasible in a situation where the learners are able to connect their acquired knowledge and skills with what is obtaining in the community and through that they are able to engage effectively and contribute to the required social change and transformation of society.

Bushman (1974: 171-174) raises issues that can be linked to Civic Education that until each student can develop a positive self-image, until each student can see that what he is doing in the classroom is related to what he will be doing in his world, it will be impossible for social change and transformation to occur in society. Such inadequacies can be addressed if the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools is tailored on the lines and approaches such as service learning which create an open environment for the necessary changes in local, national and world societies. In this way, the teaching of Civic Education would be seen to be offering great possibilities for social change and the transformation in society.

One would also argue that Civic Education espouses similar principles as those that are found in the Ubuntu philosophy. Though located in the African conception, Letseka (2012: 1-9) describes ubuntu as, “the wellspring flowing with African ontology and epistemology and

that it can be viewed within traditional African thought which articulates communal interconnectedness, common humanity, interdependence and common membership to a community". Such an approach, by and large, creates very good opportunities for transformation of society and it is these principles that Civic Education should promote during the processes of teaching and learning if social change and transformation society is to be realised. Civic Education should provide knowledge to the learners that will be used to create opportunities for change in the community not merely getting knowledge. This is supported by Freire (1972:9-13) who argues that knowledge got from the subjects should not be knowledge transferred but one that creates the possibilities for the production or construction of knowledge.

As has been observed by Edwards (1951: 394-402), "education is a social instrument of great importance and as a matter of fact it is never an autonomous process, separate and apart from the society it serves". It should always develop within a particular social context; it should be anchored in the civilisation of which it is a part; in a very real sense, it could be described as the child of the historic circumstance. This is true in the context of this study that the teaching of subjects like Civic Education should be planned in a way that it serves society that it is part of and bring about social change and transformation of that particular society. This can only be realised in the context of approaches and trends that encourage learners to think, reflect, analyse and engage critically with various issues during the process of teaching and learning. It is through such an approach that we can see real social change and transformation of society.

This is also somewhat supported by Banks (2008: 129-139), who contends that, "Citizenship Education should be re imagined and transformed to effectively educate students to function in the 21st century". It is clear from such a statement that it is not just getting

knowledge for the sake of it but transfer that knowledge from the subject to create possibilities for the transformation of society. It is no longer enough to just get knowledge but how is this knowledge used to bring about the change that the learners will use and apply in a positive way in the community. The focus should be on how this knowledge is making an impact on society by way of challenging some of the key assumptions and paradigms of what could be called as the mainstream knowledge. Civic Education ought to be built on transformative knowledge and turn it around to bring positive development in society. Transformative academic knowledge consists of paradigms and explanations that challenge some of the key epistemological assumptions of mainstream knowledge. Further, an important purpose of this sort of knowledge is meant to improve the human condition and improving human condition is in a way contributing to the transformation of society.

Additionally, Banks (2008) has argued that, “as citizens of the global community, students also must develop a deep understanding of the need to take action and make decisions to help solve the world’s difficult problems”. This means that they will need to participate in ways that will enhance democracy and promote equality and social justice in their cultural communities, nations, and regions, and in the world. In other words, Civic Education needs to help students get involved in the affairs of society and be part and parcel of the social change and transformation of society.

As rightly put by Edwards (1951: 394-402), “problems of the present should always occupy a central position in any educational system”. This means that in such a situation programmes of education at various levels and in different communities though different in the means and methods will still have to be made relevant to the needs of society and through that we could be talking of really transforming society. Further, Edward seem to contend that

educational institutions have the high obligations to serve as a critic of social values and processes as a means of modifying the culture, as an urgency of social control and direction.

Despite the challenges of the policy reforms from the past and the present it is important to note and appreciate that the Ministry of Education in Zambia has tried to revisit Civic Education and a lot of milestones have been scored in the area as the subject is offered in the schools, colleges and university. The Ministry has continued to promote the subject since 2003 and currently a new syllabus with relevant themes has been designed to meet the needs and aspirations of society. This is coming from the process which started way back 1999 when the Ministry of Education commissioned five (5) curriculum studies which were conducted by the University of Zambia. These studies were followed by a review of the lower and middle basic and primary teacher education curriculum. In 2005 the upper basic education National survey was conducted and information from learners parents, teachers, school managers, educational administrators, tertiary institutions traditional leaders civic leaders and various stakeholders in education was collected to help design a relevant curriculum (MESVTEE, 2013: iv).

The recommendations provided by various stakeholders during the Upper Basic Education National survey of 2005 and National symposium on curriculum held in June 2009 guided the review process. The review was necessitated by the need to provide an education system that would not only incorporate latest social, economic, technological and political developments but also equip learners with vital knowledge, skills and values that are necessary to contribute to the attainment of Vision 2030. The syllabus has been reviewed in line with the Outcome Based Education principles which seeks to link education[Civic Education] to real life experiences that give learners skills to access, criticize analyze and practically apply knowledge that help them gain life skills. Its competences and general outcomes are the expected outcomes to be attained by the

learners through the acquisition of knowledge, skills, techniques and values which are very important for the total development of the individual and the nation as a whole.

2.13.2 Implementation of Civic Education in Zambian Schools

The Civic Education programme was initially introduced in 3 provinces and selected high schools as follows:

Table 1: Names of Provinces and Schools for the Civic Education Pilot Programme

Lusaka Province	Central Province	Northern Province
Arakan High	Chibombo High	Kasama Girls High
Chongwe High	Kabwe High	Luwingu High
Kafue Boys Secondary	Ibolelo High	Mbala high
Libala High	Mkushi High	Mpika High
	Mumbwa High	Mwenzu Girls High

By 2007 the roll out phase was done in the other provinces as follows:

Table 2: Names of other Provinces and Schools after the Pilot Phase

Copperbelt Province	Eastern Province	Luapula Province	North Western Province	Southern Province	Western Province
Chikola High	Chadiza High	Kawambwa Technical High	Kabompo High	Choma High	Holy Cross Girls High
Chililalbombwe High	Katete High	Mansa High	Mukinge Girls High	Mazabuka High	Kaoma High
Kasenshi High	Lundazi High	Mwense High	Solwezi Day High	Monze High	Kambule High

Luanshya Girls High	Petauke High	Nchelenge High	Mwinilunga High	St Mary's High	Lukulu High
Ndeke High	St Monica's High	St Clements High	Zambezi High	Njase Girls High	Sesheke High
				St Edmunds High	St Johns' High

(Source: Irish Aid Report, 2002).The Context of the Development of high School Civic Education

Since then the subject has continued to gain considerable ground in the school system and as already mentioned in the new curriculum of 2013 the subject has now been made compulsory in all the schools throughout the country. Currently the subject is one of the most popular subjects in the schools, colleges and university. Students appear to like the subject at different levels of the school system though there has never been any study so far that has been done at this level in Zambia in determining the extent to which the subject is able to influence social change and transformation of society and it is hoped that through the findings of this study a clear position will be established in determining the level of social change and transformation in society that would come as a result of Civic Education.

2.14 Conclusion

The concept of Civic Education appears to be broad with a lot of interpretation in different countries. Over the years there has been a lot scholarship in this field and this situation has continued to grow. Despite the differences in interpretations and approaches in many different countries, Civic Education has gained recognition and continues to gain support in most of the school systems world over. There are also predictions from anecdotal evidence that Civic Education has the potential to influence social change and transform society in many ways. Some studies seem to indicate that with appropriate methodologies and frameworks in schools the teaching of Civic Education has the potential to transform the mindsets of learners and over time is able to transform society as a whole. In the next chapter the study analyses service learning is as an important approach in the delivery of Civic Education in schools .

CHAPTER THREE

SERVICE LEARNING FRAMEWORK

3.1 Introduction

In this chapter I discuss service learning as a theoretical framework. The chapter is divided into four parts. The first part deals with definitions regarding service learning. The second part discusses the historical background of service learning in education. The third part discusses service learning as pedagogy in education and fourth part provides the justification of service learning in the teaching of Civic Education in schools. A summary on service learning is given as a way of concluding the chapter.

3.2 Service Learning: Some definitions

According to Xu (2010:235-247), “Service-learning and the associated objectives and contexts are understood and applied differently from one county to another, from one state to another and from one school district to another”. In the educational context for instance, Xu (2010), asserts that, “service-learning combines service to the community with classroom study in a way that improves both the student and the community”. This is further elaborated by the National and Community Service Trust Act 1993, where service-learning according to Xu (2010) is described in the following ways:

- 1) “Is a method whereby students learn and develop through active participation in thoughtfully organized service that is conducted in and meets the needs of communities”;
- 2) “ Is coordinated with an elementary school, secondary school, institution of higher education, or community service program and the community”;
- 3) “Helps foster civic responsibility”;

- 4) “ Is integrated into and enhances the academic curriculum of the students, or the education components of the community service program in which the participants are enrolled”;
- 5) “And provides structured time for students or participants to reflect on the service experience”.

Some researchers have pointed out that, “service typically refers to volunteering, community action, advocacy, citizenship and activism” (Xu, 2010: 235-247). Likewise, learning has also been described as, “a process of questioning, reasoning, thinking, changing, reflecting and evaluating information”. Taken together, the meaning of the phrase becomes clearer: “service learning blends service with learning in meaningful, deliberate ways”. “Service learning is at once an educational philosophy, a pedagogical approach, a community development model, a mindset and a curriculum design” (Neal, 2003; Wade, 2007 in Xu 2010: 235-247). Service-learning links meaningful service experiences to daily classroom instruction and vice versa. It is believed that when service to the community is combined with curriculum based learning it builds stronger academic skills, encourages lifelong civic commitment, and improves workplace and personal development skills among youth (Homana in Xu 2010: 235-247).

In the Chinese context Xu (2010) states that, “service learning is viewed as a social practice which is understood and interpreted variously”. In the general context, “social practice refers to all the activities that human beings carry out in the society and in nature”. ‘Student’s social practice is one of the educational models. It means that according to the requirement of education and teaching, “students go deep into society, understand society and serve society

with teachers' guidance and organizing, so that they can achieve some specific educational or teaching goals" (Yuan in Xu (2010)).

In the educational context, for instance, "social practice means that under the supervision of teachers, students participate in certain practical activities within their community and/or in the society in a broader sense so as to gain real-life working experience, to develop practical abilities and to enhance their sense of social responsibility". Combining education with social practice reflects the intrinsic characteristics and the rule of education more correctly, and manifests the clear relationship between knowledge and practice in the process of education. "If the theories that students get from books cannot be integrated with social practice, then the theories will be impractical" (Zhu & Sun in Xu, 2010).

In this sense it would be argued that, "both service-learning and social practice aim to foster or enhance students' civic/social responsibility". However, social practice focuses more on social responsibilities. Through involvement in social practice: the young people can understand the relationship between individual and society clearly, in order to be a well-educated person who can know the urgent needs of society. Equally, it is important to state that in the teaching and learning of Civic Education students are always reminded to link what they learn in classroom to the possibilities and challenges that are found in the community if learning is to make logical sense at the end of the day. That way the service learning approach is appropriate in Civic Education.

Furco and Billig (2002); Billig et al., (2008) have shown that, "service learning to be a particularly powerful form of values pedagogy engendering a range of effects including improved academic focus". While definitions of service learning are diverse but the main features include student involvement in a genuine need in the wider community which is

purposefully linked through structured reflection to specific areas of the school curriculum (Lovat et al 2011: 135-154). This kind of approach would be helpful in Civic Education lessons as it would ensure that the learners in schools are brought to the real issues that need the attention of everyone in the community. With such things it is possible that possibilities for social change and transformation of society would easily be attainable. Unfortunately, this approach seems to be missing in Civic Education lessons in Zambian schools and for this reason, this study seeks to bridge this gap.

Kristjánsson (2010: 179-194) has equally highlighted service learning as, “illustrative of the radical change in the field of values education across the past quarter century”. He characterizes it, “as typical of the move away from cognitive developmental and values clarification types of approaches that are tilted towards an armchair philosophical stance on morality to approaches that are designed to engage students as active moral agents in real-world situations”. This is consistent with the focus of this study and it is hoped that the findings will help Civic Education teachers to consider using this approach in their lessons. In fact, Hope and Jagers (2014: 460-470) contend that, “civic engagement is important for individual and community well being”. It is well established in the research literature that civic engagement is an essential component of positive development all the youth (Learner, 2004; Yate & Youniss, 1996 as cited by Hope & Jagers, 2014: 460-470).

However, the challenge for education, [or Civic Education too especially in the Zambian context] as observed by Leeds (2010:795-810) is in the translation of education into action. Put simply the teaching and education in general tends to be detached from the needs of the community and that of the whole society. As is being argued in this study, teaching and learning of Civic Education has the potential to translate its objectives into real world situations and in the transformation of society if service learning approaches are employed by teachers in

schools. Service learning is as pedagogy provides the means of translating education into action. This thinking is supported by Vygotsky and Dewey in the sense that, “the former warned that moral precepts would mean nothing to young people and not be translated into behaviour if simply enumerated and described, and the latter’s central propositions were that education must be about solving problems and building democratic citizenship within an educational context that proactively nurtures values discourse”. Not only are we confining this to education in general but we also arguing that Civic Education is about solving and responding to the needs of society and building a society that is transformed in all facets. To do that there will be need to refocus our teaching styles especially in Civic Education so that they conform to service learning.

In line with the above, Crawford (2010: 811-824), “discusses service learning in ways in which modern education is called on to ‘re-claim democracy’ through pedagogy”. We can also argue that service learning can be looked at in ways in which Civic Education is called on to re-claim social change and transformation of society. Crawford seems to discuss service learning in the context of what he describes as Active Citizenship Education and critical pedagogy which by logical extension is Civic Education. He describes it as ‘active citizenship education and critical pedagogy’, that is, one that embodies both reflection and action. This is a clear demonstration of what this study is postulating that as Civic Education is taught in schools it ought to embody both reflection and action. That way it would be seen to be moving towards social change and transformation of society.

Crawford has also cited the works done by Kerr (1999) in the area of Education through Citizenship and reports that, “students are supposed to learn by doing through active, participative experiences in the school and community if social change and transformation of society were to be attained”. This resonates very well with other issues discussed in literature

chapter on the same aspects showing clearly that if social change and transformation of society is experienced Civic Education must take a leading role in inculcating knowledge, values, skills and dispositions in learners that will be lived and experienced. In this case service learning will be a key variable in realising this mission. In the same vein Tudball (2010: 779-794) surveyed international programmes and contended that, “ knowledge from school curricula combined with practical knowledge gained through service learning activities resulted in contributing to students’ sense of wellbeing and agency”. Put another way, the knowledge gained from such interactions with the community can result in social change and transformation of society. In this sense, service learning related approaches such as civic engagement if well considered in the teaching of Civic Education can yield positive impacts among young people (Sherrod, Torney-Purta & Flanagan, 2010; McGuire & Gamble, 2006; Checkoway, Allison & Montoya, 2005 Yates & Youniss, 1996 as cited in Hope & Jagers, 2014: 460-470). Additionally, Ginwright, (2010b); Learner (2004); Hope and Jagers,(2014) have equally stated that, “there are also community benefits of civic engagement because youth-led activities often in projects and policy reforms improve quality of life in the community”. With the foregoing it is clear to note that service learning related approaches if applied in the teaching of Civic Education in schools can lead to positive results and bring about social change and transformation of society.

Gibson (2009), “locates the conceptual framework of service learning within the notions of experiential learning espoused by Dewey (1916/1966, 1938/1936) and, the works by Kolb (1984)”. Exponents of experiential learning emphasize the role of reflection upon experience, not only to understand experience but to impel and inform future action: It is that reconstruction or reorganization of experience which adds to the meaning of experience, and which increases ability to direct the course of subsequent experience. This kind of approach can still be used in Civic Education lessons since learners are not only expected to learn

different aspects but are also supposed to reflect upon what they have learnt so that there are able to link things with what is happening in the community. Through such engagements between theory and practice they will be able in the long to begin to influence power structures and social processes within their communities leading to social change and transformation of society.

Boyd (2001:1-5) and Conner (2007) both seem to state that, “learning is a product of prolonged and disciplined reflection on experience and does not occur instantaneously or as a result of experience alone”. In the words of Gibson, “service learning experience affords the participants agency in their own learning, as evidenced by their capacity to develop and apply their own knowledge, make links between the new learning and prior knowledge, challenge their existing preconceptions and ask their own questions”. This type of knowing according to Conner (2007) allows for the operation of higher order brain functions in the integration of intuition, thinking, feeling and behaviour. It also allows the teacher to facilitate and support learners in the process of learning and for this there is a close link with the objectives of this study. This again is a clear demonstration of the argument that I bring in this study with regard to how Civic Education through service learning framework could lead to social change and transform society in the long run.

Lovat et al (2009: 183) provides an elaborate meaning to service learning and that, “service learning engages students in action-based activities where they can apply their curriculum learning in direct service to others or their community”. It combines principles of constructivist learning with a very practical manifestation of empathy and social justice in the form of giving to others or contributing to worthwhile social change. This means that with this approach being employed in Civic Education lessons learners are going to learn how to engage in action-based activities where they will be able to demonstrate theory into practice. This kind

of learning leads to change of attitude and gives learners different perspectives on issues found in the community.

Thus, from the literature surveyed so far one gets the indication that service learning tends to be viewed from a number of perspectives and that it offers a dynamic and holistic educational experience that has the potential to strengthen students' cognitive skills and moral character in a more powerful and enduring way than can be achieved within the confines of a classroom. From the perspective of this study my argument is this that it is possible that Civic Education serves as an indicator for social change and transformation of society as long as the teaching is done on the framework of service learning.

As such Lovat et al. (2011) have argued that, "action oriented pedagogies such as those surrounding service learning provide educational experiences which enhance student agency and autonomy in learning, reflected in evidence of students' increased motivation and engagement, as well as enhanced academic performance". Newman et al., (in Lovat et al., 2011) contend that, "evidence from the Australian projects indicates that pedagogies that include an element of service learning motivate students to apply and extend their existing knowledge to effect meaningful changes in the world beyond the classroom". This aspect addresses the main question being posed in the study on the extent to which Civic Education serves to enhance or impede social change and transformation of society.

3.3 Historical Background of Service learning in Education

Service learning was first coined in 1967 by Sigmon and Ramsey at the Southern Regional Education Board (S.R.E.B) in the United States of America when researchers, educators and practitioners had worked long enough together to identify the characteristics of effective service learning. In 1969 the board collaborated to write the earliest definition of

service learning as connecting student learning opportunities to community service and social change or transformation of society (Cipolle, 2010: 80). A decade later, around 1979 S.R.E.B elaborated on the principles of reciprocity and mutuality supporting Sigmon's three principles of service-learning as, "firstly those being served control the service(s) provided"; "secondly, those being served become better able to serve and be served by their own actions" and "thirdly those who serve are also learners and have significant control over what is expected to learn".

As such Cipolle (2010) reports that, " in 1989, a conference was organised dubbed the Wingspread Conference which gathered together thirty-three pioneers in service-learning and these were advocates, scholars, and practitioners and even educators who needed to reflect on its origins, practices, and the future". At the centre of this conference was a desire to connect theory and practice, schools and community, and thought and action. This aspect has a bearing to a large extent on the focus of this study in so far as the teaching and learning of Civic Education is concerned. We could also speculate that probably the debate was on the relevance or irrelevance of what was being offered in the school system that was not responding to the needs of society at the time. Responding to such challenges could have led to the emergence of this idea. We will come back to this aspect later in the discussion. Whatever the case, it looks like focus was on the connection between theory and practice as it relates to the relevance of what was learnt and how it was responding to the ever changing needs of society. In other words, the idea was meant to show the connection between what was learnt in schools and how it was affecting social change and ultimately transforming society. Is there a link between theory and practice in the field? This and other questions have been raised many times and in many places regarding the teaching of subjects like Civic Education and others in terms of their relevance to responding the needs of society or creating opportunities in learners so that they become constructors of social change or transformation of society when they are out of school.

According to Lounsbury and Pollack (2001: 319-339), “the term ‘service-learning’ was first used in 1966 to describe the work of university students on summer-internships sponsored by Oak Ridge Associated Universities”. Since that time, the term has been used to characterize a diverse array of activities attempting to create linkages between higher education and the provision of public and community service. “While there has always been some service-learning activity in higher education over this three-decade period, the amount of activity, the types of actors involved in the activity, and the meaning given to the activity have changed dramatically” (Pollack in Lounsbury & Pollack, 2001: 319-339). The narrative of the rise of mainstream service-learning practices could be organised into two general institutional eras that capture a major shift in the cultural packaging of service-learning: from a ‘program’ (1966–82) to a curricular ‘method’ (1983-present). This is also true in the context of this study and what is being addressed as service learning in the teaching of Civic Education in schools may not be as the term was initially perceived. As such in this study I use it as a curricular method of pedagogy which can be used in the Civic Education lessons in terms of linking theory and practice.

As noted by Lounsbury and Pollack (2001: 319-339), “Service-learning appeared initially in the mid-1960s, when there was a great deal of expansion in higher education and attention paid to anti poverty and social reform programs”. Thus, the Great Society and the War on Poverty made social reform a very visible part of the national agenda, with significant implications for higher education and its responsibility in the face of social problems (Lounsbury & Pollack, 2001). While this innovation took many forms, one of the guiding themes was the perceived need for students to get out of the isolation of their cloisters and connect with the social realities of the real world. This seems to be the biggest challenge that many of the programmes and courses have in the schools and institutions of learning that there is no linkage with what is

taking place in class and what is found outside the classroom and this poses a great challenge to the transformation of society over time. As rightly observed by some scholars that, “relevance and individualized learning was the driving mantra in many reform efforts, as compared to the archaic, highly structured traditional degree program” (Dressel, 1971; Cross and Valley, 1974; Heiss, 1973 in Lounsbury & Pollack, 2001).

Additionally, Lounsbury and Pollack (2001: 319-339) contend that, “ further information on how the service learning as a teaching method was developed and supported in the United States of America, and that in response to demand for curricular relevance and a more individualized learning process, a variety of alternative educational programs began to form on college campuses". Further, Lounsbury and Pollack (2001) state that, “ the processes involved the principles of experiential education, field-study, alternative urban semesters and international study programs, among others, that were to provide students with the opportunity to become involved in addressing real social problems as part of their formal educational experience”. This meant that other programmes had to be initiated in order to connect to the emergence of service learning as a field of practice in the schools and institutions of learning. For instance, practitioners began to develop professional associations to facilitate information exchange, the codification of principles of practice, and more close linkages to higher education. Lounsbury and Pollack (2001) noted that, “the National Center for Public Service Internship Programs (1971) and the Society for Field Experience Education (1972) were created as the principal practitioner associations connected to the emergence of service-learning field”. Originating in very different contexts and representing different communities of practitioners, these two organizations merged in 1979, forming the National Society for Internships and Experiential Education.

This was the beginning of another era of activity which was also marked by a federally sponsored dissemination network, which was connected to the federal volunteer office, ACTION, and focused on cultivating student involvement in the antipoverty effort. “ Building on these strong roots in the anti-poverty movement and efforts by educators to identify learning opportunities independent of traditional discipline-based frameworks, a service-learning paradigm emerged that was in opposition to the dominant higher education approaches to knowledge development and dissemination” (Lounsbury & Pollack, 2001: 319-339). While the practitioners had different origins, they were united in the belief that students could be productive foot soldiers in the war on poverty; and that the attempt to resolve, or at least more deeply understand, social problems provided a rich learning setting that responded to the need for more relevant, self-directed educational processes. The ‘service-learning internship program’ became the dominant programmatic model during this institutional era. Students participating in ‘service-learning internships’ spent significant amounts of time off-campus, intensely involved in anti-poverty programs and other efforts to further address social problems. In exchange, the university provided academic credit for the work, acknowledging the learning that would be occurring in the community setting.

By 1979, the year when the NSVP became the National Center for Service Learning, service-learning internship programs existed throughout the higher education field (Duley, 1977, 1981; National Center for Service Learning, 1979; Armajani and Cheany in Lounsbury & Pollack, 2001: 319-339). This meant that students were now required to work significant hours in the community agency instead of taking classroom-based courses. While programs would have a concurrent seminar or meeting to facilitate reflection on the field experience, this was conceived as a support mechanism for the field-based learning process, and not as an extension of the classroom. Finally, field-based programs emphasized a learner-centred and directed learning process, focusing on learning outcomes more often linked to the affective side

of personal development than to the strict cognitive emphasis of traditional classroom learning processes. This aspect is significant to the focus of this study in that it resonates very well with what I am advancing in the whole study. There seems to be a gap being identified here that more often than not, teaching in schools follows only the cognitive part ignoring completely the field based learning which if followed has the potential to bring about social change and transformation of society. This seems to be gap that is I see in the teaching of Civic Education in schools. No wonder, the focus of this study is based on the understanding that unless teaching is done based on service learning perspectives, it is difficult to realise a meaningful change or even the transformation of society. Thus, as a method it should be able to integrate theory and practice and there can never be transformation of any society without realising that efforts in schools ought to be linked with the needs of society. As a 'method' Lounsbury & Pollack (2001: 319-339) state that, "it emphasizes not only student learning, but also a certain type of learning that is 'integrated into the students' academic curriculum'"

Zieren and Stoddard (in Speck & Hoppe 2004:24-25) observed that, "modern definitions of service-learning and community learning can trace their roots deep in the history of American democracy and higher education." They argued that government was supposed to rely upon the consent of the governed. As such they saw education as playing a key and critical role in socializing the people into proper functions as citizens and shaping public opinion in incalculable ways. They further contended that the relationship between the citizen and government, between individuals and their constituent communities, needed to be always seen as a work in progress without a definitive beginning or end, and the role education plays in the relationship must be evaluated and strengthened anew by each generation. The founders of Harvard and Yale according to Hofstadter (in Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 24-25) understood this in the mid seventeenth century, as did the creators of the University of Georgia (Rudolph, 1962) and Thomas Jefferson's University of Virginia (Cunningham, 1987) in the late eighteenth

century. What these men understood as service to the community and practical learning for the times may seem limited by the resources devoted to the task, the remoteness from European centres of learning, or the modest scope the professions played in Colonial and Federalist times.

But the prevalence of literacy observed by Lockridge (in Speck & Hoppe 2004:24), the commitment to public education in the Northwest Ordinances (Ostrander, in Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 24-25), and the need for an informed electorate in a society devoted to government by the people, of the people, and for the people were evident by the end of the eighteenth century. In other words it was evident that the kind of education to be offered to the citizens needed to be that which was in line with what they were to experience in their communities.

What set American colleges and universities apart in their earliest years from European models was the extremely limited role the state played in education. European universities still taught the original disciplines of law, medicine, theology, and philosophy and certified students as qualified to function in law courts, state bureaucracies, and established churches (Hofstadter, in Zieren & Stoddard, 2004: 24). American governments at all levels needed only the barest minimum of personnel for state purposes and never relied on early institutions for certification. These circumstances reduced state support to little or nothing for most colleges but offered important advantages for the future of higher education. American colleges and universities were freer to adapt curriculum to changing societal needs, freer to experiment with new forms of learning, and freer to make learning serve the community. Ironically, the freedom to experiment often entailed importing educational innovations from Great Britain, Germany, France, and even Russia to enrich the scope of learning for American students (Cremin, in Zieren & Stoddard, 2004: 25).

Despite a promising start new state universities and the founding of hundreds of colleges with denominational affiliations, American higher education faced what Rudolph (in Speck & Hoppe, 2004; 25) called a crisis in the years just before the Civil War. Questions of quality, standards, and excellence had yet to be answered systematically among the bewildering array of institutions that called themselves colleges or universities. They reflected a largely agrarian and rural society, serving to provide a supply of doctors, lawyers, and preachers to staff the professions and educate the sons of gentlemen but accomplished little else. It would appear from this sense that the kind of education that was demanded by the general populace was that which combined theory and practice and not necessary producing people who after getting their certificates failed to make a mark in the tour of their duty in the community. This is supported by Hofstadter (in Speck & Hoppe 2004: 25) who argues that contemporaries complained that even the education of professionals was second-rate and often incomplete.

The pedagogy of most colleges relied on quizzes, recitations, and committing to memory textbooks full of Greek, Latin, mathematics, and theology (Metzger, in Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 25). The high point of the college year was the annual public-speaking contest and recitations on patriotic or religious themes. Governing boards were made up of local clergy and business donors who made sure professors and students adhered to orthodox thinking, and the seniors' capstone course was the college president's own class in moral philosophy (Metzger in Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 25). Rodgers (in Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 25) noted that the consequence of such devotion to a calcified curriculum was just a structured commitment to the simplified and out of date kind of learning. Learning which did not make the learners to translate their knowledge and skills to the betterment of society.

As such Rudolph (in Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 30) reports that in the years around 1900 new concepts of what tasks a university should perform and the role it should play in a democratic society began to shape American universities. Like the German universities, research in the United States came to mean adding to the sum of knowledge available to humanity. But the process of discovery also entailed spreading the benefits of knowledge to new segments in society and to society at large. In the words of the Reverend Lyman Abbott, the purpose of scholarship in the American university needed to be regarded as equipment for service. In 1899 James Burrill Angell, president of the University of Michigan, is said to have noted the contrast between the ideal of public service that inspired the great universities and made them servants of American democracy and the college earlier in the century that most citizens regarded as ‘a home of useless and harmless recluses’.

The service function of American universities first flowered in that uniquely optimistic age known as the Progressive Era, a time when many believed that informed and enlightened voters were the essential catalyst in remaking American democracy to suit the modern age (Cooper in Speck & Hoppe, 2004:30). Who better to inform the citizenry than the newly minted army of fresh college graduates? Colleges and universities became more prominent in community life as enrolment grew and a greater percentage of young adults took part in higher education.

The model for university graduate engagement in reform and democracy was Wisconsin and its university in Madison. President Charles Van Hise called it “the Wisconsin Idea,” a broadly conceived project to foster reform and civic improvement based on the specialized knowledge embodied by the university and its graduates (Rudolph in Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 31). Agricultural economists aided farmers to find the most profitable mix of crops and activities, public policy analysts examined the rate structure of railroads and street

railways to set rates in the public interest, and labour experts on the Industrial Commission studied wages and working conditions to improve the status of the working class (Zieren & Stoddard in Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 31). All these issues were meant to address the needs of the community to the point of transforming society as a whole.

This explains the reason why the Wisconsin Idea rested on the conviction that students and university-trained experts could apply themselves to the problems of modern society and make democracy work more effectively if only they got involved into what was happening around in society. In this sense the process of teaching and learning needed to be refocused so that it could take into account the aspirations of society as a whole. Students graduating from schools, colleges and universities needed to show- case their skills and knowledge in the community. Ideas learnt in schools were to be tested in the community and not only remain in the minds of the students for their own prestige.

This seems to be the case in the Zambian scenario where there seems to be a gap in the education sector between theory and practice. Anecdotal evidence seems to suggest that the Zambian society is not seeing real benefits of education from its people. There is a mismatch between theory and practice. Learners are failing to apply their skills and knowledge in society and this is having some negative effects in so far as the transformation of society is concerned. In the American context, part of the democratic appeal of the Wisconsin Idea came from its popular extension program. Wisconsin and other Middle Western states gave birth to the idea in the 1880s when the programs were called “Farmers’ Institutes” (Zieren & Stoddard in Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 31).

The faculty of land grant colleges offered lectures and short courses to farmers and town people in counties all over the state. The curriculum initially reflected the agricultural

nature of late- nineteenth-century rural America with course offerings in soils and crops, fertilizer, and animal nutrition. But by 1900 the offerings included topics of interest to women, such as home economics, as well as citizenship for immigrants and civic education for all (Cogan, 1999; Mattson, 1998, Zieren & Stoddard in Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 31). In 1914, for example, extension programs reached an estimated 3 million; the passage of the Smith-Lever Act that year to provide federal funds for extension work reflected the popularity of the movement and the broad connection between higher education and the average American citizen. The Smith-Hughes Act of 1917 (Uffelman, 2003, Zieren & Stoddard in Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 31) provided federal funding for vocational education, another example of promoting education in practical subjects to benefit the masses.

Two other initiatives from the Progressive Era deserve mention as predecessors of service-learning. In 1901 for instance, “the University of Cincinnati introduced cooperative education patterned on the German dual system of classroom instruction alongside work in the field in the student’s occupation” (Stanton, Giles, & Cruz, 1999). Also in 1901 the first community college, then called junior college, opened its doors in Joliet, Illinois (American Association of Community Colleges, 2001). Both were experiments designed to connect more closely the worlds of work and education, and education with the community.

Finally, no treatment of Progressive Era beginnings in service-learning would be complete without at least the mention of John Dewey’s contribution. In 1902 Dewey insisted that, “higher education must meet public needs and that the culture must adapt to the conditions of modern life, of daily life, of political and industrial life, if you will” (Veysey as cited by Zieren & Stoddard in Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 31). He reiterated that, “belief in his 1916 classic statement of educational philosophy, *Democracy and Education*, in terms that have inspired

advocates of service-learning down to the twenty-first century” (Rudolph, as cited by Zieren & Stoddard in Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 31).

According to Zieren and Stoddard(in Speck & Hoppe, 2004:32), “the keepers of the flame of service-learning since the Progressive era can be seen variously as believers in democracy”(Lindeman, 1991;Brookfield, 1987; Stewart, 1987), “ missionaries for social change” (Rivera & Erlich, 1992;Alinsky, 1971), “proponents for Civic Education and competence in adults” (Egerton, 1983;Adams, 1975), and “government reformers and proponents of the humanistic bureaucracy” (Hopkins, 1999). One profession in particular, social work, has served as both the focus of service-learning experiments and as the self-appointed beacon for service-learning in society (Specht & Courtney, 1997; Konopka, 1958). Through its rise to professionalism and its position as advocate in society, social work and social workers have made dramatic contributions to the modern day conception and practice of service-learning (Hopkins, 1999; Hamilton, 1954). As a result, social work today, in its practice and in its curriculum, provides a strong traditional base and functional model for service-learning in the university (Jansson, 1999; Council on Social Work Education, 1992(a), 1992(b), 1994;).

Key events in American history; the Depression, the Civil Rights movement, and the War on Poverty have helped social work (and through social work, society itself) maintain a clear conceptualization of service-learning and an understanding of its importance to society. This study may not go into other details at this stage in explaining the combined historical development of service learning and social work since its focus is not on social work but on Civic Education. However, what has been given so far on service learning provides the synopsis on the idea of service learning in education and also provides good arguments for its application in the teaching of Civic Education in schools as it will be seen later.

3.4 Service learning as a teaching and learning Pedagogy in Education

From the available literature and other research projects surveyed and conducted by scholars in this field, there are a number of features that have emerged regarding service learning as pedagogy in education. These include the development of empathic consciousness, social awareness, pro-social behaviours and community engagement (Lovat et al. 2011: 134-154). Consistent with the notion of ecology of learning, community engagement of this sort provides a learning environment for the nurturance of features of holistic learning through offering a dynamic social experience that cannot be replicated within the confines of a classroom (Lovat et al. 2011).

The learning philosophy that underpins such pedagogy is seen in Squire and Kandel's (2009) as cited in Lovat et al (2011) that postulates that, "learning and memory have both implicit and explicit dimensions". This means that the learner should be provided with an environment that will offer an experience sufficiently rich that it will stimulate learning (Kolb and Kolb 2005: 193-212; Zull 2004: 68-72; Zull 2006:3-9).

In fact scholars such as Leeds (2010) and Gibson (2009) contend that, "service learning has its theoretical roots in experiential learning which, in turn, has a Deweyian, Vygotskian and Aristotelian heritage". As such, the richness of the experience itself and the quality of reflection on the experience are both of vital importance to its effectiveness. Billig (as cited in Lovat et al., 2011) points out, "that the learning arising from service learning as pedagogy provides both the content of learning and a structure for understanding that content". In this connection, Billig was referring to the research by the National Research Council (2000), which among other things did identify four mutually supportive and interacting aspects of

learning environments that give rise to holistic learning. Such environments are, “learner centred”, “knowledge centred”, “assessment centred” (with a focus on feedback and revision) and “community centred” (including classroom, school, and home and the wider community).

Accordingly, Billig (2000: 658-664) argued that, “service learning has the propensity to contribute to the academic achievement of students when it provides a means of practical application of curriculum content and when it develops student-cognitive capacities through promoting higher-order thinking”. This was also supported by Furco (2008: 30) who contended that, “the direct effects of service learning on personal, social, career and values development, and, the mediated effects on student achievement through engagement, motivation, self-esteem, empowerment, and pro-social behaviours could not be over-emphasised”. In other words, the argument is that service learning supplies or supplements those items of social capital that are essential components of an environment that supports holistic student learning and development. This if applied in Civic Education will undoubtedly address issues of social change and transformation in society.

With regard to the development of empathic consciousness, Meltzoff et al. (2009: 284-288) state that, “there is much in the literature that would suggest that service learning offers pedagogy equal to the task and by empathy they imply an innate quality that is fundamental to human learning but also require an environment for it to be realised”. Additionally, Feshbach and Feshbach (2009: 85-97) contend that, “empathy is an attribute that is highly relevant to the educational outcomes of students”. In their argument, empathic qualities are thus relevant to both the social behaviours of students as well as their academic achievement.

As for community engagement, Crotty (2010: 631-644) reports that, “knowledge effects resulting from engagement in service learning illustrates the vital role of self-reflectivity in contributing to the awakening of the kind of empathic consciousness and generation of moral knowledge that characterizes moral development [and social change and transformation of society]”. Similarly, Gibson (as cited by Lovat et al., 2011), “shows how the interaction of structured and informal reflection, together with personal and corporate reflection, is instrumental in the development of the skills and knowledge that enable effective service and that trigger volition to extend and prolong pro-social actions and activities”. These include the ability to ‘de-centre’ and see things from another’s perspective and the development of empathic consciousness of the sort that leads to deeper relationships and personal growth. Hence, reflection and empathic consciousness appear to be prelude to the kinds of social awareness, pro-social behaviours and altruism that find expression in social engagement and citizenship. Reflection of this calibre is an essential trait of the form of values pedagogy that issues in effective service learning and teaching (Crawford, 2010: 811-824).

As for critical reflection, Crotty (2010); Crawford (2010) and Gibson (2009) indicate that, “such reflection has a dialogical element and that the community values discourse becomes a context for the refinement of the ideas that emanate from personal reflection”. As a result, the discussion of the characteristics of service learning in this study provides the evidence that community engagement indeed provides a context where self-reflection, empathetic consciousness or social awareness and pro-social behaviours, reflective moral discourse in Civic Education can develop learners into predictors of knowledge who can bring about social change and transform society.

Flottemesch et al., (in Anderson, 2001:148), state that “service learning has a long tradition in progressive education and this is supported by the views of John Dewey

(1916/1966) that emphasise the need for classroom learning to be given perspective through meaningful practical experience”. They have also contended that, “initial research studies have shown that service learning is a positive teaching strategy stimulating interest in subject matter that would otherwise be difficult for students to internalise”.

Other studies have also shown that this pedagogy can help teachers understand the moral and civic obligations of teaching. According to Erickson and Anderson (in Anderson, 2001: 148-150), “ these obligations include fostering lifelong civic engagement, being able to adapt to the needs of learners with diverse and special needs and being committed to advocacy for social justice and for children and families”. From this point it is clear that under normal conditions and with correct pedagogy, the teaching and learning of Civic Education has the potential to create a society that is transformed in all aspects.

Battistoni (in Jacoby & Associates, 1996:6) states that, “the connection between service learning and Civic Education is not automatic without careful consideration of the substantive issues addressed and the pedagogical strategies employed, students involved in service learning activities may come away as (or more) civically disengaged”. This is actually true in the context where wrong teaching and learning methods are used by the teachers to address Civic Education related issues. It must be noted that most civic qualities cannot be learned in private spheres like family or workplaces. Rather, it is the schools that provide that unique environment to balance the development of individuality, autonomy, confidence and knowledge with the strengthening of the public self through dialogue, decision making and cooperative learning. Specifically the teaching and learning of Civic Education provides this unique environment which over time has the potential to completely transform or change communities.

Finkel (2003: 137-151) also states that, “there is a tendency in developing democracies to view Civic Education as a combination of both formal indoctrination and direct experience but to the contrary Civic Education in fact exerts its strongest effects when formal programmes are brought to individuals (learners) directly into contact with local issues and makes them critical to the learning of democratic attitudes and behaviour”. It is these attitudes and behaviours that facilitate social change and transformation in the society.

Harber (1997:10-11) has argued that, “young people need to experience many different forms of learning and interaction if they are to develop as flexible, balanced and self sufficient individuals”. As such the fundamentals of service learning are more likely to address issues raised by Haber. The approach of service learning is said, “to be a credit bearing educational experience in which students participate in organised service that meets community needs and reflect on that service to gain further understanding of the course content; a broader appreciation of the discipline and an enhanced sense of civic responsibility” (Bringle et al., 1997:1). Put simply, service learning as an approach to teaching and learning is able to blend the learners in ways that would make them become useful members of society and also contribute to social change and transformation of society.

Such members understand ways that are critical to the transformation of society. Further Carin and Kielsmeier (in Bringle et al 1997:1) contend that, “service learning is more than community service in that community service focuses on meeting the needs of service recipients with little or no emphasis on learning”. Service learning on the other hand involves intentionally linking service activities with academic curriculum to address real community needs while students learn through active engagement and reflection. This is a very good approach that fits well as a method of teaching and learning subjects like Civic Education because it lays emphasis on pupil engagement in the process of teaching and learning so that

what they learn can be translated into real life situations and later on address issues of social change and transformation of society.

Zlotkowski (in Saltmarsh & Zlotkowski 2011:18-19) discusses service learning with a question: “Can the academy remain a vital social institution if the best it can provide, in the face of great public challenges, is personal comfort?” This is a fundamental question that is trying to address how education can be relevant or irrelevant to the needs of society. It is also a wake-up call that the type of education provided to society ought to respond to the needs of society in a positive way and not otherwise. It would appear in this sense that there are pedagogies that address the challenges and others that may not be able to address such challenges. Several years ago, a group of faculty affiliated with the Lowell Bennion Center at the University of Utah (1998) proposed that higher education is, in fact, responsible for three kinds of knowledge: foundational, professional, and socially responsive.

Although most schools have been willing to invest major resources in trying to achieve excellence in either one or both of the first two, their commitment to the third leaves much to be desired. The study also notes that the aspect of being responsive to needs of society appear to have been greatly neglected in the teaching and learning of Civic Education in the schools. For this reason the study proposes the use of service learning approaches in the teaching and learning of Civic Education if social change and transformation of society is to be realised. In other words, we cannot teach Civic Education simply by addressing only traditional and professional knowledge in our students. On the contrary the teaching needs to incorporate other aspects that form the basis of service learning if we are to talk about real change of society.

While at the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in the early 1980s, Saltmarsh (in Saltmarsh & Zlotkowski 2011:29-39) noted that Frank Newman, an innovative

leader in higher education, asserted that , “the most critical demand is to restore to higher education its original purpose of preparing graduates for a life of involved and committed citizenship”. While Newman grounded the civic work of higher education in community service, Saltmarsh (2011), argued that, “ he did not specify what civic learning entailed or what it was that a civically educated student needed to do and know?” Through an agenda focused on promoting community service, a number of organizations and campuses pursued civic learning, vaguely construed, during the 1980s. By the end of the decade, the severe limitations to advancing civic learning separately from the core work of the academy had become clear. Thus, beginning in the early 1990s, service and academic study were integrated. Even with this shift, however, the emphasis was on a reflective, community- based pedagogy rather than on civic learning outcomes. While it was assumed to occur, civic learning was oftentimes omitted as a curricular goal.

The emphasis was on adopting service- learning as a pedagogy that would allow faculty across the disciplines to teach the content knowledge of their courses more effectively. Little attention was paid to using service- learning to teach the civic dimensions of a discipline or to foster the specific civic learning outcomes that students were to achieve in addition to mastering course concepts. Such a position however, should not be seen to be underestimating or undermining the value of service learning as pedagogy to be used in the teaching and learning of Civic Education for effective learner outcomes and transformation in society. This study strongly proposes that service learning as a teaching pedagogy can be effectively utilised in Civic Education lessons because it is able to link theory and practice and this has the potential to bring about social change and transformation of society.

Saltmarsh (in Saltmarsh & Zlotkowski, 2011) states that, “ Dewey’s writings inform service- learning through a philosophy of education, a theory of inquiry, a conception of

community and democratic life, and a means for individual engagement in society toward the end of social transformation”. Clearly from the above statements one can see that Dewey was raising the status of service learning in education by linking it to community experience through what has been described by Saltmarsh as; “linking education to experience; democratic community; social service; reflective inquiry and education for social change and transformation”. These issues are clearly demonstrating the focus that the study is taking especially in the area of social change and transformation of society. Civic Education needs to be taught through service learning and that way makes the subject relevant to societal needs and can be the fastest vehicle that can be used in bringing about social change and transformation of society.

The writings of Dewey on service learning provide an understanding that the whole idea is grounded in some conducted practice which has been described as pragmatism. Pragmatism’s influence on education treats it as “a matter of instrumental values— topics studied because of some end beyond themselves” (Dewey cited by Saltmarsh 2011:40-54). In supporting Dewey, Kimball (1995a: 91) state that, “service learning is a concept of education that integrates thought and action, reason and emotion, mind and body, leisure and work, education and life, and connects individuals to their community and natural contexts”. It would appear from this combination that service learning is indeed a pedagogy that touches so many areas some of which are critical to social change and transformation of society.

Giles and Eyer (1994), contend that, “service learning is pedagogy of reflective inquiry linking students’ involvement in community service with their intellectual and moral development”. Roberston (1992) has also observed that, “service learning from John Dewey’s concepts of education and community, and suggests that it is a particular pedagogy informed by a distinct philosophical tradition”. Service learning as a pedagogy and approach also found

some space in the philosophies of Paulo Freire on education of pedagogical foundations for service- learning particularly in his conception of praxis, dialogic education, a liberationist educational paradigm, and a redefined role of teaching. This is again a clear indication that service learning as pedagogy can yield positive results in the area of social change and if properly applied and utilised in the Civic Education can lead to the transformation of society.

One would also agree with the thoughts of Gleason, (2008); Mckinney, (2007); Huber and Hutchings, (2005); Trigwell and Shale, (2004) that, “ if educational institutions are to be ‘life- affirming organizations,’ it is also essential that they include the affective domain and the lived experiences of the learners”. Teaching and learning should support community practice and social change (Zlotkowski, Longo & Williams 2006 and Bulcroft, Werder & Gilliam 2002). As others have suggested, students need to develop the pedagogical resonances that should lead to enhanced learning in the classrooms and beyond. In other words, what learners get from classrooms should help them to practice beyond the classroom and bring about the necessary changes in their communities and the transformation of society at large.

Codispoti (in Speck & Hoppe, 2004:114) contends that, “Service-learning must involve real situations”. Seen in the context of Civic Education it requires that students struggle with the complexities and uncertainties of real life so that they can learn to be realistic and also that their learning can be maximized. At the same time, the situations must be on an appropriate scale so that the students can make a real contribution. The goal of a real situation is not to discourage students but to have them learn from experience that they can be effective and be seen to be contributing to social change and transformation of society.

As such it can be noted that service learning is appropriate pedagogy in the context of Civic Education because it encourages learners to get involved in the affairs of the community.

Equally Civic Education promotes the engagement of learners during the process of teaching and learning. That being the case, teaching styles in Civic Education ought to be tailored along the lines of a bigger picture which in this case is service learning. The use of service learning fits very well in Civic Education because, it encourages students to act not as solitary individuals who are being taught alongside other solitary individuals but teaches students to learn how to engage, discuss, experiment, case study, make presentations, dialogue, analyze and evaluate situations. Through such an approach learners are able to make themselves relevant to the needs of society and also respond to the transformation of society in the long run.

Colby et al., (in Speck & Hoppe, 2004:113) have stated, “ that as a whole, research indicates that if used well, these student-centred[service learning] or active pedagogies can have a positive impact on many dimensions of moral and civic learning as well as on other aspects of academic achievement”. This means that if well applied Civic Education can have an impact on society in a positive way.

Lisman (1998:32-33) states that, “institutions of higher education have widely embraced service learning or the curricular integration of community service because it is fundamentally an effective pedagogy”. Jacoby (1996:322) states that, "the existing research on service-learning, although much of it focuses on students at the elementary and secondary school levels, has been encouraging" This means that service learning is a teaching method or pedagogy which can be used by teachers when they are teaching their students in subjects like Civic Education. Service learning has also been correlated with an increase in grade-point average and improved academic performance in schools where it has been used as a teaching strategy (Levinson & Felberbaum, 1993; Greco, 1992; Hannah & Dworkowitz, 1992; Nelms, 1991).

Other studies have equally found that service learning enhance students' moral development (Boss, 1994; Boyd, 1980). Service learning also is effective in building students' self-esteem (Driscoll et al., 1996; Adams, 1993). There are also other studies that have suggested that service learning connected to a specific course can increase students' learning of course content (Driscoll et al., 1996; Boss, 1994; Cohen and Kinsey, 1994; Miller, 1994; Markus et al., 1993). Two studies at Vanderbilt University (Giles and Eyler, 1994) and Alma College (Batchelder and Root, 1994), found that service learning improves grades and the ability to apply course concepts to new situations and, further, that students show increased motivation for learning, social responsibility, and citizenship and civic involvement. Kendrick (1996) arrived at similar results. Additionally, the Driscoll research at Portland State University (Driscoll et al., 1996) found that service-learning students developed increased self-awareness, awareness of and involvement with community, personal development, sense of service, sensitivity to diversity, and independence in learning.

Pritchard and Whitehead (in Whitehead & Kitz row 2010:1-2) has defined service-learning as, “a teaching and learning approach that integrates community service with academic studies to enrich learning, teach civic responsibility and strengthen communities”. It engages students in addressing real unmet needs or issues in a community and actively involves them in decision-making at all levels of the process. Service-learning has existed in a variety of forms over the years. Throughout the 1990s it grew in popularity, and it has most recently been broadly adopted by a number of fields, including business administration, communications, and others (Thomas & Landau, 2002; Rehling, 2000; Nasher & Ruhe, 2001; Bellah et al., 1996; Boyer, 1996, Speck and Hoppe, 2004:60).

In the words of Cipolle (2010: 80-84), “Service-learning actively engages participants in meaningful and personally relevant service activities and as a teaching pedagogy, service learning is intentionally used as an instructional strategy to meet learning goals and content standards”. Service-learning helps also participants learn how to transfer knowledge and skills from one setting to another. In this sense it is right to argue that this transfer of knowledge and skills from the schools should be transferred by the learners positively to the community and thereby effecting some social change and transformation of society.

Service-learning is also said to prompt participants to think deeply about complex community problems and alternative solutions (Cipolle, 2010). Further, Cipolle contends that service-learning as a framework encourages participants to examine their preconceptions and assumptions in order to explore and understand their roles and responsibilities as citizens. Service-learning encourages participants to examine a variety of social and civic issues related to their service-learning experience so that participants understand connections to public policy and civic life (Cipolle 2010: 80-84).

Cess et al. (2005:7-8) state that, “service learning involves, students and their instructors leaving the classroom and engaging with their communities in order to make learning come alive and to experience real-life connections between their education and everyday issues in their cities, towns, or states”. These experiences are often referred to by multiple names: service-learning, community service, or community-based learning. With service learning the learners are given an opportunity to put the knowledge and skills they learn from school into direct practice, as well as also learn how to reflect on those experiences in making their community a better place in which to live and work.

In service-learning encourages learners to learn how to work with others and also use the knowledge and skills learnt from their academic disciplines and subjects in understanding the underlying social, political, and economic issues that contribute to community difficulties. That way, there are able to appreciate their communities and work towards addressing such challenges in the long run and ultimately contribute to the transformation of society. This has also been said to be a different way of learning and appears to be different from the traditional learning in that the focus is placed upon connecting course content with actual experience. Instead of passively hearing a lecture, students involved in service-learning are active participants in creating knowledge. The role of teacher and learner are more fluid and less rigid (Cess et al., 2005:7-8).

In many traditional learning environments, Cess et al. (2005: 8-9) state that the teacher delivers the content of the course through lectures, assignments, and tests. In some cases, students may also complete a practicum or other hands-on experience to further their learning. In contrast, learning through reflecting on experience is at the centre of service-learning courses, and guides students as they integrate intellectual knowledge with community interactions through the process of reflection. That way it creates opportunities in the learners for contributing to the transformation of society.

Service learning according to Reitenauer (2005: 33) “invites the individual to bring out of oneself, what one knows and what one can do into the classroom and the world beyond in applying one or the whole self in creating community change”. Put simply service learning increases the possibilities for creating social change and transformation of society. Verducci and Pope (as cited in Anderson et al,2001: 2-18) argue with passion and conviction that, “service learning has the potential to increase students’ engagement with the curriculum, foster moral and civic values, enrich students’ content area knowledge, enhance critical thinking and

problem solving abilities and develop skills for future career opportunities”. These views are also supported by other scholars with the bias towards service learning such as: (Eyler & Giles, 1999; Pollack, 1999; Astin & Sax, 1998; Bhaerman, 1997; Giles & Eyler, 1994; Conrad & Hedin, 1991).

Recent research in this area seems to show that service learning helps schools and communities work together to solve educational problems and meet real community needs. From the point of view of Verducci and Pope (in Anderson et al., 2001: 2-18) there are several rationales that are used to support service learning and in this study I propose to use the key ones that are in line with the focus of the study.

Anderson and Hill (in Anderson et al., 2001: 91-95) state that, “service learning involves the combination of service and learning in a way that both occur and get enriched by each other”. They further contend that service learning has much in common with other approaches to education especially other forms of experiential or applied education. Service learning’s focus is its contribution to the common good. The emphasis on addressing genuine community needs to help others and/or the community by making a positive difference, is a large component of what makes service learning effective.

Further, it is being argued that the use of service learning as a teaching method creates a distinct view of the role of schools and higher education in the society. The argument here is that educational institutions or schools should not be seen as just places where students or learners go to learn but as resources for community development. Seen from this context, the teaching and learning of Civic Education can use service learning to both meet the obligation of students as well as those of the community and thereby contribute to social change and transformation of society.

Anderson et al. (2001: 13) and Carin & Kielsmeier, (1991) contend that, “ service learning is more than community service because it intentionally links service activities with academic curriculum to address real community needs while students learn through active engagement and reflection”. This seems to fit well with the focus of this study which is advocating for its usage in the teaching of Civic Education in schools. There is emphasis on pupil engagement in the process of teaching and learning and this has the potential to link with what is taught and how this can be translated into real life situations and thereby transform communities.

Service learning is also supported by a variety of theories. For instance Anderson and Guest (1995) sorted the multiple theoretical threads into five camps namely, “ experiential learning” (Dewey, 1938; Kolb, 1984); “transformational or social re-constructionist theory” (Allan and Zerkin, 1993; Miller, 1988); “ Multicultural education approaches” (Sleeter & Grant, 1987); “Critical reflection”(Sparks-Langer, Simmons, Pasch, Cotton & Starks, 1990); Sullivan, 1991) and “education as preparation for civic responsibility”(Coleman, 1974; Martin, 1976; Wade, 1997). The theories above seem to suggest that service learning is not a stand-alone approach but rather is supported by other theories in addressing various research questions in a number of ways.

According to Davison and Moss (1997: 77-78), “experiential learning is therefore about doing something that integrates concrete experiences with reflective observations about the experience”. Learning the development of knowledge, understandings, and beliefs is a synthesis of experiences. In this context the process of synthesizing enables pupils to focus, probe, and test and to begin to make sense of emergent attitudes, beliefs, and understandings of themselves, their peers, and the community. “Experiences” as described here will not only take

the form of direct involvement, but will also result from reading, writing, or discussion with peers, teachers, community members, or others. In fact, the teaching of Civic Education and /or citizenship education needs to take this approach if students are to greatly benefit from its aims and goals. Through that, students will be able to make themselves relevant to the needs of society and be part of social change and transformation of society.

Jacob and Associates (1996) refer to service learning as, “programme, pedagogy and as a philosophy”. As a programme, “service learning focuses on the achievement of goals that address human and community needs combined with intentional learning goals and with conscious reflection and critical analysis” (Kendall, 1990: 20). As pedagogy, “service learning is seen as a form of experiential education that relies heavily on reflection to ensure that learning occurs”. As a philosophy, “service learning is also seen as a philosophy of human growth and purpose, a social vision, an approach to community and a way of knowing” (Kendall, 1990:23). Key to understanding service learning as a philosophy is a recognition of the central role that reciprocity plays in social and educational exchange between learners and the people they serve (Stanton, 1990:67).

It is clear from the above arguments that service learning draws its strength from a variety of approaches and as such, there are theoretically and empirically demonstrated reasons to include service learning in education programmes but to do that there is need to establish how such reasons are backed with evidence on the ground in terms of the learning that is taking place in schools and the results being experienced in the society. One of the fundamental questions we need to consider is whether there is a relationship between service learning and students’ citizenship skills, interpersonal skills, world view and personal self worth? We consider this question in the light of the research problem vis-a-vis the effectiveness of civic education in transforming society.

Put another way, there are theoretically and empirically demonstrated reasons to include service learning in the teaching of Civic Education in the schools. As observed by Miels (in Anderson, Kevin & Joost 2001:159) that through service learning, students are given the opportunity to develop and build on their civic character while examining the place of education in the new millennium. One would argue here that the place of education in the new millennium should be that of transforming society thus making it better than before and this has to be supported by programmes such as Civic Education in the school curriculum which has the potential, if well executed, to enhance pupils' skills at different levels of their human development. In addition, Ayers and Ray (1996: 10) contend that, "courses featuring a service learning framework help students make connections about who they are, what they think and how they act". This somewhat demonstrates clearly that a Civic Education programme anchored on service learning has the potential in motivating learners in seeing the bigger picture of society and not otherwise. This way, learners would be enabled to make meaningful contributions that are aimed at transforming society in one way or the other.

Getting back to the research question in examining the extent to which Civic Education serves to enhance or impede social change and transformation of society. It can be argued based on the information that has been given above that there is proof to show that teaching Civic Education using service learning framework can provide learners with opportunities that can be used to bring about change in a number of ways. The information above also demonstrates the fact in the absence of service learning it is difficult to create meaningful learning of Civic Education in schools. Therefore, I contend that using service learning as pedagogy in Civic Education creates greater opportunities leading to improving learners' civic knowledge, skills, values and virtues than anything else. Such developments could serve as key indicators for social change and transformation of society in the long run. For this reason, in

the next section some justification is provided to further support the argument based on examples that have been surveyed in literature.

3.5 Justification of Service learning in the teaching of Civic Education in Zambian Schools

According to Wilczenski and Coomey (2007: xiii-xiv) there are some reflections on service learning which are considered to be critical in the teaching and learning of Civic Education. For them, service learning means more than just linking service to academic content and standards. It also involves personal and social learning; it has to do with creating opportunities for career exploration; it has to do with helping to determine and meet real community needs; it has to benefit both students and the community; it is appropriate in any subject area of which Civic Education is no exception to meeting learning goals; and they seem to be suggesting that it is equally suitable for students at all grade levels. In view of this, in this study, I propose service learning framework as an appropriate pedagogical practice that could be used in the teaching of Civic Education in Zambian schools. The approach creates opportunities in which learners are able to develop their attitudes in a positive manner and also having a broad outlook to a number of issues learnt in schools. With such an outlook, it is possible that the question being posed in this study with regarding the extent to which Civic Education serves to enhance or impede social change and transformation of society would be addressed.

Wilczenski & Coomey,(2007: xiii-xiv) report that, “service learning is positive, meaningful and real to participants; cooperative rather than competitive; and provides opportunities among learners for creative problem solving and critical thinking”. Learners who are creative and critical are more likely to see things different from those that may not have these qualities and for this reason service learning as observed by Eyler and Giles builds the capacities of learners in a number of skills that will help them to act positively in the

communities where they live. Through such, they will be seen to be contributing ideas and skills that which eventually lead to social change and transformation of society. Therefore this approach is justifiable to be used in Civic Education lessons in the Zambian schools.

Service learning is also said to be engaging students to act for some common good by promoting in students, skills and energy required for them to address real-life needs. Eyler and Giles (cited in Wilczenski & Coomey 2007: xiii-xiv) state that service learning has essential components necessary for effective learning. For example, it engages the students in thinking about the larger issues connected to their service through participatory or hands-on experiences. It also helps learners to reflect and think through the process of deriving meaning and knowledge from experience before, during and after a service learning experience. It is the use of critical thinking skills among other things that makes it a necessary tool that can be used in the teaching and learning of Civic Education for the purposes of social change and transforming society. In fact in Civic Education emphasis is on critical thinking and being involved in what is happening around and service learning fits very well as an approach that would bring real learning to the learners in schools. For this, it is indeed justified that such an approach is adopted in the teaching and learning of Civic Education in Zambian schools to promote and develop learners who will be real agents of social change and transformation in society.

Empirical evidence indicates that service learning is a promising practice to enhance social and emotional development and thereby fosters academic growth and resiliency among students. Service learning supports character education by giving students opportunities to be caring and helpful community members (Wilczenski & Coomey 2007). This agrees with what Civic Education stands for in real essence and as such using it as a teaching tool in schools will go a long way in contributing to social change and transformation of society. What we need

from those that have gone to school are ideas and skills that will bring change and not just learning without making any contribution to the well being of society. Civic Education must be anchored on this practice if we are to see some positive differences in the learners who will be the drivers of change in their communities.

Furthermore, service learning can forge mutually beneficial school and community partnerships. Service-learning interventions simultaneously yield personal, social, emotional, career, and academic learning benefits, suggesting that they all have a common basis. RMC Research Corporation and the National Service- Learning Clearinghouse (cited in Wilczenski and Coomey (2007: xv-xvi) compiled bibliographies highlighting research findings that document the impacts and outcomes of service learning in educational settings.

The following is a summary of key findings concerning service learning that are relevant or can be relevant to the teaching and learning of Civic Education in the Zambian schools:

- a. Service learning increases student engagement. Research has shown or shows that students typically become more engaged in learning as evidenced by increased attendance and motivation to learn (e.g Melchior, 1999; Shumer, 1994);
- b. Service learning helps students improve academically. Research findings indicate that students show gains in academic achievement; including grades and standardized tests (e.g. Civic Literacy Project, 2000; Scales, Blyth, Berkas, & Kielsmeier, 2000);
- c. Service learning fosters personal and social development. Studies show or have shown strong positive effects on character development, reduction of risk behaviours, acceptance of diversity, responsibility, trustworthiness, and caring for others (e.g., Melchior, 1999; Switzer, Simmons, Dew, Regalski, & Wang, 1995);
- d. Service learning promotes career exploration. Students come in contact with adults in various and, perhaps, unfamiliar careers, and this exposure can translate to more varied career aspirations (e.g., Billig, Jesse, Calvert, & Kleimann, 1999; Melchior, 1999);

- e. Service learning reduces risk-taking behaviours. Studies show a reduction in aggression, delinquency, and sexually risky behaviors (e.g., Yates & Youniss, 1996; Allen, Kuperminc, Philliber, & Herre, 1994);
- f. Service learning is associated with positive school environments. Research indicates that when practiced school-wide, a more caring school climate develops (e.g., Weiler, LaGoy, Crane, & Rovner, 1998);
- g. Service learning helps students develop stronger attachments to school and community. Studies suggest that students show greater bonding to school because of increased motivation to learn and also a greater sense of civic responsibility because of the observable outcomes of their work in the community (e.g., Youniss, McLellan, & Yates, 1997; Stephens, 1995); and
- h. Service learning engenders community support for school. Evidence indicates that community members view students more favourably and increase volunteer as well as financial support for schools (e.g., Melchior, 1999; Billig & Conrad, 1997).

Researchers in other fields such as of social and emotional education had also embraced service learning as a strategy meant to foster their five core social and emotional competencies thus, “self-awareness”, “social awareness”, “self-management”, “relationship skills”, and “decision making” (Collaborative for Academic, Social, and Emotional Learning, 2003; Education Commission of the States, 2003). Social and emotional learning interventions embedded in a service-learning curriculum can be designed to address both preventive and remedial goals for individual students as well as for classrooms and schools. Through service-learning opportunities within communities, social, emotional, career, and academic learning takes place in a real-world context. Against this position it is very clear that there is every reason to justify why service learning has to be incorporated in the educational settings and also in the teaching and learning of Civic Education in the Zambian school curriculum.

Learning has to be practical and not necessarily theoretical and a combination of both practices in Civic Education is key in ensuring that products of this subject are prepared to take on issues in society meant to better their lives and those of others.

Given the information above, it is undoubtedly clear that if applied in Civic Education it would help in transforming society in all aspects. Civic Education also promotes self awareness, self-management, relationship skills and decision making in one way or the other and with a combination of service learning in its pedagogical practices it would provide the motivation for the learners to get to work towards making themselves relevant to the needs of society and subsequently make necessary contribution to the transformation of society. This has also the potential to equip learners with the necessary skills and knowledge to challenge taken for granted positions in society which can be an impediment to the transformation of society. Issues of power relations in society need to be challenged at the level of engagement if we are to see real social change in our society. This kind of situation stands to address the many issues that confront society in a number of ways and this approach has also the possibility of providing another avenue in which Civic Education could be experienced in the community. I therefore argue that Civic Education taught on the line of service learning leads or serves to enhance possibilities of social change and transformation of society as opposed to Civic Education devoid of such an approach.

Accordingly Jacoby (2003: 5), contends that “service learning has had a tremendous potential to enable colleges and universities to meet their goals for student learning and development while making unique contributions to addressing community, national, and global needs”. She further notes that with regard to the curriculum much more about service learning is being emphasised than one directional practice of community service. It has since been observed that service learning is making Civic Education a priority and that it is increasingly

becoming a driver of the civic engagement of education (Bringle, 2001; Hollander, Saltmarsh, & Zlotkowski, 2001). This is consistent with the argument that I am advancing that the use of service learning approach or approaches in Civic Education lessons lead to social change and transformation of society. This aspect goes a long way also in providing more information that should be able to support the main research question thereby trying to answer it.

Peterson (in Roy et al 2009:1) states that, “Service learning takes theory and the academic rigor of the classroom, applies it to a community need, and works in cooperation with community agencies”. Waterman (in Roy et al 2009:1) also defines service learning as “an experiential approach to education that involves students in a wide range of activities that are of benefit to others, and uses the experiences generated to advance the curricular goals”. Clearly from the two definitions it can be seen that service learning is being recognised as a pedagogy that links theory and practice in a manner that the community appreciates the essence of education to them. Education which does not show some connection to the needs of society is not worthy to be called education. Equally, Civic Education which just remains at the level of theory and fails to translate its ideals into results in society is irrelevant. Therefore the promotion of service learning in the teaching and learning of Civic Education become an imperative need. This point is further exemplified in the preceding paragraph.

Bishop et al., (in Roy et al., 2009: 17) state that, “...although definitions and practices vary widely, most people see service learning as involving both service to the community and learning. It is not service learning without both of these ingredients”. It means that any learning that takes place in schools should take into account matters of the community. Learning which does not consider the welfare of society is not learning at all. It is from this premise that I argue that service learning is a good approach that can be promoted in the teaching and learning of Civic Education in Zambian schools because it stands to bring about the much needed change

and developments that will make life better than before in the area of social change and transformation of society.

Eyler and Giles (in Roy et al., 2009: 17) use a similar definition as the one that has been used by Bishop and others but emphasizes on the experiential, community-based, and reflective aspects. They argue that, “service-learning is a form of experiential education where learning occurs through a cycle of action and reflection as students work with others through a process of applying what they are learning to community problems and, at the same time, reflecting upon their experience as they seek to achieve real objectives for the community and deeper understanding and skills for themselves”. By experience they imply that learning should have some foundation and that the community becomes the locus where learning takes place. This point is further elaborated in the next paragraph as a way of getting the real meaning of what is being discussed above.

Experience is the foundation for learning, and community is the locus where learning takes place. They have also contended that, “reflection in service learning takes place as form of thinking, discussing, and/ or writing about their service and learning experience among participants”. As such, the main elements of service learning across various settings include the following among the others: (1) experiential learning, (2) contribution to community, and (3) reflection.

At its best, service learning promotes a variety of worthwhile goals, including social, emotional, and cognitive development in the context of more meaningful learning, teamwork, community involvement, citizenship, the ability to address complex problems in complex settings, and critical thinking. In these elements one would be skewed towards responding to

the needs of society and by so doing we could also be seeing elements of social change and transformation of society popping up.

In many colleges and universities of all types there is some debate going on to re-examine and bolster their missions to prepare students to become civically engaged citizens. Both educators and the general public are concerned that studies reveal that, although youth involvement in community service has increased in recent years, their interest and participation in democratic institutions have decreased dramatically (Cone, Cooper, and Hollander, 2001; Sax, Astin, Korn, & Mahoney, 1999). What seems to be suggested here is that the traditional methods of teaching have not provided the learners with the impetus that is required for them to engage actively in the community. There seems to be a lacuna in the whole delivery system of education to the extent that there is a mismatch between learning in schools and the results obtaining in the community. It would appear that education is not responding to the needs of society and one wonders on the type of approaches that are used in schools. Are they approaches that encourage learners to think outside the box or there are approaches that limit the capacities of the learners to think through and using different lenses. This study shares similar views and contends that in the case of Civic Education there is need to adopt service learning which would help the learners to exploit their potential and share such experiences in their interaction with the community. It is from such interaction that the skills and knowledge learnt from Civic Education through service learning will be seen to be contributing to the much needed change and transformation of society. For this reason the study is justified in promoting service learning a pedagogical practice that could make the teaching of Civic Education more effective and action-oriented than it is probably delivered in the schools currently.

The assumption in this study is that learners are failing to apply themselves in the community because of not having been exposed to the principles of service learning and this appears to be raising concerns from people at different levels on the effectiveness of Civic Education and especially its role in social change and transformation of society. This calls some serious introspection among the players in the field of Civic Education to come up with solutions that would lead to the appreciation of the programme by the community. Therefore this study supports the argument that the teaching of Civic Education if anchored on service learning framework has the potential to realise the change that will lead to positive developments in the community. From what can be seen here service-learning could be the opportunity that schools could use in the teaching and learning of Civic Education. This is because it has the ability to enhance students' critical thinking skills and that the combination of community service, academic knowledge, and reflection helps students develop an understanding of the root causes of social problems and this in a way helps them to reflect and create opportunities for change. In other words, the argument being made is that conceptualizing service-learning in terms of Civic Education enables educators to "make room in their practices and in the curriculum in terms of its connections to community, citizenship, and democratic politics" (Morton and Battistoni, 1995: 18).

Service-learning has even led to reconsideration of the fundamental tenets of the faculty promotion and tenure process. Several persuasive arguments have been advanced that encourage institutions to include participatory action research as legitimate faculty scholarship (Boyer, 1990; Troppe, 1994; Nyden, in Jacoby 2003). Various assessments of teaching are being expanded to include multiple methods of measuring achievement of learning outcomes, and definitions are being broadened to include work that enhances the quality of life in surrounding communities (Morton, 1996). In fact, in the context of this study, service learning as an approach is being seen as a method that enhances the connection between theory and

practice. While the ideas in here seem to be focusing on the broad aspects of teaching, it cannot be denied that this aspect can still appeal in subjects like Civic Education. The learners should be able to make themselves relevant to the communities as this would be the only way through which they can get involved in matters to do with social change and transformation of society.

Astin (1999:37-40) also argues that, “ if those in education want students to acquire the democratic virtues of honesty, tolerance, empathy, generosity, teamwork, cooperation, service, and social responsibility, then they must model these same qualities not only in individual professional conduct but also in their curriculum, teaching techniques, and institutional policies”. Further, Astin notes that, “in order to model democratic behaviour, there is one available and wonderfully simple and powerful tool; service learning”. In this statement one sees the justification of why service learning is being encouraged in the school education and this study also contends that the teaching of Civic Education in schools would yield good results in the context of service learning as pedagogy.

Service-learning encourages students to do things with others rather than for them. Everyone should expect to change in the process (Karasik, 1993). As observed by Jacoby (2003), “service-learning as pedagogy is grounded in experience as a basis for learning and on the centrality and intentionality of reflection designed to enable learning to occur”. It is based on the work of researchers and theorists on learning, including John Dewey, Jean Piaget, Kurt Lewin, Donald Schön, and David Kolb, who believe that we learn through combinations of action and reflection. Kolb’s (1984) model outlines that, “the learning experience as a constantly revisited four-step cycle: “Concrete experience”, “reflection on the experience”, “synthesis and abstract conceptualization”, and “active experimentation that tests the concepts in new situations”. From this, the study is justifying the employment of service learning in the

teaching and learning of Civic Education in the school curriculum in Zambia if social change and real transformation of society is to be attained.

Cres (2005:12) has also justified service learning in the following way: The development of civic capacity occurs when we explore the connection between academic knowledge and experience-derived insight into the breadth and depth of societal and political issues. If we do not see how our individual lives are a part of the whole, we will lack the ability to identify leverage points for creative change. In other words, being an engaged citizen involves more than “thinking globally and acting locally”; it means deliberately applying our academic knowledge and skills to positively transform ourselves, others, and organizations. Clearly from the above statement we can justify service learning as a method that would be relevant to the teaching and learning of Civic Education in the Zambian schools. This is also because Civic Education stands out in developing in learners their civic capacities which they use to relate with the community and this is one of the many ways in which they can explore the connection between knowledge and breadth and depth of societal needs.

According to Cook (in Tannenbaum, 2008:1) contends that “...service-learning programmes have proliferated in academia in recent years and as a result there seems to be some mechanism for promoting community service and effective experiential pedagogy in schools”. Service learning is said to offer a diverse set of educational benefits to the students. The burgeoning literature in political science and even in Civic Education seems to bear out much of this theory. Both quantitative and qualitative assessments suggest that the outcomes include generally improved classroom learning and greater retention of knowledge. This can somehow justify the reasons why of late service learning is gaining ground in the field of education.

In response to changing economic, political, and social forces, Marullo and Edwards (in Tannenbaum 2008:104) advocate for pedagogical initiatives that link students to the community through service learning. They have found this to be the best way of enhancing the students' learning experience and shaping them into self-motivated learners who become civic participants. This again can be seen as justifying the arguments in this study that through service learning the teaching and learning of Civic Education would enhance students' learning experiences and eventually make them civically minded and work towards changing their communities.

Other scholars have argued that service learning is transformative as pedagogy aimed at the development of democratic values and critical citizenship (Anderson, Levis-Fitzerald, & Rhoads, 2003; Howard, 1998; Saltmarsh, 1996 in Tannenbaum, 2008). In particular, service learning is said to have some positive impact on political engagement (Hillygus, 2005; Hunter & Brisbin, 2000; Mendel-Reyes, 1998 Battistoni, 1997). Galston (in Tannenbaum 2008:105) states that community-based learning promotes students' awareness of community issues and involvement with the community and can significantly raise their political knowledge. Though focus seems to be pointing towards the political engagement of the students, it is very clear here that service learning has some positive attributes that can make learners get involved in the affairs of society. The fact that it builds up their level of engagement is testimony enough that if well applied in the teaching of Civic Education in Zambian schools it can bring about social change and transformation in society.

Morgan and Streb (in Tannenbaum, 2008:105) have equally found that, "students involved in service-learning projects in which they have a high degree of voice and ownership demonstrate improved self-confidence and political engagement". In other words service learning when applied accordingly can encourage learners to envision themselves as actors or

agents in political arenas or even in matters of development in the community by building what has been called by Bickford & Reynolds (in Tannenbaum 2008: 105) ‘models of citizenship that combine critical consciousness with action and reflection’ Such methods of civic engagement are what can bring about social change and the transformation of society and unless such an approach is encouraged in schools and in subjects like Civic Education, transformation of society will always remain a challenge.

Service-learning has greatly contributed to civic renewal efforts. In part, this is because of the shared goals, values, and beliefs of those pursuing civic renewal and service-learning, including engagement in the community, concern for others, and individual and collective efforts on behalf of the common good. Stanton, Giles & Cruz (in Tannenbaum, 2008) point out that from its inception, service-learning’s proponents have pursued three agendas: “service to society”, “ social justice”, and “democratic education”. In the late 1980s and early 1990s Porter Honnet and Poulsen, (in Tannenbaum, 2008) report that, “ the National Society for Experiential Education gathered educational leaders to define principles and research needs of service-learning”. The first of the ten Principles of Good Practice for Combining Service and Learning spoke directly to engaging people in responsible and challenging actions for the common good. This is another demonstration to the fact that this approach if adopted in the delivery of Civic Education in Zambian schools can go a long way in providing service to society, social justice and democratic education.

According to Lisman (1998: 38), “a final benefit of service learning for students is that it motivates them to take ownership in their learning”. Too often classroom learning is passive. Students are regarded as the passive vessels which faculty fill with knowledge. The author seems to suggest that knowledge is not just there to be absorbed as a sponge does liquid. Rather, learning has to promote active participants in the social construction of knowledge.

Students begin to grow as learners when they grasp that they are important players in this construction of knowledge. As students discern through their projects in the community that they are responsible not only to show up and provide service, but actually to come up with solutions to everyday problems, they begin to realize that they have an important role to play to contribute to community work. Moreover, as they relate their community work to course content, applying their community work as a tool in contributing to their understanding of this academic content, they begin to sense the importance of their role in the creation of knowledge, the knowledge; which they will use to effect social change and transformation of society. Based on this understanding, this study contends that it would be in the best interest of the learners if service learning as an approach was to be adopted in the teaching of Civic Education in Zambian schools. Various sources reviewed in chapter two have also shown that Civic Education is linked to the development of learners' capacities and abilities to examine issues from an informed position and also in ensuring that what they learn is practised.

With regard to Civics [Education] and Citizenship [Education], Hamilton and Zeldin (1987:407-420) observed that, "students participating in community-based learning had higher gains in political knowledge and efficacy". This means that these students had chances of getting involved in the transformation of their communities and society in general. Kahne and Sporte (2008: 738-766) found also that, "student commitment to civic responsibility is developed by 'classroom civic learning', service learning opportunities, discussions with parents on civics and politics, the civicality of the neighbourhood and non-sporting extra-curricular activities". This is yet another confirmation from scholars such as Kahne and Sport (2008) on the need to embrace service learning in Civic Education lessons. Arising from the above it has been observed that the teaching of Civic Education across the globe seems to be taking the service learning way which appears to be responding to the needs of society at

various levels. This can also be seen in the emphasis being made by various groups dealing with Civic Education in literature review chapter.

Zaff and Learner (2010:21-23) have also added their support to the observations that were made by Furco and Root (2010) that, “service learning approaches in subjects like Civic Education were likely to contribute to positive civic dispositions in students”. Other studies have also shown that, “such pedagogy has a positive impact on student behaviour and moral awareness, resulting in improved student attitudes towards their social responsibilities and civic engagement” This kind of situation enhances and supports the position of this study regarding the extent to which Civic Education is able to serve as an indicator of social change and transformation of society.

Opportunities for citizenship development, according to Root and Seum (2010: 44-54), “are supplied through service learning activities that provide among others the opportunity for reflection on the reciprocal rights and responsibilities of citizens and society; information on the roles of citizens and societal institutions; historical and political information relating to law, justice and the rights of an individual; and, understanding of differences between people. Probably this can explain the reason behind the resurgence of service learning approaches in the field of Civic Education across the globe”.

Furco and Root (2010: 16-20) have cited studies that show a range of effects stemming from service learning related approaches such as community engagement and state that this enhances personal and social skills of the learners such as leadership capacity; positive effects on self-esteem and self-efficacy. It can be argued from this position that the emergence of this approach in Citizenship Education is anchored on the skills that learners are able to get out of it and also how they engage in matters that concern social change and transformation of society.

Seen from this point, one cannot doubt that service learning is really becoming one of the approaches in the teaching and learning of Citizenship Education in schools across nations.

This concern has continued into modern philosophies of education. Speck and Hoppe (2004: 3-4) report that, “the classic liberal thinkers argued for a central role for values and citizenship in education”. For instance, John Locke and Immanuel Kant argued for character education and John Stuart Mill for an education for “capable and sensible” civic participation. Even Jean-Jacques Rousseau’s romantically individualistic philosophy of education articulated ultimately a plan for sympathetic and civil interaction with other members of society. At the centre of all these liberal thinkers the issue of service learning comes out prominently in their arguments in one way or the other. This is a clear indication that education should prepare people to become useful members of society and not only that but also that it should make learners become useful elements in the transformation society.

In the United States, for example, (Speck and Hoppe, 2004:4-6) reported in favour of a basic universal education for males on the grounds that this would prepare them for the necessary conditions of citizenship. Furthermore, Jefferson argued that more advanced education should be provided for a select few who would then become civic leaders and civil servants. However, this type of approach to education can be highly criticised in today’s thinking on the basis that it is not an all inclusive kind of education because of taking a biased position on the other gender. This type of education can also be detrimental to the transformation of society whether now or in the future. Despite the approach that was taken by Jefferson one thing that comes out clear from his thoughts is that the aim of education is that education has to benefit the state and society. Those graduating from schools are expected by their society to be able to apply the broad information, knowledge, skills, theories and other principles learnt from schools to benefit society.

In this connection, one gets some sense that the classical philosophers of education saw education not in terms of facts only but also in terms of its role in the development of a character with disposition to act on the skills, theories, knowledge and principles that would change or transform the face of society. Thus philosophers of education at that time had envisioned a kind of education that would prepare students into becoming useful members of society and contribute to the total transformation and the development of a productive society.

However, although the classic theories highlighted above delineated community service as a goal of education, the idea of service-learning being seen in the context of the education system or part of the educational curriculum has more recent roots. Whereas in classic educational theory, the application of knowledge to social problems was thought to follow the completion of study, in service-learning, community service is part of the pedagogical method through which theories and facts are learned.

The idea that community service or service learning can and should be introduced in the course of education is a clear testimony that no society would be transformed without the combination of theory and practice. This idea is premised on the thinking of John Dewey and is a clear reflection of progressive education. Dewey understands that, “the nature of knowledge and society and his corresponding philosophy of education provide theoretical roots for service-learning”. His pragmatist, or alternatively instrumentalist or experimentalist, theory of knowledge was central to his philosophy of education (Speck & Hoppe, 2004:5). He argued against the prevalent epistemological theories from early modern rationalism and empiricism to the twentieth-century analytic philosophy. These theories according to him only portrayed knowledge as objective and of two general types: on one hand, empirical knowledge based on

the data provided by our senses and on the other hand, a priori, principled knowledge provided by the inherent workings of the mind, in areas such as math, logic, and ethics.

Against this view of objective knowledge, Dewey (1916; 1963) argued that, “knowledge is always an active attempt to respond to one’s situation in the world”. This fits in well with the topic at hand in that Civic Education attempts to respond to people’s situations in the community and that being the case it is clear that service learning framework becomes the best approach in realising that goal. In fact, Dewey suggested that the purpose of reasoning is to solve the problems that confront us. When one feels no difficulty or challenge—when one is moving freely, easily, and comfortably about in the world—one does not consciously reflect on, define, or analyze one’s experiences. Valid ideas are those that help us to resolve our problems and doubts and return to a satisfied condition. In this sense, service learning as a framework in the teaching of Civic Education has the potential to make learners reflect, define and analyze issues critically as opposed to just accepting things on face value. This type of approach can help in the transformation of society. As such, and from the point of view of Dewey, “service learning can prove very helpful in ensuring that learners begin to reason and address the many challenges that confront society”. As the saying goes, “a scientific theory is held to be true if we can apply it to future cases while an ethical principle is true if it can be used to resolve the problems that confront people”. Clearly from this statement we can link it to the focus of this study whose objective is demonstrate that Civic Education lessons in schools could be delivered effectively through frameworks such as service learning and community engagement.

Dewey’s argument for a reconstruction in the philosophy of knowledge is paralleled by his critique of traditional educational theory. Classic philosophies of education suggested that students should be taught basic facts and principles, which, having been mastered, can be used

as a basis to approach future problems. On this traditional model, the goal of education is to get the student to acquire the core facts and theories that an educated person must know (Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 1-9).

The method of education is usually didactic; the student is lectured to about material that is to be memorized, with some reinforcement through repetition. For Dewey, “by contrast, the fact that reflection always orients us in experience means that the acquisition of knowledge should be continually related to concrete situations and the challenges they present”. This suggests that traditional education and its goals must be abandoned in favour of active, progressive education whose focus is active and practical in terms of learning. For Dewey, it was difficult for the school system to teach students ideas, theories and other facts of life without giving them the life contexts that gave them the true meaning and validity of what they were learning in the classrooms. Further, Dewey contended that, “one does not really understand the concepts of science or humanities if one does not know how to apply them to concrete situations in all their complexity”. For this reason, Dewey argued that, “students who learn concepts through directly realizing their useful application know them better and more genuinely than those who have simply memorized abstract theories and facts” (Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 1-9). Dewey’s argument in this regard has more to do with Civic Education than anything else and the aspect of service learning could be in the whole line of his argument on this subject.

As such, “learning in actual life contexts also tends to involve the full engagement of the student, as he or she is physically and emotionally involved in the subject of study”. Dewey noted in his arguments that traditional educators were always trying to think of how to

make their material interesting to students. He commented that the need to make the material interesting was because of its separation from real-life contexts. By contrast, when students were involved in real-life contexts, there was no need to make material interesting. For him the capacity for reflective problem solving and critical mindedness was the mark of an educated individual. Through this approach I argue that chances that learners would be involved in the affairs of their communities were high and make it easier for them to relate with what is obtaining in society. In other words, the issue of service learning seems to have been at the very heart of Dewey on education and it is somehow clear from what has been said that service-learning from the point of view of Dewey should be based on some form of progressive education. Seen from this angle it would be argued that the case for service learning has been thoroughly dealt with in the Deweyan way. In this way this study is justified to contend that the teaching of Civic Education can only lead to social change and transformation of society if it is modelled on the principles of service learning. Without considering this kind of framework in the teaching of Civic Education in schools, there are high chances that no impact will be felt and experienced about value of the subject in the community.

As aptly put by Rocheleau in Speck and Hoppe (2004: 1-9) community service makes theories, and concepts concrete, and prepares the individual to actively participate in their society. Such early works inspired by progressive educational theory are said to be the predecessors of current service- learning initiatives and this framework if fully utilised in the teaching and learning of Civic Education has the potential to make learners active and would be able to approach societal challenges with a focused mind.

On the other hand, this study is also aware of the fact that other scholars and writers especially traditional liberal educators were initially opposed to the principles of service learning in the field of education citing various reasons. For instance, (Hutchins in Speck &

Hoppe, 2004:10) criticised it as impure, insufficiently rigorous, ethically and politically biased and detracting from objective study and the broader goals of a liberal education. They argued to the contrary any method of education that promoted and tailored to practical success as directly as to general knowledge. Their arguments were that this kind of education would be at odds with giving the students a comprehensive background in generally valid theories and the most important facts.

This sense of a lack of rigor and commitment to science and applied science was repeated in the 1980s after economic recession and the relative success of Japan, which began to outperform the United States in the automobile and other technology-intensive industries. In the 1983 Nation at Risk report condemning the state of American education, Secretary William Bennett and others pointed to new, unproven educational methods as a reason for the slipping test scores of U.S. children as compared to the rest of the world (National Commission on Excellence in Education, in Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 10). At this time, agitation was building up and there were calls across the sections of society to return to approaches of education that were not service oriented.

Another objection to progressive education, which applied particularly to service-learning, was that it eschewed the neutrality befitting a liberal government and objective academicians in their education of citizens. Opponents of government indoctrination held that education should not indoctrinate individuals into particular social ideals or forms of life. Rather educators should give the students knowledge about facts and about different kinds of values and allow students to decide how to put this knowledge to use, that is, which values to pursue. Following the influential epistemological theory of positivism, value neutrality also became an ideal of academic research. Values, holds positivism, cannot be reflected upon rationally but are arbitrary matters of subjective or cultural choice. Genuine knowledge, then,

must involve empirically or logically testable theories characteristic of science and math. Students can study in humanities and social science what people have held to be valuable, but educators and students have no defensible basis for making judgments of value. A frequent criticism of project-based education is that it violates neutrality by promoting a certain form of citizenship, encouraging particular social ideals, and coercing students to engage in particular types of social activism (Rochelaeu in Speck & Hoppe, 2004:10).

Additionally, service learning as a kind of education was seen to be impure owing to the fact that certain experiments in technical education, in which high schools and colleges developed curricula tailored to prepare students to perform particular jobs. In Cleveland, for example the cooperation of the school system with the automotive industry, with students building cars during school time, led to the charge that progressive education and service learning in particular was narrowly training students to be productive workers rather than educating them to be free human beings and citizens capable of choosing between a range of life goals and activities (Rocheleau in Speck & Hoppe, 2004:11).

Despite all the attacks on service learning, (Rocheleau in Speck & Hoppe, 2004:11) observes that service learning is still the best mode of teaching in schools since it combines traditional didactic methods with project learning. Dewey himself argued that, “it would be a mistake to assume that students should be entirely left alone to grapple with new experiences”. He further contended that, “the belief that all genuine education comes about through experience does not mean that all experiences are genuinely or equally educative” (Dewey, 1963). This was a clear reaction to the notion that was being peddled at the time that service learning was not making learners active in their society. In fact learning just about facts and knowledge without their direct application in the community could be a more dangerous way of educating students in schools. It is also important to note that while education’s emphasis on

service learning can be guilty in one way or the other it cannot be entirely condemned as being narrow but can still be one of the best forms of methods to be used in schools which can prepare students broadly in their development as individuals and citizens.

The concerns for rigor and breadth in education as well as for economic and military competitiveness were used to defend a return to traditional methods. Progressivism came to be widely regarded as impure, biased, or lacking in academic rigor. This shift in educational theory may have been influenced by the rise of logical positivism as an overarching epistemological theory. Logical positivism sought to preserve an account of the possibility of objective empirical knowledge through a formal analysis of the reference of language use (Rocheleau in Speck & Hoppe, 2004:12). Positivists portrayed pragmatist as well as phenomenological approaches to knowledge as lacking an appropriate analysis of the nature of objective truth and consistent meaning.

The radically democratic social philosophy suggested by Dewey was also eclipsed in the course of the twentieth century. Dewey's hope for a community of activists began to appear unrealistic to many with the growth of political complexity, social fragmentation, and political alienation. Political philosophy began to emphasize the nature of individual rights and justice in balancing competing interests between citizens (Rocheleau in Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 12). Thus, several intellectual and practical movements resulted in the declining influence of progressivism. In the middle to later part of the twentieth century, from around 1940 to 1985, the theories of Dewey were out of vogue. At the same time, experiments in project-oriented service learning remained exceptional (Rocheleau in Speck & Hoppe, 2004: 12).

3.7 Conclusion

This chapter began by giving the introduction which was meant to set the stage for the discussion on service learning as a teaching framework in education. In this chapter, various definitions on service learning were discussed. The chapter further discussed the historical background of service learning in education. The justification of Service learning in the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools was equally discussed. In short the chapter provides critical indicators and predictions on the usefulness of service learning in education and also how useful it can be in the teaching and learning of Civic Education in the schools in Zambia. The chapter has also shown that Service learning engages with learners and also prepares them to actively participate in their society and contribute to social change. This means that it promotes learning which is linked to the needs of society and not just learning in abstract terms. The next chapter describes the procedures and methods used in this study.

CHAPTER FOUR

METHODOLOGICAL APPROACHES TO THE STUDY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses the methodological approach that was taken in the study. This is done by way of presenting the research design, context of the study and sample access and recruitment of participants, description of data collection instruments, reliability and validity of instruments, pre-test and data collection and analysis procedures. The chapter ends with a summary of data collection and analysis.

4.2 Research Design

The study is a mixed methodology model since I used a mixture or combination of quantitative and qualitative methods. As such, some parts of the two models were conducted concurrently and other parts sequentially with the view to clear address the research question and other related sub-questions. Creswell (2006) argues that, “the combination of quantitative and qualitative approaches provides a better understanding of research problems than either approach alone”. The study relied mainly on exploratory studies, Kothari (2004:35-36), argues that, “major emphasis in such studies is on the discovery of ideas and insights”. In the context of the study at hand this approach is appropriate in that it stands to provide validated data on the extent to which the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools serves as an indicator of social change and transformation of society. Chand (2010:26-27) contends that the basic purpose of the exploratory research studies is to achieve new insights for further studies. He further argues that these studies are more important in cases where very little information is available. The last part of Chand’s statement resonates very well with the study at hand especially that there has been no previous investigation that has been conducted in Zambia

examining the extent to which the teaching of Civic Education in schools serves as an indicator of social change and transformation of society. Up to now, far too little attention has been paid to the pedagogical practices that could be adopted in the teaching of Civic Education in schools so that learners' capacities and abilities are developed to trigger social change and transformation of society. What is said and being said about Civic Education's role in society is not based on empirical evidence but mere speculation and conjectures of ordinary people, policy makers, communities, NGOs and other concerned stakeholders. This in most cases has led to generalisability on this issue without concrete evidence from research. Similarly, taken for granted positions have been made in various sections of society with regard to the impact that Civic Education is making in society and yet others have disputed such positions. From such a background, the use of exploratory research design was appropriate as it guided the study in getting new insights from the research on the teaching of Civic Education vis-a-vis social change and transformation of society. In particular, this study was triangulated in order to encourage or allow the expression of different facets of knowledge and experience on the main research question.

Thus both qualitative and quantitative paradigms and methods were used though there are usually debates surrounding the viability of combining these approaches in the same study. According to Hussein (2009:1-12) some researchers argue that there could be challenges in combining the two paradigms in the same study because of the epistemological and ontological differences inherent in each one of the paradigms.

However, Onwegbuzie and Johnson (2006); Johnson and Onwegbuzie(2004); Maxcy (2003) and Sanders (1997) ; (in Mbewe, 2012:49) state that mixed methods approach generally follows philosophical and methodological pragmatism with a very broad and inclusive ontological realism. They have contended that Pragmatism and inclusive ontology have played great roles in shaping the understanding of validity in mixed research approaches. As a result of this it has led to labelling the criteria for assessing mixed research studies as legitimation,

conceptualizing the legitimation in mixed studies in terms of inference quality and inference transferability, and identifying the types of legitimation for mixed research standing about a particular subject area of interest and both of them have strengths and weaknesses.

Additionally, authors such as Greene, Caracelli & Graham (1989); Mathison(1988) and Swanson (1992) advanced five reasons for combining methods in a single study as:

- a. “Triangulating in the classic sense of seeking convergence of results”;
- b. “Complimentary, in that overlapping and different facets of a phenomenon may emerge (e.g. peeling the layers of an onion)”;
- c. “Developmentally, wherein the first method is used sequentially to help inform the second method”;
- d. “Initiation, wherein contradictions and fresh perspectives emerge”; and
- e. “Expansion, wherein the mixed method add breadth and scope to a study”.

Creswell (2006) also identified four major types of mixed methods designs and thus: “Triangulation design,” “Embedded design”, “Explanatory design”, and “Exploratory design”. As such Creswell stated that, “triangulation design also involved the concurrent collection and analysis of quantitative and qualitative data to enable a researcher to better understand a research problem”. In view of the rigor of the mixed-method design, this study used triangulation with the full understanding that people responding to interviews or open ended questions will often raise quite different issues to those provided for in a structured questionnaire asking essentially the same questions. This is supported by Morgan (1993) and Kaplowitz (2000) who argue that interviews or focus groups generate different information, reflecting public versus private views and preparedness to deal with more sensitive issues in interviews. More specifically triangulation was used to add depth and breadth to the study and even hold the key to understanding the topic clearly (Jick, 1979; Mark, Feller and Button, 1997).

In fact, one of the fundamental benefits in combining approaches is that it creates great possibility of neutralizing the flaws of one method and strengthening the benefits of the other for the better research results. Thus in wanting to reap the benefits of two paradigms and minimizing the drawbacks of each, the researcher found it befitting in combining two approaches. As such this study did not only rely on the questionnaires that were given out to the respondents but did rely on some interviews with some of the teachers who had answered the questionnaires as a way of confirming or disconfirming; cross- validating and wanting to corroborate the initial findings. Focus group discussions (FGDS) with some pupils in Grades 10, 11 and 12 classes were also conducted with the view to establish what their views were regarding the teaching and learning of Civic Education and how they perceived it in relation to social change and transformation of society. Some School administrators, ministry officials and lecturers of Civic Education in two colleges and at University of Zambia and some teachers teaching Civic Education were also interviewed. The point to be noted here is that all this was done in order to minimise and neutralise levels of bias from either side of the respondents and this underscores the essence of triangulating studies of such a nature

Creswell and Crack, (in Creswell, 2009:4) supports the above statement that, “the use of both approaches is meant to strengthen the results of the study and also addresses issues of validity”. Further, Creswell and Crack, (in Creswell, 2009:4) states that, “ in recent years the use of qualitative and quantitative methods in studying the same phenomenon has received significant attention among scholars and researchers”. To prove the importance it has received, some researchers have claimed that it is a third research method in addition to qualitative and quantitative research methods. Different names have been assigned to this new and growing research position; some of them are “multi-strategy”, “multi-methods”, “ mixed methodology or mixed methods” (Bryman, 2004; Creswell, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 2003; Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998; and Brannen, 1992). In fact regarding mixed methods, Oslen (2004) contends

that there are mixed views on the use of triangulation in research while Golafshani(2003) ; Webb, Campbell, Schwartz & Sechrest (1996); Smith & Kleine (1986); Denzin (1978); argue that, “triangulation is just for increasing the wider and deep understanding of the study as well as taking into account validity measures”.

Creswell and Miller (2000) on the other hand look at triangulation as, “a validity procedure where researchers look for convergence among multiple and different sources of information to form themes or categories in a study”. Patton (1990:187) argues that, “one important way to strengthen a study design is through triangulation or the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomena or programmes”. This can mean using several kinds of methods or data, including both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Further, Patton states that, “studies that use only one method are more vulnerable to errors linked to that particular method (e.g., loaded interview questions, biased or untrue responses) than studies that use multiple methods in which different types of data provide cross-data validity checks”.

Therefore, this study endeavoured to observe these aspects before and during data collection, during data analysis, and interpretations of the results. Apart from that, the choice of triangulation was intended to provide more comprehensive information about the topic than it would have been if only one approach was relied upon.

4.5 Study Setting and Sample

The study was conducted in five (5) provinces of Zambia namely Central, Copperbelt, Eastern, Lusaka and Southern. The study sample was obtained from 20 schools from the 5 provinces as mentioned above. Four (4) schools were drawn from a centrally located district of each of the five provinces. This was based on the understanding of cosmopolite of the sites and also on the understanding that most of the schools in such areas had Civic Education in their curricula.

4.6 Sampling Design

In determining the sample design Bell (2005) states that, “all items under consideration in any field of inquiry constitute what is described as a universe or population”. A complete enumeration of all the items in the ‘population’ is known as a census inquiry. It can be presumed that in such an inquiry when all the items are covered no element of chance is left and highest accuracy is obtained. However, Bell (2005) still puts a caution that, “in practice this may not be true”. Even the slightest element of bias in such an inquiry will get larger and larger as the number of observations increases. Moreover, there is no way of checking the element of bias or its extent except through a resurvey or use of sample checks. Besides, this type of inquiry involves a great deal of time, money and energy. Apart from that Bell observes that, “census inquiry is not possible in practice under many circumstances”. For instance, Bell contends that blood testing is done only on sample basis. Hence, quite often people select only a few items from the universe for study purposes. The items so selected constitute what is technically called a sample.

In determining the choice of the sampling design, “issues of access to specific individuals in a population should be given due attention” (Babbie, 1990; Fink & Kosecoff, 1985). As such, the choice of the sample in this study was determined on the basis of access to specific individuals in the population and also on the basis of theoretically grounded and not necessarily statistical or personal positions. In this regard, this study used theoretical sampling and also purposive sampling. Theoretical sampling was used on the teachers of Civic Education, teacher educators and Ministry officials while purposive sampling was applied to the school administrators and Focus Group Discussions. Silverman (2010:143-145) states that, “theoretical and purposive sampling are often treated as synonymous but there is a difference in procedures”. Mason (in Silverman 2010:143-145) states that, “ theoretical sampling means selecting groups or categories to study on the basis of their relevance to one’s research

questions, theoretical position and most importantly the explanation or account which one is developing while purposive sampling is not theoretically defined”. She further contends that, “theoretical sampling is concerned with constructing a sample which is meaningful theoretically because it builds in certain characteristics or criteria which help to develop and test the theory and explanation”.

Babbie (2007: 205-208) states that, “ purposive also known as judgemental sampling is a non-probability sampling technique in which the units to be observed are selected on the basis of the researcher’s judgement about which ones will be the most useful or representative”. The logic and power behind purposive sampling is that it relies in selecting information-rich cases. Babbie (2007) states that, “information rich-cases are those from which one can learn a great deal about issues of central importance to the purpose of the research thus the term purposeful sampling. This though important does not allow some kind of generalizability and this can be a weakness for this kind of study. As such the use of theoretical sampling was important in this study in order to meet the gap created by purposive sampling and also for the purposes of extrapolation and generalizability. No wonder Charmaz (2006: 100) argues that, “theoretical sampling directs one where to go and when one needs to make further generalizations from the cases one has selected”.

Silverman (2010:145) further contends that, “theoretical sampling takes into account three aspects of the settings, research focus and generalisation”. By choosing the setting Silverman implies “demonstrating the phenomenon, in which one is interested, is accessible and providing appropriate data reasonably readily and quickly”. By the research focus he implies, “making a theoretically guided choice thus opting to focus on particularity of individuals, events or processes”. On generalisation, he implies, “on sharing theoretical orientations”. As reported by Mason (1996: 92) on generalisation, “ it is meant or designed to provide what she has called as a close-up, detailed or meticulous view of particular units which may constitute cases which

are relevant to or appear within the wider universe”. So in this case the choices of using theoretical and purposive sampling procedures in this study were aimed at making the study credible and valid.

Becker (1998:67) states that, “sampling can be a major problem for any kind of research since not all cases can be studied and so every scientific enterprise will try to find out something that will apply to everything of a certain kind by studying a few examples so that the results could be generalized to all members of that class of stuff”. In other words, the sampled population in the study can be used to make some generalization on the teaching of Civic Education in schools.

4.7 Study Population

The target population for the study were teachers of Civic Education as they were the key informants in the study while the rest of the elements in the study were respondents. According to Babbie (2007:186), “an informant is someone who is well versed in the social phenomenon that you wish to study and who is willing to tell you what he or she knows about it”. From the perspective of this study, it was important teachers of Civic Education constituted the biggest sample since they were the experts to provide the information that was required from the study.

4.8 Target Population

The target population included the teachers of Civic Education and these were 80 of which 10% or 8 teachers were to be interviewed. There were 80 in number drawn from 20 schools and 4 teachers from each the schools targeted. Questionnaires were distributed to the targeted number. 76 questionnaires were completed and returned while 4 were not returned. This represents 95% of the return rate and is acceptable in research. On the interviews, only 6 out of 8 were willing to be interviewed giving us the percentage figure of 75% which again is acceptable in research. For the teachers of Civic Education the reasons for giving them

questionnaires and conducting semi-structured interviews from the same group was aimed at getting balanced and valid information on the teaching and learning of Civic Education and also as a way of getting insights from their views and knowledge concerning the teaching of Civic Education and the extent to which the teaching was seen to be serving as an indicator that would enhance or impede social change and transformation of society.

I had also targeted 10 semi-structured interviews with Ministry of Education officials who were going to include senior officials at national level and some school administrators. Others to be interviewed were to be teacher educators from the University and Colleges of Education where Civic Education as a subject of training was being offered. Suffice to say that only 6 interviews were secured from the targeted number of 10 giving us 60%. This is also allowed in research especially that interviews are not usually easy to secure as people to be interviewed in most cases are not always willing to participate in the study owing to various commitments that they may have. This was equally noted in this study where Ministry of Education at the national level were not ready for the interview and I was just referred to the curriculum specialist in Civic Education at Curriculum Development Centre who initially had declined due to other commitments from her line of duty though later she accepted to be interviewed. Equally, with some school administrators the situation was the same as the majority were busy with other things in the line of their designations. For the teacher educators the response was very good as those that were directly involved in the teaching methods agreed to be interviewed and this was good in the sense of confirming and disconfirming certain taken for granted aspects of Civic Education in schools especially from the teachers

Focus Group Discussions (FGDs) with selected pupils were also conducted and in particular 40 pupils out of the 60 were involved, giving us 67%. The researcher felt that this was good in the light of the time when the study was being conducted. Most, if and not all the schools at this time were busy preparing for the final examinations and national examinations

and it was not the intention of the researcher to disturb the learners. The FGDs were meant to engage the learners on the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools as a way of confirming and disconfirming what was said by other respondents regarding the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools. The whole sample population is broken as follows:

- a. **76** teachers of Civic Education drawn from the 20 sampled schools
- b. **40** pupils (FGDs) drawn from Grades 10, 11 and 12 from the sampled schools
- c. **3** Lecturers of methods from Tertiary Education institutions(University and two (2) Colleges of Education)
- d. **3** M.o.E officials who included two (2) school administrators and a curriculum subject specialist at national level.

Therefore, the sample for the study was 122 respondents and informants.

4.9 Access and Recruitment of Participation

The choice of an appropriate study site for any research is fundamental to all researches. For validity purposes Creswell (in Amoah, 2011:98-100) prefers, “selecting a typical site”. Even though Wainwright (in Amoah, 2011: 98-99) has raised some concerns about the typicality of a research site with regard to what constitutes a typical site when no exploration of potential sites have been carried out, Bryman (in Amoah, 2011) thinks, “selecting a site needs to be done reflexively and managed according to the context specificity in such a manner that it can help access the authentic views of participants”. In view of this, Wainwright has suggested the following criteria:

- i. “Ease of access for the informants”,
- ii. “Whether data can be adequately recorded”, and

- iii. “Whether there are any characteristics of the sites that might influence informants testimony”

From Wainwright’s suggestions, which may not be sufficient, access to the study site was based on the above reasons where it was necessary and where there was no need any other reasons that the researcher deemed necessary in the course of data collection were observed. The first part was to get the official permission from the Permanent Secretary in the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (MESVTEE) so that I could have express access to the sampled schools where data was to be collected from. Some privileges, in terms of access and prior knowledge that I thought could potentially be useful in the research process, informed my choice of the schools. My familiarity with the subject matter and the selection of teachers generally had some influence on the decisions that I had to make about the data that was going to be collected but I ensured that levels of objectivity and critical reflexivity were observed on my part throughout data collection period.

Having been given the permission from the Ministry headquarters I went to the schools and had to seek permission also from the school authorities to conduct the study and I explained to the school authorities on the teachers and pupils that I wanted in the study. In view of this, I decided to pick on the teachers who were teaching Civic Education and also willing to participate in the study. Those that were not willing even if they were teaching Civic Education were not forced to get involved in the study. I also ensured that the teachers who were going to answer the questionnaires were those who had keen interest in the study at hand apart from just willing to participate in the study. This was going to make them address the concerns in the study as honestly as possible. I also ensured that pupils that were learning Civic Education were the ones to be selected for the focus group discussions and not any other pupils in the sampled schools. Equally, the teacher educators selected from the University and

Colleges of Education were those typically involved in the lecturing of Civic Education. Other respondents were also selected on the basis of their relevance to the study so that I could get views that were valid about the subject matter.

4.10 Ethical Issues

Denzin (in Scheyvens & Storey 2003:140-1), states that, “there are two ethical models prevalent in social science research”. The first one is a traditional model based on Immanuel Kant’s (1724-1804) philosophical work. This model according to de Laine (2000:23), “is premised on a set of principles or codes which direct research practice”. This implies that the levels of flexibility are not taken lightly regarding guidelines and the ability of the individual to make ethical decisions based on situational and personal circumstances. Regarding the first model, there is no ethical relativism. On the other hand, the second model argues for flexibility in ethical decisions. While there are debates on whether issues of ethics should be flexible or rigid, in this study, three critical aspects of ethics were considered. These are:

- a. Informed consent
- b. Anonymity and confidentiality
- c. Conflict of interest

4.10.1 Informed Consent

Informed consent according to the American Sociological Association, is when, “a potential participant freely and with full understanding of the research agrees to be part of the project” (Scheyvens & Storey (2003:140-148). It is anchored on the understanding that those from whom the information is to be solicited are made to understand completely and thoroughly the aims and processes of the research undertaken, what the research will be used for, such as policy formulation and publications and who will have access to the information

gathered. In this sense, it was reasonable on my part, to meet the participants so that I could inform them about the study under investigation and also as a way of formally trying to solicit their willingness and volunteerism to participate in the study. The focus was really to explain all aspects of the research to the participants. Those that were not ready to be part of the study were left out without any conditions attached and even those that agreed did also voluntarily.

Scheyvens and Storey (2003:140-148) report that, “informing potential participants typically occurs via an information sheet”. In this study, such an approach was not be applied due to time factor and other unforeseen circumstances but I made sure that the respondents were explained to on the purpose of the study, the nature of the research procedures and their role in the study. In fact the American Anthropological Association Code of Ethics (1984: III4A) state that, “it is the quality of the consent and not the format that is relevant”. Further, since research is dynamic, “it is also argued that informed consent at all stages of the research cannot be guaranteed by a pile of signed consent forms handed out early in the research process”.

4.10.2 Anonymity and Confidentiality

This study also adhered to the above aspect so that information taken or given out by the respondents was credible and reliable. In this study, confidentiality issues were treated under two levels and this was based on Marshall and Rossman (in Amoah 2011: 103). Firstly, “the participants were assured of my keeping in confidence every bit of information they provided regarding their personality, and secondly, criticisms about their teaching pedagogical practices, and other variables that were informing the study were not going to be tagged to any particular individual participant in the results discussions”. This was done to ensure that they were not unwittingly put in any undesirable position so that they would avail themselves to be part of other researches. However, regarding anonymity, they were assured that when reporting the

findings no reference would be made to individual participants and that where it was necessary to quote participants, pseudonyms would be used

In terms of anonymity and confidentiality, Scheyvens & Storey(2003:140-148) state that, “anonymity refers to the researcher’s responsibility to keep the identity of participants private if they wish so that they will not be personally identifiable in any outputs produced by the researcher though they argue that it would be wrong to assume that all participants may want to be treated as anonymous”. They further argue that, “some participants feel very proud of their contribution in the study though in this study such a disclosure will be inappropriate and as such the study will stick to issues of anonymity”. On confidentiality, it is noted that it is a broader term which recognises that a researcher may be entrusted with private information. This implies that the researcher has a moral responsibility for ensuring that any field notes, tapes or transcripts are stored in safe places that information contained in them is used only for the intended purposes of the study. As such the levels of anonymity and confidentiality were strictly adhered to in this study.

4.10.3 Conflict of Interest

Since research is always based on relationships of trust and loyalty, with participants issues of conflict of interest are always bound to occur and in this study the researcher ensured that any perceived conflicts of interest were addressed to avoid jeopardising the whole study. The researcher in this study ensured that elements of biasness were avoided and presented the findings as given. In other words, all ethical considerations in this study were adhered to.

4.11 Description of Data Collection Instruments

Participants in this study responded to five (5) instruments (See instruments on the appendix pages) Teachers’ Questionnaire; Research Instrument for Ministry Officials; Interview Guide for the teachers; Lecturers’ Instrument and Focus Group Discussion instrument.

4.11.1 Teachers' Questionnaire

The teachers' questionnaire (See Appendix) was used to collect quantitative data on teachers' demographic information, teachers' pedagogical practices on Civic Education; teachers' knowledge on Civic Education; teachers' views on the teaching of Civic Education and teachers' self evaluation on Civic Education. In section A, respondents were asked to give their biographical data in terms of gender, age, the post they were holding in the school, level of qualification held, length of service in teaching Civic Education, workload (number of periods per week), number of workshops/training attended in Civic Education over the last three years, number of teachers per school teaching Civic Education and the locality of the school. Section B, was on pedagogical practices regarding the teaching of Civic Education. This part had six statement items with ten (10) short statements that were to be answered on a five point Likert scale (see also on the appendix). Section C was on teachers' knowledge on Civic Education. This part was organised in a similar pattern as section B. Section D was on teachers' views on the teaching of Civic Education in schools and it was equally modelled as in section C. Section E was on teachers' self evaluation and had 28 short statements which were supposed to be answered on a five point Likert scale and section F was on general issues regarding the teaching and learning of Civic Education (see also in the appendix).

4.11.2 Research Instruments for the Ministry of Education Officials

The research instrument for the officials from the Ministry of Education was targeted the senior officers and school administrators. It had policy relevant questions on the organisation of Civic Education in the Zambian Education system (see appendix).

4.11.3 Interview Guide for the Teachers of Civic Education

The guide had questions regarding the teaching of Civic Education in schools (see appendix).

4.11.4 Lecturers Instrument

This instrument had questions regarding the training of teachers of Civic Education in the Colleges of Education and the University (see appendix).

4.11.5 Focus Group Discussions Instrument

This instrument had questions regarding the pupils' understanding of Civic Education and how it was impacting on them in the long run.

4.12 Reliability and Validity of the Instruments

According to Dale (in Kalimaposo, 2010:127/28), "validation involves taking those weak points into consideration". It must be noted that as one is validating, he is also testing the reliability of the instruments to be used in any given study. Kombo and Tromp (2006: 97) note also that, "validity is a measure of how well a test measures what it is supposed to measure". For example, they assert that, "the examiner's manual or technical manual for most tests will have information on the validity of the test". On reliability they note that, "it is a measure of how consistent the results from a test are". For example, they have also posed a question as follows: "if you administer a test to a subject twice do you get the same score on the second administration as you did on the first?" As such the reliability of the test is to answer to this question.

Straus and Cohen (in Kalimaposo, 2010: 127/28) contend that, "the validity of a measure or instrument is described as doing what is supposed to measure". In order to have good instruments, the researcher sent them to the supervisor for cross-checking and one Professor with some focus in Civic Education in Norway in order to ensure that all the loose ends were tightened. The inputs of the supervisor and the professor from Norway were very helpful to the

extent that I had to include key ideas in the final instruments. I also gave out the instruments to some teachers who were teaching Civic Education as way of trying to understand their perspectives on the study under investigation. This helped to shape out grey areas that might have been unclear. The other reason for giving the instruments to the said people was aimed at enhancing the reliability and validity of the instruments in terms of content validity and construct validity.

According to Kalimaposo (2010:128), “content validity measures the degree to which the various items in the instrument collectively cover the material that the instrument is supposed to cover while construct validity measures how meaningful the scale or instruments are when in practical use”. All these were again done in consultation with the supervisor, the professor from Norway and the teachers of Civic Education who were captured in the pilot stage. It was also one way of giving the researcher an opportunity to note the weak areas in the study and also to make clarifications on some unclear statements and vague questions before the instruments could be rolled over to the entire study.

In the case of the teachers’ questionnaires, it was subjected to Cronbach’s alpha in order to measure the reliability of the items that were going to provide good support for the internal consistency reliability. As a result, most of the items in the questionnaire had alpha levels that were positive. Nine items were subjected to Cronbach’s Alpha in order to measure the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. Out of the 9 items, 8 were found to have loadings greater than 0.70 and were used to analyze the data. This is in line with what has been stated by Morgan et al (2007:129) that, “alpha should be positive and usually greater than 0.70 in order to provide good support for internal consistency reliability”. Results of the Alpha levels are shown in the table below:

Table 3: Results of Alpha levels

Item	Reliability Level (Cronbach's Alpha)
Barrier	
Teaching of Civic Education In schools	0.87
Relevance of Civic Education in schools	0.93
Teaching and Learning materials	0.70
Content of Civic Education	0.70
Influence of Civic Education	0.92
Challenges faced by Teachers	0.86
Teachers' Knowledge in Civic Education	0.91
Teachers' views about Civic Education	0.93

4.13 Data Collection and Analysis Procedures

4.13.1 Methods of data collection

In this study the main ways by which data was collected was through questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, focus group discussions (FGDs) and document analysis.

Questionnaires were sought for in the study because I wanted to capture a number of teachers that were teaching Civic Education in the sampled schools. This was against the background that in most of the schools in the country teachers of Civic Education are very few and in some cases one would find that the maximum number would be four (4) and the lowest would be one (1) if none at all in some extreme situations. In this case, the questionnaires were given only to the teachers of Civic Education in the sampled schools so as to get the required information for the study. The questionnaire was designed using Likert five point scales. Likert –type scale according to Best and Kahn (2006:330), “helps the researcher to collect a number of statements about the subject under investigation”. This format also requests respondents or informants to indicate whether they strongly agree, agree, not sure, strongly disagree or disagree with the statement posed in the questionnaire item (Kalimapos, 2010).

The Likert scale format was selected for the ease understanding to audiences on the subject of investigation and also in trying to avoid lengthy questionnaires which can take a great deal of time and effort on the part of the respondents. As pointed by Best and Kahn (2006:313), “there is unfavourable reaction from the respondents when the questionnaire is too long and this can have an impact on the validity in situations where the questionnaires are not returned or attended to due to their lengthy nature”. In this regard, the researcher ensured that the questionnaires were properly constructed for easy administration to the respondents. In other words, the questionnaire was designed in a way that avoided vagueness.

As such Gall and Borg (2007) have also noted that, “questionnaires and interviews are used extensively in educational research to collect data about phenomena that are not directly observable”. Further, they can also be used to collect data about observable phenomena more conveniently than by direct observation. It must be noted also here that before the questionnaires were administered, it was tested for the purposes of reliability and consistent. This meant sending it to the Supervisor, a professor in Norway and others who were deemed

knowledgeable on the subject. After such a process, a pilot study was then conducted to test the appropriateness of the questions and other aspects. This was aimed at getting the desired results from the study.

Kothari (2004:101) argues that, “before using questionnaires it is always advisable to conduct pilot study or (Pilot Survey)”. In fact, according to Kothari, “pilot surveys are the replica and rehearsal of the main survey because such a survey brings to light the weaknesses if any of the questionnaires and also of the survey techniques”. Upagade and Shende (2012:58-59) also state that, “pilot survey enables the researcher to have proper knowledge of the universe to be sampled; how non responses can be eliminated; determining the adequacy of the sample design for the survey; the suitability of alternative method of data collection; testing the efficiency of briefing provided to the respondent and also providing the probable test of the main survey to be conducted”. As such, from the experience gained in the survey the whole questionnaire and eventually the study is improved. So the pilot study was done to ensure that all the seemingly weaknesses of the study are identified before the final questionnaires was administered on a large scale to the intended respondents in the study.

4.13.2 Semi- Structured Interviews

According to Patton (1990), “the purpose of interviewing is to find out what is in and on someone’s mind”. He further states that, “interviews are done on people to find out from them those things we cannot directly observe”. The issue here is not whether observational data is more desirable, valid or meaningful than self data. The fact of the matter as observed by Patton is that we cannot observe everything. “We cannot observe feelings, thoughts and intentions”. “We cannot observe behaviours that took place at some previous point in time”. “We cannot observe how people have organised the world and the meanings they attach to what goes on in the world”. “We have to ask people questions about those things”. As such, interviews were conducted with some of the teachers that answered the questionnaire. This was meant to

confirm and disconfirm certain positions about the teaching of Civic Education which might not have been captured in the questionnaire. Apart from that, interviews in this study were meant to find out their experiences, perspectives, ideas/thoughts and intentions about the way Civic Education was taught and how the teaching itself was enhancing and/or impeding social change and transformation of society. The interviews were also meant to get views from teacher educators, Ministry of Education senior officials and some school administrators by way of entering into the respondents' perspectives on the way they perceive the teaching of Civic Education in the schools. What do they know about Civic Education in general and in specific terms; what does Civic Education programme look and feel like to the people involved? What are the experiences of the respondents to Civic Education as a programme? What thoughts do the teachers and other stakeholders for example as respondents have about Civic Education in terms of the operations, processes, content, methods, objectives, goals, aims and outcomes?; what are the respondents' expectations? What features of Civic Education are pertinent in transforming the mindsets of the learners and the people in general? What changes do respondents see as a result of their involvement in Civic Education? In this way, the researcher's intentions were to get as much information as possible from the respondents and the informants. To have the intended purpose the researcher prepared the guide on how the interviews were going to be conducted. According to Patton (1990) the interview guide simply serves as a basic checklist during the interview to make sure that all relevant topics and possibly areas of importance in the research are covered.

4.12.3 Focus Group Discussions (FGDs)

Focus Group Discussions were another critical source of getting information in this study with regard to the teaching of Civic Education in Zambia. This aspect targeted the learners themselves. Thus, forty (40) pupils from sampled schools were engaged in the discussions concerning the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools. The pupils were divided in

groups of ten (10) and the discussions lasted for 30 minutes in each of the four groups. Discussions were done in classrooms which were not used by the other pupils so that interruptions were avoided. The main purpose of the FGDs was to get the pupils' feelings and thoughts about the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools on whether or not it was responsive to social change and transformation of society.

4.12.4 Document Analysis

Document Analysis was also part of this study. According to Kombo and Tromp (2006) "document analysis involves gathering data that already has been collected by someone else". "It also involves the collection and analysis of published material and information from internal sources". "It may also be conducted by collecting information from a diverse source of documents or electronically stored information which sometimes is referred to as desk research". Best and Kahn (2006:257) contend that, "documents are an important sources of data in many areas of investigation and the methods". The choice of using this method in this study was meant to do the following among the many things:

- a. describe the prevailing pedagogical practices in the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools
- b. discover the relative importance of or interest in certain topics or problems of the study under investigation
- c. discover the level of difficulty of presentation in textbooks in other resource materials used in the teaching and learning of Civic Education especially with regard to pedagogical issues
- d. evaluate some bias, prejudice or propaganda in Civic Education teaching and learning materials
- e. analyze types of errors in Civic Education teaching and learning materials and how they impact on the learning outcomes

According to Best and Kahn (2006:258), “content or document analysis should serve a useful purpose in yielding information helpful in evaluating or explaining social or educational practices”. Since there are so many significant areas to be investigated, setting up studies for pure joy of counting and tabulating has little justification.

The researcher in this sense also ensured that the data from documents and other government policy directions and frameworks including local and international were cross- checked with the information collected from the primary sources. Electronic sources from credible sources and those peer reviewed were equally consulted.

4.14 Data Processing Techniques and Analysis

The process of data collection is not an end in itself but rather a culmination of activities that includes analysis, interpretation and presentation of findings in the final report or study. For Lowe (1958: 34-46), “ processing and analysing data involves a number of closely related operations which are performed with the purpose of summarising the collected data and organising these in a manner that they answer the research questions or objectives”.

Patton (1990: 372) also observes that, “in the data analysis there are no straightforward tests for reliability and validity”. He emphasises the point further that, “there are no absolute rules except to do the very best with one’s full intellect to fairly represent the data and communicate what the data reveal given the purpose of the study”. The data processing operations in this study involved among other things editing thus a process of examining the collected raw data to detect errors and omissions and to correct them wherever possible; classification thus arranging data in groups or classes on the basis of common characteristics in descriptive and numerical terms; tabulation thus summarising raw data and displaying the same in compact form for further analysis. Tabulation as observed by Lowe (1958:34-46) is essential because of the following reasons:

- a. “It conserves space and reduces explanatory and descriptive statement to a minimum”
- b. “It facilitates the summation of items and the detection of errors and omissions”
- c. “It provides the basis for various statistical computations”.

Both qualitative and quantitative data have been utilized in data analysis. Qualitative data was analyzed using thematic categorization procedures. Kombo and Tromp (2006: 119) bring in the issues of thematic analysis where data is analysed thematically. Themes in this case refer to topics or major subjects that came up in the discussions.

4.14.1 Recording and Transcribing

All the interviews were recorded in the study and later on transcribed. Silverman (2006:20) has pointed out that, “transcript of such recordings, based on standardized conventions, provide an excellent naturally occurring interactions, and can offer a highly reliable record to which researchers can return to as they develop new hypothesis.” Additionally, Powney and Watts (in Amoah, 2011: 124) contend that, “using the tape recorder frees the interviewee to concentrate upon the task at hand-exploring the interviews accounttruth lies on the tape, it becomes an objective fact through transcription, whilst the researchers own understanding of what was happening and being said in the interview are relegated to unreliable data”. The above potency of the tape recorder therefore made my work of recording activities in this complex process to be less challenging though I had really a challenge in transcribing the work. However, through consultation with the supervisor, I was allowed to engage someone who could do the transcriptions so that I could do other things while waiting for the transcriptions to be done.

The person who did the transcription took about a month (4 weeks) owing to her busy schedules at a place of work. Nevertheless the work was done and these transcriptions were

able to capture all information, both relevant and irrelevant, in the rhythm with which they were made. It allowed me get back to the recorded data time and again with the assurance of all information intact. In this case, some content analysis was also done with the view to identifying the main themes that were emerging from the responses that were given by the respondents and informants. According to Lowe (1958:34-46) content analysis means analysis of the contents of an interview in order to identify the main themes that emerge from the responses given by the respondents. I painstakingly went through the responses from the interviews to understand the meaning the respondents and informants were trying to communicate to each of the questions that were asked to them in order to develop broad or specific themes where necessary during the analysis. In this case as a researcher, it was depended upon me to communicate the findings to the reader in the manner that I found to be easy and straightforward.

4.14.2 Analysis of Quantitative Data

It must be pointed from the outset that this is was a mixed method study but utilised elements of quantitative and qualitative research to get the desired results in this study. As such the questionnaire was subjected to issues of reliability and validity. According to Mbewe (2012:72) in quantitative research, “reliability and validity of the instrument are very important for minimizing errors that may arise from measurement procedures”. Reliability in this case refers, “to the accuracy and precision of a measurement procedure” (Thorndike, 1997 as cited in Mbewe, 2012). Reliability of the quantitative instrument (questionnaire) were determined by computing Cronbach’s alpha (α) values. The Chronbach’s alpha (α) values for eight out of nine items in the questionnaire was more than 0 .70 This means that all the items except for one were acceptable measures of reliability because they were more than 0 .70 the thresh hold value of acceptability as a measure of reliability.

4.14.3 Independent Samples t Test

In wanting to establish if there was a significant difference between two unrelated or independent groups in this case between males and females on the variables- pedagogical practices, teachers' knowledge, teachers' views and teachers' self evaluation regarding the teaching of Civic Education in schools an independent sample t test was done. Assumptions of the independent samples t- test according to Morgan et al (2007: 143-144) are based on the following assumptions:

- (a) "The variances of the dependent variable in the two populations are equal".
- (b) "The dependent variable is normally distributed within each population".
- (c) "The data are independent (scores of one participant are not related systematically to scores of the others)".

To get the independent samples t -test on whether or not males and females differed significantly or otherwise, the third assumption was done with the help of SPSS to get the mean scores of both males and females, get the difference between the two means; the effect size d and the p value (**see actual results in tables as presented in Chapter Five**).

4.14.4 Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

In this study, Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was also done for comparing the independent groups against the dependent variables. Morgan et al. (2007:157-158) gives assumptions upon which one would use ANOVA

- (a) "When observations are independent (the value of one observation is not related to any other observation. In other words, one person's score should not provide any clue as to how any of the other people would score. This means that each person is in only one group and has one score on each measure; there are no repeated or within subjects measures".
- (b) "Variances on the dependent variable are equal across groups".

(c) “The dependent variable is normally distributed for each group”.

In this study One-Way ANOVA was done because we were comparing more than three groups of ANOVAs and wanted to establish whether the overall Fs, df, p value and also the means (and SDs) in terms of significance. The df are degree of freedom for between-groups ‘effect’ and within groups ‘errors’, respectively. The F in this case is the mean squares, which indicate the amount of variance (sums of squares) for that ‘effect’ divided by the degrees of freedom for that ‘effect’. The following were the ANOVAs that were measured against the variables: The age of the teacher, post held by each teacher, years of experience, workload or teaching period per teacher, number of training/workshops attended per teacher, number of teachers teaching Civic Education and the locality of the school (**See actual results in the tables in the analysis and discussions chapters**).

Note: The interpretation of the results is based on key variables that underpin this study. I am also interpreting the results in the context of the theoretical framework as well as the overarching research question informing the study.

4.15 Summary of the chapter

This chapter has shown research methodologies, research methods and the research techniques that were used in arriving at addressing the research questions or research problem of the study. This was done by way of providing the purpose of the study, providing questions aimed at addressing the problem at hand, provided the setting of the study and the sample by way of showing the study sample, target population, access and recruitment of participants. Further, the chapter has also shown how ethical issues were done. The chapter ends with the description of the data collection instruments and data collection and analysis procedures.

CHAPTER FIVE

RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSIONS

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter I present, discuss and summarise the research findings in the study. The findings are based on key statements revolving around the teaching of Civic Education in schools; relevance of Civic Education in schools; teaching and learning materials in Civic Education; content of Civic Education curriculum; the influence of Civic Education on the learners in schools; challenges faced by teachers in the teaching of Civic Education in schools; teachers' knowledge on Civic Education; teachers' views regarding the teaching of Civic Education in schools; teachers' self-evaluation with respect to Civic Education; the implication of all the results from the key statements alluded to above with respect to the statistical significance, mean and one way analysis between groups and within groups.

5.1.1 Teaching of Civic Education in schools

On the question regarding how Civic Education is taught in schools, the findings are based on key statements revolving around the teaching of Civic Education as an independent subject; teaching Civic Education using service learning approaches; teaching Civic Education using minimal and maximal approaches; teaching Civic Education using ordinary and general approaches; teaching Civic Education using conservative and progressive approaches; Civic Education promoting independent and critical minds and teaching Civic Education for the purposes of transforming society and for examination purposes. In the following table, I present the distribution on how Civic Education is taught in schools, followed by some discussion and a summary.

5.1.1 Presentation of the findings

Table 4: Distribution On How Civic Education Is Taught In Schools

	SD		D		N		A		SA		Cumulative	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Disagree %	Agree %
1	34	45.9	15	20.3	5	6.8	9	12.2	11	14.9	66.2	27.1
2	14	20.6	22	32.4	16	23.5	8	11.8	8	11.8	53.0	23.6
3	12	16.7	11	15.3	20	27.8	17	23.6	12	16.7	32.0	40.3
4	15	21.7	20	29.0	21	30.4	6	8.7	7	10.1	50.7	18.8
5	12	17.6	28	41.2	11	16.2	3	4.4	14	20.6	58.8	25.0
6	9	13.2	14	20.6	14	20.6	14	20.6	17	25.0	33.8	45.6
7	24	34.3	24	34.3	9	12.9	4	5.7	9	12.9	68.6	18.6
8	31	43.7	19	26.8	5	7.0	8	11.3	8	11.3	70.5	22.6
9	31	45.6	20	29.4	1	1.5	2	2.9	14	20.6	75.0	23.5
10	17	23.0	15	20.3	10	13.5	12	16.2	20	27.0	43.3	43.2
AV	19. 9	28.2 3	18. 8	26.9 6	11. 2	16.0 2	8.3 4	11.7	12	17.09	55.19	28.83

As can be seen in the table above the average cumulative percentages on those who disagreed was 55.19% while those who agreed were 28.83% and 16.02% were neutral.

5.1.3 Discussion of the findings

Generally, a higher percentage of the respondents disagreed on the given positive statements that addressed the question on the teaching of Civic Education by exposing learners to real life situations. The above responses indicate that the teaching of Civic Education in schools is not firmly rooted in the practices that allow or encourage a climate of open space and discussion. Similar results have also been found from a study that was done in Canada where Llewellyn, Cook and Molina (2010: 791-812) reported that, “civic learning was

primarily characterised by procedural knowledge and compliant codes of behaviour that do not envelope students in the type of civics for which they express a desire, namely collective action for systematic understanding of political issues”. Though Llewellyn, Cook and Molina’s findings are based on the Canadian situation, it is undoubtedly clear that they can still be applied to the Zambian situation, as is evidenced from some of the responses that were not agreed upon by the teachers on this key statement regarding the teaching of Civic Education in the schools.

These findings particularly on how Civic Education is taught in schools appear to be disputing the notion that has been taken for granted that teachers of Civic Education know what is expected of them in Civic Education lessons. On the contrary, the study notes from these findings that the teaching seems to be totally different from what one would have expected. The study reveals that the teaching is not modelled on pedagogical principles and practices that encourage engagement of the learners during teaching and learning processes. This was clearly evidenced from the responses of the teachers on some statements that were probing on the issues to do with pedagogical principles and practices. It is probably correct to re-affirm the main question in this study that the extent to which Civic Education enhances or impedes social change and transformation of society is dependent on the type of approach employed in the teaching process. If the Civic Education lessons are not modelled on service learning framework it is not possible to see any form change in the learners and we may not even see that Civic Education serves as an indicator of social change and transformation of society.

In a position paper on teaching Citizenship Education, Flinspach (2001: 31-38) contends that, “ the National Council for the Social Studies, an association at the elementary, secondary and postsecondary levels affirmed that Civic virtue must be lived and not just studied”. The author seems to argue that students or learners doing Civic Education need to experience what they are learning if there are to be responsive to the needs of society or even contribute to the transformation of society. The study also noted that service learning as an approach in the teaching of Civic Education was clearly missing in the schools that were sampled and in some cases teachers were not even aware that there was such an approach that could be applied in the teaching and learning of Civic Education lessons in schools. For the sake of reinforcing this finding, 53.0% disagreed that service learning was applied in their teaching and yet this approach is a critical strategy that teachers could use if Civic Education was to be meaningful to society.

The study noted also that most of the approaches that generate interest and debate among the learners were rarely adopted during teaching and teachers relied mostly on traditional approaches especially those that projected the teachers as the only source of information and knowledge thereby denying the learners opportunities of engagement and real learning. In other words, for the learners to engage with the community they need, first and foremost, to learn the art of this engagement from the teachers in the Civic Education lessons. Where this aspect is missing the learners will not engage with their communities and support the transformation of society in the long run. Youniss (2011: 98-103) reports that, “ one of the final recommendations of the 1908 report on Civic Education by a special Commission of the American Political Science Association supported debates and discussions upon issues of the day and the recommendation was in fact couched in the logic that Civic Education classes were to be designed not to produce political scientists or historians but for preparing the young people or students for taking their place in the community and leading useful lives”. This aspect raised by Youniss was also found to be lacking in the training package of teachers of Civic Education in colleges and the University. This was confirmed by various institutions that were training Civic Education teachers that:

‘...due to time factor we are rushing these students; we are not even completing the course outlines properly. We are rushing because of time factor. To do that I think it becomes a bit more difficult, but will certainly have to do that when we come to term system...’ (Response from the teacher trainers).

Given such a position by those charged with the responsibility of training Civic Education teachers one would conclude that the methods of instruction used to train teachers of Civic Education in colleges and the university are not service learning oriented and pedagogically lacking in a number ways. These ways are such that they lack what could be termed as reflection on action, reflection in action and reflection for action. While service learning has been confirmed by various authors that it brings real learning and change of attitudes in the learners in schools leading to social change and transformation of society; this study notes that the situation in the institutions of higher learning that this study investigated did not show that service learning framework was incorporated in their lessons. This scenario could have a serious multiplier effect on the schools because the products from such institutions were merely going to replicate the same approaches to the learners in schools across the country.

5.1.4 Teaching Trends in Civic Education

The understanding of a trend in this study is generally a direction in which something is developing or changing over time. In this case the study is looking at the changing trends in terms of teaching Civic Education in the schools. The fact that Civic Education is ever evolving requires too approaches that are equally evolving from time to time. Therefore in terms of the teaching methods and other strategies employed in Civic Education the ministry's position and that of the school administrators appeared to be the same in that they both noted that the teaching and learning of Civic Education needed to be learner centred if the learner was going to influence the processes of change in the community and society at large.

'Yes, probably we could also have talked about the methods that we are using in the teaching of this subject and we should be focusing on learner centred methodologies where we place the learner at the centre of activities, because of the nature of the subject, this gives an opportunity to the learners to learn about their civic duties and rights, because of the methods that we are using, we expect them to perform their duties as responsible citizens in society'

'... additionally, we don't expect them [learners] to be making noise in terms of ... if they are disillusioned, we expect them to be responsible citizens where they will engage in effective dialogue in society, ...like expect that they will have enough skills that will enable them even when they get into society [they] be responsible citizens, taking care of property within their localities...'

The above information seems to be in agreement with my argument in this study that service learning framework works well in Civic Education and could make learners effective members of the community leading to social change and transformation of society. This evidence is also consistent with the growing body of literature that is now recognising the importance of service learning framework in Civic Education. As such, this could also explain the rationale behind the refocusing of Civic Education in the Zambian Education Curriculum Framework of 2013 which does puts an emphasis that education ought to be seen as an integral part of the social system and should respond to the requirements of society.

In other words, the point is not only in the context of education in general but also in specific terms and in this case we could argue from the point of view that Civic Education that it should be seen to be preparing learners who will respond to the requirements of society. This implies that it should be taught using approaches that are progressive, relevant, dynamic and

responsive to social change and transformation of society. That way we could argue that Civic Education serves as an indicator of social change and transformation of society.

It is very true that in some cases the teaching and learning of Civic Education falls short of the expected approaches and this can be confirmed in the following statements: *'but unfortunately some of them [teachers of Civic Education] still want to go back to the traditional ways of teaching, because we have been explaining once we meet them... we have been explaining to them to say that if anything you [teachers] you are [just] facilitators, its the children to be at the centre of activities and there should be no writing of notes on the boards... so that is what we expect them. Some of the teachers are doing that and [others are not doing that]'*.

The study observes that such a situation if not corrected will most likely make Civic Education appear to have no impact on the learners in terms of building their knowledge base on a number of issues; will also appear not have positive impact likely to change their attitudes and behaviours and may not also help them to build their civic virtues and dispositions required from a subject like Civic Education to help bring about social change and eventual transformation of society. This study therefore is in support of approaches or teaching trends that are consistent with those for instance that scholars like Paulo Freire have supported in education. Thus those that promote what is described by Freire as the epistemological curiosity and methodological rigor in which the learners are made to think critically and strive to find solutions to the given problems. This is how social change and transformation of society would be realised.

5.1.5 Teaching for the Examinations

The study observed that learners were only prepared to pass the final examinations at the end of the year and not necessarily becoming useful members of society outside the school. This aspect came out very strongly even during the interviews. *' You know what sir... the teaching in these schools is only meant to prepare the learners for the examinations because one would want to teach properly but there is no time and before you realise, it is already exam time. Again if the pupils fail it is another issue and so we make sure that we cover and finish the syllabus to catch up with the examination...'* (**Response from one of the teachers**)

Another teacher had this to say, *' it is not that we do not want to prepare these learners for the community but it is about the exam at the end of the day. In our meetings the head teacher is always emphasising on good results in all the subjects and if you do not get such*

results then your section or department becomes the subject of the meeting and so everyone is aware of the this and to avoid embarrassment is to teach so that the pupils in our subjects do not fail but pass...'

Going back to the main research question one would argue that seen from the above responses essentially puts Civic Education as an impediment to social change and transformation of society because learners' capacities and abilities are not fully developed to the levels where they could be active in the community and help in addressing or resolving societal issues or needs leading to social change and transformation of society. As such, the study noted that the teaching of Civic Education in schools was not meant to bring about social change and transformation of society but merely preparing the learners to the pass examinations. So to answer the main question of the study: To what extent is the teaching of Civic Education serving to enhance or impede social change and transformation of society lies in the approaches that are used in schools by Civic Education teachers. Where service learning framework is used then that will serve as an indicator for social change and transformation of society but in the absence of this framework the answer is in the negative and people may not see it as a subject that can influence social change and transformation of society. In this regard, Dean, (2005); (2000) and Hoodbhoy, (1998) have found out similar results. According to their findings, "teachers are reluctant to supplement the Civic Education curriculum with activities that would teach students to ask questions, think critically and develop problem-solving skills or conduct independent inquiries on issues and take responsible action as students are only prepared to get ready for the test [examination] and would only be tested on the factual material in the textbook". As a result, they argue that, "there is a high stake value of end-of-year and school leaving examinations resulting in teaching and learning in schools being geared solely towards helping students memorise facts to pass the examinations". As a result, learners tend not to be proactive in the affairs of the society. At the same time, responses from the foregoing table show that there was a very small if not negligible difference between those who disagreed and those who agreed on whether Civic Education was taught for examination purposes or not (*Taught for examinations purposes: Cumulative percentages on those who disagreed was 43.3% and those who agreed was 43.2% while 14.0% were neutral*). Whatever this may mean, it was clear from the interviews conducted that the teaching of Civic Education was examination oriented and approaches such as service learning and other maximal and progressive approaches that seem to give learners opportunities to get involved in their communities in terms of working towards solving problems and offering solutions likely to

enhance social change and transform society are rarely used by teachers in the teaching of Civic Education in schools and this puts the subject less important in the eyes of the community and society at large.

5.1.6 Service Learning Oriented Approaches in Civic Education

The overall picture that is coming out from this aspect of the pedagogical principles and practices is that the service learning oriented approaches such as linking theory and practice, promoting independent and critical thinking among the learners in the teaching of Civic Education in schools was lacking. Apart from that, even appropriate methodologies especially those that are meant to promote what has been stated by Crick (in Lopes et al, 2009:1-20) as, “social and moral responsibility, aimed at developing self confidence and responsible behaviour in the community; community involvement which covers learning about and involvement in community and political literacy which encompasses knowledge, skills and values that enable young people to become effective in public life at local to global level were lacking”.

Civic Education should be premised on practices that are able to generate critical thinking and minds that would bring about social change and transformation of society. It also ought to be modelled on practices that put the learner at the centre of the teaching and learning procedures. In fact, research has shown that, “the lesson seems clear; learning environments that emphasize old style, fact based, teacher-centred pedagogy may succeed in imparting abstract facts and skills of the sort that can be tested, but, as has been found with the findings from the Australia, that in fact they do not help young citizens translate that knowledge into later civic practice”. Perhaps the message here is that, “providing learners with tools to experience actual civic practice in the learning environment makes more sense” (Bennett, 2003). This kind of evidence serves to suggest that Civic Education must be taught in manner that provides learners with the tools of civic knowledge, civic skills, civic virtues and civic dispositions which are significantly important to social change and transformation of society. They need to experience them and be seen to be acting upon them when they are out of school in their communities and that way they will influence other people within on a number of issues that could lead to change and transformation of society

5.1.7 Summary

The findings on how Civic Education is taught in schools are premised on methodological practices that do not invoke critical thinking and reflection among the learners. Elements of service learning, where theory and practice is merged to generate effective teaching and learning, are clearly missing in the teaching and learning procedures. In the light of the discussions above, it is becoming extremely difficult to ignore the fact that Civic Education is taught based on traditional methods such as question and answer and mainly tailored to prepare the learners for the examination at the end of their learning programme and not using new learning preferences such as student-group oriented, multimedia, collaborative work, critical thinking and informed decision making on the part of the learners so that their learning is effective in bringing about social change and transformation of society. This aspect is greatly lacking in the current format of Civic Education teaching in the schools in Zambia. Therefore the findings in this study should make an important contribution to the field of Civic Education in advancing the understanding of service learning framework as an important pedagogical practice that could make Civic Education teaching serve as an indicator of social change and transformation of society.

5.2 Research Findings on the Relevance of Civic Education in Schools

5.2.1 Introduction

I present, discuss and summarise the research findings that looked at the relevance of Civic Education in schools. The guiding statements revolved around the promotion of civic virtues, obligations, awareness and knowledge, sense of responsibility in the learners, community engagement and promotion of positive change of mindsets and encouragement of real life democratic practices within the school and out of school.

5.2.2 Presentation of the findings

Table 5: Distribution on the relevance of Civic Education in schools

	SD		D		N		A		SA		Cumulative	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	Disagree %	Agree %
1	44	60.3	15	20.5	1	1.4	5	6.8	8	11.0	80.8	17.8
2	28	38.4	30	41.1	3	4.1	4	5.5	8	11.0	79.5	16.5
3	33	45.2	20	27.4	3	4.1	5	6.8	12	16.4	72.6	23.2
4	6	8.2	6	8.2	4	5.5	17	23.3	40	54.8	16.2	78.1
5	39	52.7	20	27.0	4	5.4	6	8.1	5	6.8	79.7	14.9
6	20	27.4	38	52.1	3	4.1	4	5.5	8	11.0	79.5	16.5
7	27	37.0	26	35.6	5	6.8	8	11.0	7	9.6	72.6	20.6
8	32	43.8	27	37.0	1	1.4	5	6.8	8	11.0	80.8	17.8
9	22	29.7	30	40.5	6	8.1	6	8.1	10	13.5	70.2	21.6
10	38	52.1	16	21.9	4	5.5	7	9.6	8	11.0	74.0	20.6
AV	28.9	39.48	22.8	31.13	3.4	4.6	6.8	9.15	11.4	15.61	70.61	24.76

The table above gives the average cumulative percentages on those who disagreed (70.61%), those who agreed (24.76%) and those who were neutral (4.6%).

5.2.3 Discussion of the findings

While it was expected on face value that teachers of Civic Education would automatically agree to most of the positive statements regarding the relevance of Civic Education, the results were different in some areas of concern. This means that speculations and views that have not been tested to empirical studies on any subject matter should not be taken for granted as doing so would result in making and arriving at wrong conclusions. This somewhat is in support of problem statement in this study that in most cases opinions, conclusions and recommendations made or given regarding Civic Education are not supported by strong evidence from research.

However, other scholars such (Pierce and Hallgarten, 2000; Torney-Purta et al, 1999; Hahn, 1998; Ichilov, 1998 and Heater, 1996 in Crick, 2000: 113-114) have indicated on the other hand that, “Civic Education is a relevant subject though they seem not to be clear on where it is relevant and how it is relevant”. Similar views as the ones stated above were also noted during the focus group discussions with some learners who pointed out that Civic Education was a relevant subject. Equally the teachers of Civic Education had similar views regarding the relevance of the subject in society though on the questionnaires some did not indicate the relevance but when they were interviewed they came out very strong that it was a relevant subject. This is why triangulation of such studies becomes significantly important. Otherwise using just one approach might have missed the equally important views from the main players in the field.

‘I think it is something that should be encouraged in all the schools. The only challenge that I see is that the syllabus is quite wide and looking at the examinations, it covers grade 10-12. So there is no topic that needs to be skipped. So that part where it is wide is the only thing that affects me especially being at a day school, because I have little time to meet the pupils. Otherwise it’s quite good and it’s a passing subject’ (Views from the teacher of Civic Education)

‘I think when the subject was introduced, there was actually resistance because of the aspects of human rights; I think people have misconceptions about human rights... but as time goes on people are beginning to realise that actually this subject helps the pupils to understand to say, though you have these freedoms and rights but you have also responsibilities... so actually it has opened up not only teachers’ minds but even pupils because they are able to say actually we need to embrace what has come up. Some pupils like this year’s grade 10s, some actually they said, ‘ I would rather take Civic Education as

an additional subject than these other subjects termed as optional subjects'.(Views from another teacher of Civic Education)

5.2.4 Some views on the Relevance of Civic Education in schools

From the views above, the study notes that there was a mixed reaction from the respondents and informants on the relevance of Civic Education in schools. This aspect came out strongly on the teachers of Civic Education and yet with the learners the views were consistent and in the positive. One would wonder why the situation was like this among the teachers of Civic Education. This study however, reveals that some of the teachers teaching Civic Education in schools were found not to have been trained to teach Civic Education and this could explain why there were such disparities of the responses on the question of relevance as shown in Table above. In fact the following response confirms the point being made above.

'In my case I am not a trained teacher of Civic Education but I am teaching it because at the time the subject was introduced in this school, it was found that there was no qualified teacher but because I had shown interest to help, I was requested by the school authority that I teach... and I have come to like the subject and so I have continued to teach it and it is a passing subject..'(Response from one of the teachers teaching Civic Education but not trained to teach Civic Education)

Such a revelation undoubtedly reflects to a large extent the reasons why in most of the statements where one would have expected positive responses, negative ones came out. Probably such could be attributed to the teachers who answered the questionnaires but were not fully trained in the subject. Such findings would be inconclusive if other studies are to be done on a similar topic so that the correct position is given. For now, the study contends that there is no clear position from the teachers of Civic Education regarding the relevance of Civic Education in schools. While this may be so with the teachers, on the other hand, pupils found Civic Education to be interesting and relevant.

5.2.5 Summary

The findings from the study have revealed that the relevance of Civic Education in schools is not seen in clear terms especially among the teachers of Civic Education. However, the learners were categorical on the matter and so the relevance of the subject. There are two positions that have emerged from the findings; one supporting the argument that it is a relevant subject while another disagreeing that it is not relevant (*See results from the table showing the distribution on the relevance of Civic Education*).

5.3. Research Findings on the Teaching and Learning Materials in Civic Education

5.3.1 Introduction

I present, discuss and summarise the research findings on teaching and learning materials in Civic Education in schools. The guiding statements revolved around the availability and non-availability of the teaching resources of Civic Education in schools, whether current or out dated, whether helping the learners or not and constantly reinforcing the status quo or not.

5.3.2 Presentation of the findings

Table 6: Distribution on teaching and learning materials in Civic Education in schools

	SD		D		N		A		SA		Cumulative	
	f	%	F	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	Disagree %	Agree %
1	1	1.4	11	15.1	17	23.3	30	41.1	14	19.2	16.5	60.3
2	17	23.0	22	29.7	11	14.9	15	20.3	9	12.2	52.7	32.8
3	19	26.4	26	36.1	6	8.3	12	16.7	9	12.5	62.5	29.2
4	41	55.4	15	20.3	5	6.8	5	6.8	8	10.8	75.7	17.6
5	8	11.6	9	13.0	11	15.9	18	26.1	23	33.3	24.6	59.4
6	13	17.6	22	29.7	13	17.6	15	20.3	11	14.9	47.3	35.2
7	1	1.4	7	10.0	22	31.4	16	22.9	24	34.3	11.4	57.2
8	4	5.6	4	5.6	5	6.9	29	40.3	30	41.7	11.2	82.0
9	27	37.0	27	37.0	5	6.8	4	5.5	10	13.7	74.0	19.2
10	14	18.9	21	28.4	14	18.9	11	14.9	14	18.9	47.3	33.8
A	14.	19.8	16.	22.4	10.	15.0	15.	21.4	15.	21.1	42.32	42.64
V	5	3	4	9	9	8	5	9	2	5		

The results as indicated on the table above show the cumulative figures on the teaching and learning materials in Civic Education. 42.32% disagreed that the teaching and learning

materials were readily available. 42.64% agreed that these materials were readily available and 15.08% were neutral on this matter.

5.3.3 Discussion of the Findings

5.3.4 Teaching and Learning Materials in Civic Education in schools

The foregoing table shows that there was a minimal difference of 0.32% between those who disagreed and those who agreed regarding the teaching and learning materials in Civic Education. Going by such results, as shown in the table, it is clear, though contestable, that issues of teaching and learning materials in Civic Education are far from being resolved in the schools. While it was a 50-50 situation on this matter that does not mean that the situation was good as responses from the interviews reflected a totally different position. The interviews revealed that teaching and learning materials were not adequate and in some cases not available.

‘Teaching and learning materials I think we only have the greatest challenge on the textbooks, pupils’ books they are not there. The only time we received textbooks were a copy of grade 10 and 11, but up to now we do not have a copy of a grade 12, revised or reprinted. If we request and make departmental request we will be told [that] funding is very limited and we can only allow one department to buy at a time... but we have not said since we do not have books, we are using other means, for example we produce summary notes, like recently, I produced this[pointing at the document on the table]; I collected some past examination papers and also from textbooks so I produced this just to help our learners to understand a lot of... get to know what is really involved in the subject’ (Response from the teacher of Civic Education)

Similar views were also expressed by the pupils, the administrators in some of the schools that were selected in the study and importantly so with the teacher educators. This clearly reflects a huge challenge in the delivery of the subject in schools and this call for constant production and revision of teaching and learning materials consistent with the ever changing demands of society. However, in some schools administrators were active in ensuring that relevant books were procured and secured for use in the teaching of Civic Education.

5.3.5 Summary

The study therefore concludes that teaching and learning materials in Civic Education in the selected schools were not readily available and this has some implications when it comes to the delivery of the subject to the learners in an effective manner. While it was noted through interviews that in some schools the school administration was proactive in the purchase of these teaching and learning resources in Civic Education most of the schools had a big challenge in this area. Teaching and learning materials are critical to the effective delivery of Civic Education in schools and where such materials are lacking the real mission of meeting the desired goals of social change and transformation of society is likely to be hampered.

5.4 Research Findings on the Content of Civic Education Curriculum

5.4.1 Introduction

I present, discuss and summarise the research findings on the content of Civic Education curriculum. The guiding statements revolved around Civic Education knowledge and conceptual understanding on current issues and its application, teachers' civic professionalism, incorporation of minimal and maximal approaches with respect to tolerance, respect, and greater participation in school governance, cooperation, open mindedness, compassion, fairness, responsibility and being analytical, innovative, creative and constructive mind

5.4.2 Presentation of the findings

Table 7: Distribution on the content of Civic Education Curriculum

	SD		D		N		A		SA		Cumulative	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Disagree %	Agree %
1	33	45.2	25	34.0	3	4.1	1	1.4	11	15.1	79.2	16.5
2	17	23.0	28	37.8	12	16.2	9	12.2	8	10.8	60.8	23.0
3	29	39.7	26	35.6	3	4.1	4	5.5	11	15.1	75.3	20.6
4	28	37.8	27	36.5	9	12.2	3	4.1	7	9.5	74.3	13.6
5	31	43.1	26	36.1	3	4.2	4	5.6	8	11.1	79.2	16.7
6	35	47.3	24	32.4	1	1.4	5	6.8	9	12.2	79.7	19.0
7	25	33.8	30	40.5	3	4.1	6	8.1	10	13.5	74.3	21.6
8	31	41.9	24	32.4	4	5.4	4	5.4	11	14.9	74.3	20.3
9	39	54.2	16	22.2	6	8.3	5	6.9	6	8.3	76.4	15.2
10	17	23.3	33	45.2	8	11.0	5	6.8	10	13.7	68.5	20.5
AV	28.5	38.93	25.9	35.27	4.9	7.1	4.6	6.28	9.1	12.42	74.20	18.70

The average cumulative percentages in the table show that 74.20% disagreed with statements on content while 18.70%. 7.1% were neutral.

5.4.3 Discussion of the Findings

5.4.4 Limited Knowledge and Conceptual Understanding of Civic Education

The first impression that this study makes about the research results on this particular issue is that teachers of Civic Education are not familiar or grounded in the key content areas of Civic Education and this has some negative implications when it comes to the actual delivery of Civic Education to the learners in schools. The study noted from the responses shown in the table above that teachers of Civic Education had limited knowledge on the key issues regarding the knowledge, conceptual understanding and application of Civic Education in schools. This has some serious implications to the recipients who in this case are the learners who may be subjected to raw information which may not facilitate processes of change within themselves. While this study would have expected teachers of Civic Education to be at the forefront of the knowledge and information in Civic Education, this, however, was not the case. This means that their teaching may end up impeding on social change and transformation of society. Additionally, it also means that they are not able to promote service learning framework which is a key component which can develop the learners to become responsible, innovative, analytical, creative, active and constructive individuals. It also means that they may not be able to make learners develop a personally held set of civic and moral values required in the transformation of society.

5.4.5 Summary

The findings from the study offers some important insights that teachers of Civic Education in schools are not grounded in key areas and perspectives on Civic Education. This may be detrimental in initiating processes of social change and transformation among the learners. Teachers of Civic Education need to be well versed in the theoretical and epistemological issues that underpin Civic Education. The finding also answers the research problem in that it challenges other discussions that draw attention to the teaching of Civic Education without providing concrete results.

5.5 Research Findings regarding the Influence of Civic Education on the Learners

5.5.1 Introduction

I present, discuss and summarise the research findings on the influence of Civic Education on the learners in schools. The guiding statements revolved around understanding multiple and complex identities of others, developing decision making and social action skills, developing democratic attitudes and critical skills, knowledge and values needed for social change and transformation of society and as well as challenging inequality and stratification within the large society.

5.5.2 Presentation of the findings

Table 8: Distribution on the influence of Civic Education on the learners in schools

	SD		D		N		A		SA		Cumulative	
	f	%	f	%	F	%	F	%	f	%	Disagree %	Agree %
1	6	8.1	6	8.1	5	6.8	20	27.0	37	50.0	16.2	77.0
2	26	35.1	30	40.5	7	9.5	5	6.8	6	8.1	75.6	14.9
3	21	29.2	32	44.4	6	8.3	3	4.2	10	13.9	73.6	18.1
4	32	45.7	23	32.9	2	2.9	4	5.7	9	12.9	78.6	18.6
5	31	41.9	27	36.5	5	6.8	3	4.1	8	10.8	78.4	14.9
6	28	38.9	28	38.9	5	6.9	3	4.2	8	11.1	77.8	15.3
7	33	45.2	27	37.0	1	1.4	6	8.2	6	8.2	82.2	16.4
8	26	35.1	34	45.9	3	4.1	5	6.8	6	8.1	81.0	14.9
9	22	29.7	36	48.6	3	4.1	4	5.4	9	12.2	78.3	17.6
10	20	27.0	27	36.5	9	12.2	10	13.5	8	10.8	63.5	24.3
AV	24.5	33.59	27	36.93	4.6	6.3	6.3	8.59	10.7	14.61	70.52	23.20

As can be shown from the table, the cumulative figure for those who disagreed on the statements regarding the influence of Civic Education on the learners was 70.52% while those who agreed were 23.20% and 6.3% were neutral.

5.5.3 Discussion of the Findings

From the results shown above it would appear that most of the teachers of Civic Education in the selected schools did not see Civic Education as having an influence on the learners. This position appears to be related and consistent with what has already been said on the subject of relevance. In a similar fashion, the teachers teaching Civic Education in schools may not be qualified enough to understand key issues in Civic Education. Therefore, their views on the influence of the subject on the learners may not be well spelt out. It also means that they may not have been aware of approaches such as service learning framework making difficult for them to see the influence that the subject could have on the learners. In fact on the part of the learners they saw Civic Education as having a positive influence. This is clearly reflected in the following statement:

'...it grooms us to be who we will be in later years. Developing us to be leaders of the future so that we can continue developing like other countries as well' ...You can also identify a civic taker, they participate in a lot of social things they are involved in clubs like Children's Rights Organisations... they will be there organizing the occasion, helping themselves in voluntary work, helping the community. ' Civic Education has helped us to know about our roles, general roles, sex roles and some of the things that men are supposed to do and females and you find that sometimes gender equity, equality binds men and women to be equal, something like that'

'... and again Civic Education teaches about our social being in Zambia, about politics, the things we are supposed to know as Zambians, our culture, our duties as citizens, what rights you have in the court, like this time we also learnt about the legal system, social civil society thing, and the kind of organisations that are there to support girl children and other stuff'

From the above views, the study reveals that even if other teachers did not show clearly the influence that Civic Education could have on the learners and society it is important to note that the subject is an important component in serving as an indicator of social change and transformation of society. As aptly put by Robinson and Kecskes (2010: 721), "when service

learning activities are explicitly linked to standards, learning objectives and essential learning, research shows that academic outcomes improve”. This kind of aspect could also be said to be true if service learning activities could be clearly linked to Civic Education lessons, chances of transforming communities and society at large would be greatly enhanced. Then even though that might still doubt on the influence of the subject will eventually learn to appreciate its influence.

Equally, Berkowitz et al. (2006: 696), when reviewing service learning concluded that, “the learning outcomes were commonly around strengthened cognition, improved attitudes and behaviour, reduction of aberrant substance abuse, moderation of at risk behaviours, enhanced self confidence and motivation and increased academic achievement and academic goal setting”. This probably explains why the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education (2012: ix) through the Zambia Education Curriculum Framework have stated that, “teaching and learning ought to bring, among other things; making learners creative, innovative and productive; making learners get connected to family, community, national and global developments; making learners actively involved ; making learners capable of learning and living with others; making learners life-long learners; and making learners become leaders and agents of change in the transformation of the society. Furthermore, the curriculum seems also to support an approach which is outcomes based as is shown in the next discussion.

5.5.4 Outcome Based Education

Outcomes-Based Education (OBE) is, “an approach to learning that the Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education in Zambia have adopted, moving away from Behavioural Approach”. The approach seeks to link education to the real life experiences as it gives learners skills to access, criticize, analyse and practically apply knowledge. Clearly from such an approach one is able to see service learning framework being emphasised in the teaching and learning process. This also means that the issues being raised by Ministry of Education in Zambia are consistent with the focus of this study in broad terms and at the same time goes to confirm that there is indeed a gap that needs to be addressed in the schools in terms of teaching and learning. The outcomes based education being promoted in the new curriculum is meant to enhance learners with practical experiences during the teaching and learning processes so that they can be helped to gain life skills. This is also similar to what this study intends to achieve and promote through the teaching of Civic Education. In fact, in the recent years, there has been a concern that teaching was not responding to the needs of the

society and that there was need to encourage outcome based education. (MoESVTEE, 2012:15). This kind of situation prevailing in Zambian schools justifies the concerns of this study in so far as the teaching of Civic Education in Zambian schools is concerned.

However, Quigley (2000) has observed that, “ there has not been enough research on the impact of Civic Education on students though, other studies seem to disagree with Quigley and instead have shown that student exposed to good programmes in Civic Education have a clear understanding of the fundamental values and principles of their heritage and their relevance to their daily lives”.

This can be evidenced from the studies that were done by Finkel and Smith in 2005 on, “Political Discussion and the Social Transmission of Democratic Knowledge and Values in a New Democracy: The 2002 Kenya National Civic Education Programme”. They reported that, “Civic Education among secondary school students or adults in community based workshops significantly impacts on political knowledge and participation, as well as under certain conditions, democratic values and norms such as tolerance, efficacy and institutional trust”.

5.5.5 Importance and influence of Civic Education

The study has revealed that all those who were interviewed had expressed similar views in one way or the other regarding the importance and influence of Civic Education on the learners. However, the study equally has noted that those who did not see it as important and influential to the learners could not be blamed because they had also their own reasons some of which are well supported by a considerable amount of literature that has been published on the subject of importance and influence. For instance, Lopes et al. (2009:1-20), state that, “while education is undoubtedly a powerful socialisation force, it is not the only factor that is likely to influence young people’s civic and political participation”. Lopes et al (2009) are not directly addressing Civic Education; the results (in table 8) above indicate that probably the teachers who answered the questionnaires were seeing it in the way that Lopes et al. (2009) were viewing it. In line with the above arguments, Curtice and Seyd, (2004); Putnam, (2000) and Jowell and Pork 1998 in Lopes et al (2009) also state that, “there is an increasing body of research policy and literature reflecting concerns about the lack of interest and involvement of young people and young adults in public and political life despite having been exposed to the principles of Civic Education”.

Further, Lopes et al. (2009) argue that, “ it cannot be taken for granted that Civic Education will have an impact on participation intentions of the young people because the

force of socialisation tends to compete with other factors at play in society, such as the experiences of young people in the communities in which they live”. Eagles and Davidson (in Lopes et al, 2009) contend that, “ the evidence for the influence of Civic Education is not homogeneously positive due to other compelling important factors that moderate and mediate the impact of Civic Education on young people”. For instance Finkel and Ernst (in Lopes et al 2009) state that, “good instructional quality including the use of active instructional methods have been found to be important to the acquisition of political knowledge and could well affect the impact of Civic Education on future participation”.

Other scholars such as Condor and Gibson (2007) argue that, “ young people may come to perceive political decision-making as a matter requiring technical knowledge and skills and may justify their lack of participation as appropriate civic behaviour given their relative lack of technical expertise”. Scholars such as Kerr et al. (2007); McDevitt and Kiouisis, (2007); Cleaver, (2005); Osler and Starkey, (2003) have all pointed out that, “ the impact of Civic Education is also likely to be moderated by the extent to which the approach for Civic Education suits the students and by the school context in which it is being delivered”. These may act to cancel out or at the same time enhance any influence from within the school.

While it has been argued that Civic Education may not be the only force that influence the learners in schools, Lopes et al. (2009) report that on the other hand it has been found that, “Civic Education aims, by design rather than by default, to enhance young people’s participation in civic and political life and that there is a growing body of evidence indicating that Civic Education can indeed have impact on young people’s participation”. An example of the United States has been given where both exposure to a social sciences curriculum and participation in relevant extra-curricular activities such as the school council appeared to stimulate political participation in the long term including voting turn out.

Torney-Purta et al., (1999, 2001) indicated also from their results of the International Association for the Evaluation of Educational Achievement (IEA) Civic Education Study that, “Civic Education had some influence on the civic knowledge and skills of 14 year olds and their attitudes towards democracy and citizenship”. Though, other scholars such as McFarland and Thomas, (2006) and Hillygus, (2005) have argued that, “the influence of citizenship type of education appears to operate above and beyond background factors such as socio-economic status and race”. This however, does not take away the fact that Civic Education has some influence on the lives of the learners and society at large.

The overall picture of the all the responses from the respondents reflects a two pronged position. On one hand, Civic Education has been seen to have some influence on the learners while on the other hand, it may not out rightly be so due to other factors that tend to come into play especially those that determine young people's participatory behaviour. As such, this study contends that it is wrong to conclude that Civic Education has some influence on the learners especially in absence of empirical data and results or without understanding the processes and mechanisms through which the influence and impact comes about. It is important that a clear understanding is established about the factors that are critical in determining the influence of Civic Education on the learners.

5.5.6 Summary

The findings from the study reveal that while Civic Education is said to be having an influence on the learners this may not always be the case. There were also other factors that were moderating and mediating the influence of the learners such as good instructional quality including the use of active instructional methods and experiences of young people in the communities in which they live in. As such, it would be wrong to suggest that those that responded to the contrary were wrong without examining other factors at play. In this sense, the study reveals that there has been also an increasing body of research and literature reflecting the concerns about the lack of interest and involvement of young people and young adults in public and other areas of concern in their communities despite having been exposed to the principles and ethos of Civic Education. From such results, it can be concluded that Civic Education can enhance and also impede social change and transformation of society owing to the many factors that influence the learners both in school and out of school.

5.6 Research Findings on Challenges Faced by Teachers in Teaching Civic Education

5.6.1 Introduction

I present, discuss and summarise the research findings on the challenges faced by teachers in the teaching of Civic Education in schools. The guiding statements revolved around narrow conception of Civic Education, mis/understanding of Civic Education, helping students to develop commitments to the well being of society, re-imagining learners to be transformed and function in the 21st century, getting learners to acquire information, skills and values needed to change society, availability of the syllabus, inadequate and qualified teachers of Civic Education and lack of connection between theory and practice

5.6.2 Presentation of the Findings

Table 9: Distribution on challenges faced by teachers in teaching Civic Education in schools

	SD		D		N		A		SA		Cumulative	
	f	%	f	%	F	%	F	%	F	%	Disagree %	Agree %
1	12	16.2	8	10.8	12	16.2	24	32.4	18	24.3	27.0	56.7
2	8	10.8	12	16.2	7	9.5	26	35.1	21	28.4	27.0	63.5
3	10	13.5	34	45.9	11	14.9	10	13.5	9	12.2	59.4	25.7
4	17	23.0	33	44.6	10	13.5	10	13.5	4	5.4	67.6	18.9
5	13	17.6	32	43.2	11	14.9	11	14.9	7	9.5	60.8	24.4
6	9	12.3	26	35.6	21	28.8	8	11.0	9	12.3	47.9	23.3
7	16	22.2	25	34.7	11	15.3	12	16.7	8	11.1	56.9	27.8
8	13	17.6	28	37.8	5	6.8	15	20.3	13	17.6	55.4	37.9
9	18	24.3	16	21.6	6	8.1	21	28.4	13	17.6	45.9	46.0
10	13	17.6	27	36.5	11	14.9	11	14.9	12	16.2	54.1	31.1
AV	12.9	17.51	24.1	32.69	10.5	14.29	14.8	20.07	11.4	15.46	50.20	35.53

As can be seen from the table, cumulative figure on those who disagreed was 50.20%; 35.53% on those who agreed and 14.29% were neutral.

5.6.3 Discussions of the Findings

The immediate reaction one gets from these figures is that teachers of Civic Education appear to have a challenge in the actual conceptualization of Civic Education. This can also be attested to by the response that was given on the No. 1 statement on the table which was looking at the narrow conception of Civic Education. The results show that 56.7% agreed that they had a narrow conception of Civic Education which proved to be a challenge in the delivery of Civic Education. This kind of situation in all intent makes it difficult to provide a learning environment that would promote elements of service learning and active engagement meant to bring about social change and transformation of society. It also means that teachers would not help the students to develop some commitments to the well being of society.

This can be seen in the way they responded to the statement regarding commitments to the well being of society (59.4% disagreed, 14.9% were neutral and only 25.7% agreed); on developing in learners a deep understanding of the need to take action on various societal issues(67.6% disagreed, 13.5% were neutral and only 18.9% agreed); re-imagining learners to be transformed and function in the 21st century(47.9% disagreed; 28.8% were neutral and only 23.3% agreed); getting learners to acquire information, skills and values needed to change society(56.9% disagreed, 15.3% were neutral and only 27.8% agreed); inadequate and qualified teachers of Civic Education(55.4% disagreed, 6.8% were neutral and 37.9% agreed); availability of the Civic Education syllabus(45.9%disagreed, 8.1 were neutral and 46.0% agreed); lack of theory connection between theory and practice(54.1% disagreed, 14.9% were neutral and 31.1% agreed).

From such results it can be deduced that teachers face serious challenges regarding the way they take Civic Education as a subject and this tends to affect all other issues along the way. This picture is consistent with the available literature regarding the main challenges in the field of Civic Education across the globe such as, “achieving a clear definition; securing curriculum status; teacher preparedness and training; adopting suitable learning approaches or pedagogical practices; resources and sustainability; assessment arrangements; developing and sharing good practice and influencing young people’s attitudes” (Kerr’s review of Citizenship Education as cited by Andrews and Mycook, 2007: 73-88).

Similar views were echoed during the interviews with the teacher educators, Ministry officials and teachers of Civic Education themselves. As such, the study reveals that teachers of Civic Education face numerous challenges in the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools. Unless something is done to redress such challenges the subject might not be seen to be enhancing social change and transformation of society. All that will be seen are obstacles leading to wrong conclusions and recommendations about the subject to matters regarding social change and transformation of society.

5.6.4 Summary

The findings from the study reveal that teachers of Civic Education in schools have difficulties in conceptualising Civic Education and this has an impact in terms of the actual teaching. The study contends further that such teachers of Civic Education have no firm ground and position on approaches that invoke engagement and participation of the learners in the process of teaching and learning. This challenge has the potential to impede social change and transformation of society. The study also states that the challenges noted among the teachers were consistent with the global challenges that have been highlighted in achieving clear understanding of the subject matter, adopting learning approaches or pedagogical practices that foster social change and transformation of society, resources and issues of sustainability, assessment arrangements, developing and sharing good practice and influencing learners' behavioural attitudes (Kerr as cited in Andrews & Mycook, 2007: 73-88).

5.7 Research Findings on Teachers' Knowledge on Civic Education

5.7.1 Introduction

I present, discuss and summarise the research findings on teachers' knowledge on Civic Education. The guiding statements revolved around the process of delivering Civic Education anchored on key fundamental issues bordering on ideological, philosophical, political as well as pedagogical issues dealing with the goals, aims and practices.

5.7.2 Presentation of the Findings

Table 10: Distribution on Teachers' knowledge on Civic Education

	SD		D		N		A		SA		Cumulative	
	f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	Disagree %	Agree %
1	19	26.0	33	45.2	9	12.3	1	1.4	11	15.1	71.2	16.5
2	20	27.8	28	38.9	9	12.5	7	9.7	8	11.1	66.7	20.8
3	17	23.6	29	40.3	13	18.1	7	9.7	6	8.3	63.9	18.0
4	14	19.2	35	47.9	6	8.2	6	8.2	12	16.4	67.1	24.6
5	18	24.3	28	37.8	14	18.9	4	5.4	10	13.5	62.1	18.9
6	40	54.1	20	27.0	1	1.4	7	9.5	6	8.1	81.1	17.6
7	33	44.6	29	39.2	1	1.4	4	5.4	7	9.5	83.8	14.9
8	29	39.2	26	35.1	5	6.8	8	10.8	6	8.1	74.3	18.9
9	24	33.3	21	29.2	4	5.6	11	15.3	12	16.7	62.5	32.0
10	22	29.7	28	37.8	8	10.8	9	12.2	7	9.5	67.5	21.7
AV	23.6	32.18	27.7	37.84	7	9.6	6.4	8.76	8.5	11.63	70.02	20.39

The table above shows the cumulative figures on given statements (70.02%, disagreed while 20.49% agreed and 9.6% were neutral).

5.7.3 Discussion of the Findings

From the results in the table, the picture shows that most of the teachers of Civic Education in schools have inadequate information and knowledge on the many aspects of Civic Education. Another aspect that seems to have come out from the results is that some of the teachers teaching Civic Education were not trained in teaching Civic Education though this will have to be established further in future studies to get the actual statistics of those who were trained and those not trained. Nonetheless, one of the teachers who were interviewed admitted that he was not trained to teach Civic Education but was allowed to teach by the school administration.

'... anyway it's a subject that is living, that is why it is quite easy for someone to understand once you go through the information you are able to deliver and you have living examples. So personally though I have never been trained to teach it, I have found it actually interesting teaching [it]. If there was an opportunity I was going to do that (implying that this teacher was going to train to become a teacher of Civic Education)' (Response of the untrained teacher but teaching Civic Education).

The speculation that can be made here is that even among those who answered the questionnaires there was a high possibility that some of the teachers were not trained to teach Civic Education. This aspect has also been noted under the challenges faced by the teachers involved in the teaching of Civic Education. If some were trained then they lacked the necessary information and skills on Civic Education due to probably inadequate or no training at all. As such, the assumptions being made, arising from the results indicated in table 10 is that some teachers of Civic Education from the selected schools were not properly oriented to the fundamental principles that inform Civic Education and this seems to be coming out strongly in all the sections of the initial findings.

5.7.4 Training of Teachers of Civic Education

The finding from the study on training reveals that the training of Civic Education teachers was greatly lacking in methodological strategies that promote effective teaching of Civic Education in the schools. Numerous factors such as over enrolment of students, lack of adequate teaching and learning materials, time and space in which lessons are conducted were cited among the many factors that contribute to low levels of training teachers of Civic Education in the colleges and the university. The study also noted from the interviews with some teacher educators in these institutions that the programmes of Civic Education were not designed to help would be teachers of Civic Education develop knowledge and understanding

of the key concepts, learn to use active participatory pedagogies such as service learning, social justice oriented approaches and community learning projects once they are in schools to teacher Civic Education. The training is mainly centred on aspects that promote banking type of education which in real sense fails to motivate would be learners in schools to become critical and think in a creative way and bring about social change and transformation of their communities. In other words, the study has revealed that service learning framework is missing in the training and learning of Civic Education teachers in colleges and the university (**See results from the table 10 above**). In fact, some of the teacher educators argued along the same lines that the training of Civic Education teachers was lacking in many ways ranging from over-enrolment of students to lack of adequate teaching and learning materials to cater for an effective classroom practice in Civic Education. They further contended that generally appropriate teaching and learning methodologies were lacking due to time and space in which lesson are conducted.

‘Normally lack of resources and equipment, many of our lectures are, I may not say its really lecturing but some sort of teaching of some type... the teaching and lecturing are hampered with lack of resources because even the internet thing, I have read through then the internet sometimes the literature is not there’.

Others had this to say:

‘I think there are various methods that we use, of course the major one is the traditional lecture method...’

‘...time factor, that time [in the past] we had a lot of time. This time we do not have time, we are just rushing through. So normally we are using lecture, if we have time we can use picture and note making. Note making is just to train them [the] skills how to teach children to make their own notes from a passage or from a textbook’(Views of teacher educators)

Clearly, from the above position, it can be argued that the training of teachers of Civic Education is a contributing factor to their not being grounded in the major pedagogical strands of Civic Education that inform its approach to curricular issues. Such a situation according Andrews and Mycook (2007: 73-88) “puts great pressure on schools and teachers to develop their own interpretations about the subject”.

Similar concerns regarding the level of training teachers of Civic Education have also been noted within the profession and from outside (HM Inspectorate of Education, 2006; Ofsted, 2005c; QCA, 2005; Kerr et al, 2004 and CSV, 2003 as cited in Andrews & Mycook, 2007). Others such as Bregmann and Mohammad, (1998); Kizilbash, (1998); Warwick and Reimers, (1995) equally found out, for instance, that in Pakistan the quality of teacher training in Civic Education was generally poor.

Given the above picture, Dean (2007:14) has argued that, “if the quality of Civic Education in both the formal and informal education sector is to be improved, there will be need to look at the quality of teacher education”. This implies that for teachers to deliver good Civic Education to the learners they will need to have competencies that will help them guide learners to connect knowledge to the needs of their society. In this sense, this study contends that Civic Education teachers are essential to the provision of quality education and transformative education to the learners and as such they must receive specialist training in the subject (Civic Education)

5.7.5 Teacher Education Programmes in Civic Education

Teacher education programmes in Civic Education should be designed in such a way that they help would-be teachers in the schools develop knowledge and understanding of the key concepts, learn to use active-participatory pedagogies such as service learning, social justice oriented approach and other community service learning projects if they are be responsive to the needs of the society. As aptly stated by Dean (2007:16), “ teacher education programmes must include support for teachers as they use their learning in real classrooms and provide opportunities for young people to learn to be citizens through active involvement in their schools and local communities”.

The point above agrees very much with the theoretical framework guiding this study and in reiterating the words of Ayers and Ray (1996:10) courses that, “ a service learning framework help students to make connections about who they are, what they think and how they act”. In that way, students will be made to get involved in all matters that affect them and as students they will engage in problem solving and decision making thereby contributing towards creating a transformed society. Therefore, this study has observed that such an approach is not there in the colleges and university and this explains the type of output that schools receive in terms of the teachers of Civic Education. This is a source of concern which has to be corrected if Civic Education is to be seen in the context of providing opportunities for social change and transformation of society.

5.7.6 Summary

The study revealed that teachers of Civic Education had inadequate information and knowledge on Civic Education. The study further noted that even their training was not founded on strong theoretical, philosophical and epistemological perspectives which could make them confident enough to deliver Civic Education in the schools. The study contends that where adequate information and knowledge is lacking it would be difficult for any of the teachers of Civic Education to deliver according to the expectations of society. This inadequacy of information and knowledge on Civic Education by the teachers was attributed to the training that they were exposed to in the institutions where they were trained.

5.8 Research Findings on the Teachers' Views on the Teaching of Civic Education

5.8.1 Introduction

I present, discuss and summarise the research findings on teachers' views regarding the teaching of Civic Education in schools. The guiding statements revolved around three major pedagogical strands such as education about citizenship, education through citizenship and education for citizenship.

5.8.2 Presentations of the Findings

Table 11: Distribution of teachers' views on the teaching of Civic Education

	SD		D		N		A		SA		Cumulative	
	f	%	f	%	F	%	f	%	f	%	Disagree %	Agree %
1	25	35.2	25	35.2	7	9.9	3	4.2	11	15.5	70.4	19.7
2	36	48.6	22	29.7	4	5.4	1	1.4	11	14.9	78.3	16.3
3	25	33.8	31	41.9	6	8.1	1	1.4	11	14.9	75.7	16.3
4	31	42.5	27	37.0	4	5.5	4	5.5	7	9.6	79.5	15.1
5	20	27.4	33	45.2	8	11.0	5	6.8	7	9.6	72.6	16.4
6	28	38.4	23	31.5	8	11.0	8	11.0	6	8.2	69.9	19.2
7	6	8.1	13	17.6	22	29.7	19	25.7	14	18.9	25.7	44.6
8	10	13.5	16	21.6	18	24.3	18	24.3	12	16.2	35.1	40.5
9	10	13.7	22	30.1	17	23.3	11	15.1	13	17.8	43.8	32.9
10	22	29.7	24	32.4	13	17.6	9	12.2	6	8.1	62.1	20.3
AV	21.3	29.09	23.6	32.22	10.7	14.56	7.9	10.76	9.8	13.37	61.31	24.13

As can be seen from the table above, the cumulative figures indicate that 61.31% disagreed on the statements that were given while 24.13% agreed and 14.56% were neutral.

5.8.3 Discussion of the Findings

The results in the table 11 seem to confirm and disconfirm long standing and taken for granted views and positions regarding Civic Education. While it was expected that teachers of Civic Education were going to agree with most of the statements, the opposite was the case. Further discussion on this is reflected in the following section.

5.8.4 The complex nature of Civic Education

The study reveals that teachers' views on Civic Education were complex in the sense of how they responded to the statements that were given in the questionnaire. The responses in table 8 show the difficulties that the teachers had in coming up with the correct views about the subject. These results are supported by other empirical studies that have recognised that Civic Education is complex, not only a wholly top-down process. Put another way, it is true that teachers did not respond the way the study was expecting them due to the nature of the study area which is not so easy to comprehend and so their views could be somewhat justified.

Despite this aspect, one would have expected a clear position skewed towards the positive side on the following statements but that did not come out: *Civic Education places the learner at the centre of all activities of society (75.7% disagreed, 16.3% agreed and 8.1% were neutral); Civic Education gives the learners an opportunity to participate in the transformation of society (79.5% disagreed, 15.1% agreed and 5.5% were neutral); Civic Education emphasises on objectives and teaching approaches which stimulates social change and transformation (69.9% disagreed, 19.2% agreed and 11.0% were neutral); Civic Education is better addressed through double consciousness, cross-cultural competencies and strategies for collective social action (60.1% disagreed, 20.3% agreed and 17.6 were neutral).*

Such views as noted above are also consistent with what was found by Torney- Purta et al. (2001); Morris and Cogan, (2001); Yates and Youniss, (1999) and Kennedy, (1997) that, “students and teachers alike demonstrated differences in concepts of Civic Education such as democracy, citizenship governments, operationalization of the school curriculum, knowledge and values promoted in Civic Education and community service involvement”.

5.8.5 Traditional and Banking Orientations of Civic Education

In the context of this study it can be argued that the views of the teachers of Civic Education reflect what McCowan (in Ogunyemi, 2011:378-385) has described as, “the traditional or elitist or minimal orientation which conceives Citizenship Education as a process of social initiation”. A tool of reproducing the existing socio-economic order and also as a tool of instilling national loyalty and obedience to authority as well as producing learners who will not be able to think or reason critically for the development of their society.

5.8.6 Minimalist Orientation of Civic Education

The minimalist orientation view conceives Civic Education from the point of view of social initiation where the teaching of Civic Education does not allow learners to engage and challenge certain ideas and views of the teachers during the process of teaching and learning. The learners are only asked to agree and accept with what the teacher is telling them. This kind of education according to Freire suffers from narration sickness and does not liberate the learners to become independent thinkers who can make sound decisions that can bring about social change and transformation of society.

5.8.7 Maximalist Orientation of Civic Education

The maximalist view of Civic Education, which allows social reformation and change of society, was not part of the mindset of the teachers of Civic Education and yet this could be the kind of Civic Education which would be able to respond to the needs of society. This could explain why the subject is not being utilised in the sense of social change and transformation of society. This study therefore contends that as long as teachers of Civic Education hold a minimalist view about Civic Education, society will always remain with a mixed view about the extent to which Civic Education responds to social change and transform society.

5.8.8 Banking Concept of Education in Civic Education

In the same vein, it would also appear that their views reflect what has been described by Freire as a banking concept of education in which they see Civic Education as an act of depositing knowledge to the students; students are the depositories and the teacher is the depositor. Instead of communicating, the teacher’s view is on issuing communiqués and making deposits which the students patiently receive, memorize, and repeat. This is the "banking" concept of education, in which the scope of action allowed to the students extends only as far as receiving, filing, and storing the deposits. They do, it is true, and have the opportunity to become collectors or cataloguers of the things they store. But in the final analysis, it is the people themselves who are filed away through the lack of creativity,

transformation, and knowledge in this (at best) misguided system. For apart from inquiry, apart from the praxis, individuals cannot be truly human. Knowledge emerges only through invention and re-invention, and through the restless, impatient, continuing, hopeful inquiry human beings pursue in the world, with the world, and with each other (Freire, 1993, 1970).

In the banking concept of education, Freire(1970) asserts that, “ knowledge is a gift bestowed by those who consider themselves knowledgeable upon those whom they consider to know nothing”. For Freire, projecting an absolute ignorance onto others, is a characteristic of the ideology) of oppression, which in the view of Freire negates education and knowledge as processes of inquiry. For him, it may not be correct on the part of the teacher to presents himself or herself to his students as their necessary opposite. Thus, by considering their ignorance absolute, he or she- justifies his or her own existence. Further, Freire contended that, “ the students, alienated like the slave in the Hegelian dialectic, accept their ignorance as justifying the teachers’ existence—but, unlike the slave, they never discover that they educate the teacher”. Clearly, from this thinking it is difficult to create spaces or opportunities in which learners are able to learn and appreciate the potential required of them in the transformation of society. This unfortunately appears to be the case in the schools and also appears to be the norm in which the delivery of Civic Education is done to the learners and this could be seen also from the views that they displayed in their responses.

5.8.9 Summary

The study has revealed that the view of teachers of Civic Education on the subject mainly reflects a traditional and banking type of Civic Education. They do not see it from the maximal point of view and as such they find it difficult to link it to service learning framework which could lead to social change and transformation of society.

5.9 Research Findings on Teachers' Self Evaluation on Civic Education

5.9.1 Introduction

I present, discuss and summarise the research findings on teachers' self evaluation with respect to Civic Education. The guiding statements revolved around their competencies and skills in the delivery of Civic Education in schools.

5.9.2 Presentation of the Findings

Table 12: Distribution on Teachers' self evaluation on the teaching of Civic Education

	SD		D		N		A		SA		Cumulative	
	F	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	Disagree %	Agree %
1	16	22.9	35	50.0	7	10.0	4	5.7	8	11.4	72.9	17.1
2	33	45.2	30	41.1	1	1.4	5	6.8	4	5.5	86.3	12.3
3	28	37.8	33	44.6	2	2.7	5	6.8	6	8.1	82.4	14.9
4	19	26.4	37	51.4	3	4.2	7	9.7	6	8.3	77.8	18.0
5	29	40.3	31	43.1	2	2.8	4	5.6	6	8.3	83.4	13.9
6	19	26.4	34	47.2	8	11.1	5	6.9	6	8.3	73.6	15.2
7	25	34.2	30	41.1	5	6.8	9	12.3	5	5.5	75.3	17.8
8	19	26.8	32	45.1	7	9.9	5	7.0	8	11.3	71.9	18.3
9	14	19.2	30	41.1	12	16.4	9	12.3	8	11.0	60.3	23.3
10	27	37.0	28	38.4	4	5.5	7	9.6	7	9.6	75.4	19.2
11	24	32.4	28	37.8	7	9.5	6	8.1	9	12.2	70.2	20.3
12	21	30.4	26	37.7	9	13.0	5	7.2	8	11.6	68.1	18.8
13	32	43.2	27	36.5	4	5.4	5	6.8	6	8.1	79.7	14.9
14	29	40.3	27	37.5	5	6.9	3	4.2	8	11.1	77.8	15.3
15	21	28.8	37	50.7	5	6.8	2	2.7	8	11.0	79.5	13.7
16	39	53.4	24	32.9	2	2.7	4	5.5	4	5.5	86.3	11.0
17	33	45.2	26	35.6	4	5.5	4	5.5	6	8.2	80.8	13.7

18	29	42.0	26	37.7	3	4.3			11	15.9	79.7	15.9
19	13	17.8	39	53.4	8	11.0	7	9.6	6	8.2	71.2	17.8
20	23	31.9	26	36.1	8	11.1	4	5.6	11	15.3	68.0	20.9
21	15	21.1	30	42.3	10	14.1	11	15.5	5	7.0	63.4	22.5
22	20	27.4	33	45.2	4	5.5	10	13.7	6	8.2	72.6	21.9
23	26	37.1	31	44.3	4	5.7	3	4.3	6	8.6	81.4	12.9
24	13	18.1	34	47.2	10	13.9	9	12.5	6	8.3	65.3	20.8
25	31	43.1	25	34.7	7	9.7	4	5.6	5	6.9	77.8	12.5
26	23	31.5	33	45.2	4	5.5	5	6.8	8	11.0	76.7	17.8
27	27	36.5	32	43.2	1	1.4	4	5.4	10	13.5	79.7	18.9
28	38	51.4	26	35.1	3	4.1			7	9.5	86.5	9.5
AV	24.5	33.85	30.35	42.00	5.32	7.38	5.21	7.20	6.92	9.55	75.85	16.75

The table above shows the cumulative figures on teachers' self evaluation (75.85% disagreed while only 16.75% agreed and 7.38% were neutral).

5.9.3 Discussions of the Findings

The results from table 12 show that most of the teachers teaching Civic Education in schools do not carry out self evaluation reports as a way of determining their level of competency and skills in Civic Education. This kind of situation if not corrected has the potential of affecting the general delivery of Civic Education to the learners in schools.

The overall picture under teachers' self-evaluation is that most of the issues that concern service learning and learner involvement and community engagement are not promoted in the teaching and learning of Civic Education in the schools thereby denying the learners what has been described by Kerr (in Lovat et al. 2011: 135-154), "as learning by doing, through active, participative experiences in the school and community". This is in agreement with the focus of this study on the use of pedagogies such as service learning which, if correctly applied in the teaching and learning of Civic Education, can bring about social change and the transformation of society. This is also supported by studies that were done by Tudball (2010) that, "surveyed international programmes which, when combined knowledge from school curricula with practical knowledge gained through service learning activities, resulted in contributing to

students' sense of wellbeing and agency". Put another way, students are able to make themselves relevant to the needs of society and thereby contribute in a holistic way the much need social change and transformation of society.

5.9.4 Summary

The finding from the study on self-evaluation generally reveals that teachers of Civic Education were not, as a matter fact, conducting self-evaluation reports to check on their level of competency and skills in the delivery of Civic Education in schools. In other words, they were not able to check, from time to time, which of the methods or trends of teaching were effective enough to respond to social change and eventual transformation of society.

5.10 Research Findings on the Statistical Significance, Mean and One-way Analysis of Variance of all Variables in the Study

5.10.1 Introduction

I present results and discuss the implication of these results with respect to the statistical significance, mean and one way analysis between groups and within groups. The guiding issues revolves around gender, age, post of the teacher, teachers' qualifications, experience, workloads or number of teaching periods per week, number of workshops/training attended, number of teachers of Civic Education per school and the locality of the school.

5.10.2 Presentation of the Findings

The first table presents the overall *independent sample t*-test results between males and females on the variables and results are discussed within the table at the end.

The next set of tables is presented in two formats. The first format of the table presents output of the results in terms of the mean and the standard deviation against the variable and the second format presents the second output of results by way of giving the summary results against the variable through one-way analysis of variance between groups and within groups. The actual implication and discussion of both output of results is shown in each of the first tables.

Nine items were subjected to Cronbach's Alpha in order to measure the reliability and validity of the questionnaire. Out of the 9 items, 8 were found to have loadings greater than 0.70 and were used to analyze the data.

Table 13

Comparing of male and female civic education teachers on pedagogical practices (n=34 males and 39 females)

Variable	M	SD	t	df	p
Total of All					
Males	26.68	103.56	.88	71	.388
Females	24.73	84.93			
Teaching of Civic Education					
Males	26.97	9.60	1.75	71	.086
Females	23.15	9.00			
Relevance of Civic Education					
Males	23.74	11.22	.742	71	.466
Females	21.95	9.35			
Teaching and Learning Materials					
Males	30.18	7.75	.874	71	.399
Females	28.85	5.14			
Content of Civic Education					
Males	22.47	13.15	.586	71	.566
Females	20.85	10.50			
Influence of Civic Education					
Males	24.03	11.45	.803	71	.436
Females	22.18	8.15			
Challenges					
Males	29.30	8.96	.986	71	.327
Females	27.26	8.67			
Teachers' Knowledge					
Males	22.68	10.88	.039	71	.969
Females	22.77	9.19			
Teachers' Views					
Males	25.85	11.51	1.08	71	.292
Females	23.26	9.01			
Teachers' Self Evaluation					
Males	61.59	28.83	.703	71	.488
Females	57.08	25.99			

Table 13 above shows that male teachers were not significantly different from female teachers on all the variables-Pedagogical practices, teachers' knowledge, teachers' views and teachers' self evaluation, ($p = 0.388$). Inspection of the two group means indicates that the average on all the variables for the female teachers ($M = 24.73$) is not significantly lower than the score ($M = 26.68$) for males. The difference between the means is 1.95. The effect size d is approximately 0.02 which is smaller than typical. This implies that the teaching of Civic Education in schools is not done differently between males and females. The study reveals that gender in this case was not a factor in the teaching of Civic Education.

Means and Standard deviations comparing the age range groups																														
Age Range	Total of all			Teaching			Relevance			Materials			Content			Influence			Challenges			Knowledge			Views			Evaluation		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD			
20 – 25	8	25.16	79.78	8	23.13	6.58	8	22.13	10.25	8	28.88	7.97	8	22.50	11.86	8	22.75	9.27	8	27.75	9.78	8	23.00	7.21	8	23.50	8.14	8	58.00	21.13
26 – 35	32	26.35	100.48	32	26.06	9.70	32	23.44	10.81	32	29.53	6.82	32	22.16	12.03	32	23.69	9.83	32	28.38	9.17	32	22.94	10.43	32	25.19	10.91	32	62.13	29.41
36 – 45	25	25.70	102.04	25	24.44	10.52	25	22.64	10.83	25	29.40	6.39	25	21.48	12.82	25	23.08	11.04	25	28.76	8.42	25	22.60	11.18	25	25.52	11.31	25	59.08	30.03
46 – 55	8	21.91	26.28	8	22.38	6.61	8	19.50	3.51	8	28.88	3.23	8	17.00	4.54	8	19.13	3.60	8	25.00	7.52	8	20.25	4.68	8	19.25	3.58	8	47.75	7.27
Total	73	25.51	93.17	73	24.78	9.36	73	22.59	10.11	73	29.34	6.40	73	21.40	11.63	73	22.88	9.68	73	28.07	8.71	73	22.53	9.82	73	24.47	10.26	73	59.05	27.20

Output 14a and 14b

Results

Table 14a

There was no statistically significant difference found among the variables- pedagogical practices, knowledge of the teachers, views of the teachers and teachers’ self evaluation on the four age ranges, $F(3, 69) = 0.481, p = 0.697$. Table 14a shows that the mean for all the variables is 25.16 for teachers whose age range was 20-25, 26.35 for teachers whose age range was 26-35, 25.70 for teachers whose age range was 36-45 and 21.91 for teachers whose age range was 46-55. The study reveals that teachers whose age range between 46-55 had low mean on the following variables: under pedagogical practices-relevance was 19.50, content was 17.00, influence was 19.13, challenges was 25.00 and on the other three variables- knowledge was 20.25, views was 19.25 and self evaluation was 47.75. This means that teachers in this age range though advanced in age and experience did not show some comparative advantage over the other groups in the teaching of Civic Education in schools. This could be attributed to the nature of the subject which requires a lot of reading and searching of new information every now and then which might be a challenge with those who in the age range of 46-55. As a result, young teachers were more likely to perform better in this area due to their vibrancy and desire to interact with various sources of information from the internet and other social networks as compared to the old who were not so familiar with issues of searching information through the internet and other social networks and media.

Table 14b**One-Way Analysis of Variance – Summary Table Comparing Age Range Groups**

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Total of All					
Between Groups	3	12798.37	4266.12	.481	.697
Within Groups	69	612268.75	8873.46		
Total	72	625067.12			
Teaching of Civic Education					
Between Groups	3	123.71	41.24	.460	.711
Within Groups	69	6180.79	89.56		
Total	72	6304.49			
Relevance of Civic Education					
Between Groups	3	101.16	33.72	.321	.810
Within Groups	69	7256.51	105.17		
Total	72	7357.67			
Teaching and Learning Materials					
Between Groups	3	4.72	1.57	.037	.990
Within Groups	69	2941.72	42.63		
Total	72	2946.44			
Content of Civic Education					
Between Groups	3	183.02	61.07	.440	.725
Within Groups	69	9556.46	138.50		
Total	72	9739.48			
Influence of Civic Education					
Between Groups	3	134.80	44.93	.469	.705
Within Groups	69	6609.09	95.78		
Total	72	6743.89			
Challenges					
Between Groups	3	91.01	30.37	.390	.761
Within Groups	69	5373.56	77.88		
Total	72	5464.66			
Teachers' Knowledge					
Between Groups	3	48.79	16.26	.163	.921
Within Groups	69	6887.38	99.82		
Total	72	6936.16			
Teachers' Views					
Between Groups	3	269.55	89.85	.848	.472
Within Groups	69	7312.62	105.98		
Total	72	7582.16			
Teachers' Self Evaluation					
Between Groups	3	1332.94	444.31	.590	.623
Within Groups	69	51942.84	752.80		
Total	72	53275.78			

Means and Standard deviations comparing the post of the teacher																														
POT	Total of all			Teaching			Relevance			Materials			Content			Influence			Challenges			Knowledge			Views			Evaluation		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD			
CT	52	24.30	79.63	52	24.17	8.14	52	21.73	9.11	52	29.02	6.13	52	19.83	10.27	52	21.44	8.09	52	27.13	8.33	52	21.50	8.36	52	22.96	8.78	52	55.17	22.83
HOS	15	30.17	120.32	15	28.73	10.94	15	26.60	13.68	15	29.67	6.70	15	27.60	14.56	15	28.20	12.90	15	31.27	10.07	15	27.73	13.95	15	29.20	13.38	15	72.67	34.41
HOD	2	23.40	12.73	2	20.00	5.66	2	20.50	.70	2	32.50	.71	2	20.50	2.12	2	22.00	1.41	2	26.00	1.41	2	18.50	2.12	2	21.50	3.54	2	52.50	6.36
ST	4	27.35	148.71	4	22.75	18.15	4	23.50	11.36	4	32.25	11.67	4	23.50	16.94	4	25.75	15.04	4	31.50	11.00	4	23.00	10.23	4	27.00	14.28	4	64.25	46.64
Total	73	25.65	93.91	73	24.92	9.42	73	22.80	10.23	73	29.42	6.47	73	21.64	11.75	73	23.08	9.80	73	28.19	8.80	73	22.78	9.93	73	24.42	10.25	73	59.19	27.25

POT=Post of the Teacher; CT=Class Teacher; HOS=Head of Section; HOD=Head of Department; ST=Senior Teacher.

Table 15a

Output 15a and 15b

Results

There was no statistically significant difference found among all the variables- *pedagogical practices, teacher's knowledge, teachers' views and teacher's self evaluation* with respect to the post of the teacher in the school, $F(3, 69) = 1.642, p = 0.188$. Table 15a shows that the total mean score is 25.65. A close examination of the individual variables against the post of the teacher does not equally reveal any major significant difference. These findings reveal that it does not matter whether one had a post or not in the school as the teaching was the same or done in a similar pattern. In this sense, the position of the teacher has no influence on the teaching of Civic Education in the schools.

Table 15b**One-Way Analysis of Variance summary table comparing posts of the teacher**

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Total of All					
Between Groups	3	42299.83	14099.94	1.642	.188
Within Groups	69	592610.26	8588.55		
Total	72	634910.08			
Teaching of Civic Education					
Between Groups	3	314.38	104.79	1.191	.320
Within Groups	69	6073.13	88.01		
Total	72	6387.51			
Relevance of Civic Education					
Between Groups	3	288.59	96.20	.916	.438
Within Groups	69	7243.33	104.98		
Total	72	7531.92			
Teaching and Learning Materials					
Between Groups	3	60.27	20.09	.469	.705
Within Groups	69	2953.56	42.81		
Total	72	3013.84			
Content of Civic Education					
Between Groups	3	720.20	240.07	1.797	.156
Within Groups	69	9216.54	42.81		
Total	72	9936.74			
Influence of Civic Education					
Between Groups	3	563.53	187.84	2.04	.116
Within Groups	69	6345.98	91.97		
Total	72	6909.51			
Challenges					
Between Groups	3	253.32	84.44	1.09	.358
Within Groups	69	5325.99	77.19		
Total	72	5579.32			
Teachers' Knowledge					
Between Groups	3	490.06	163.35	1.707	.174
Within Groups	69	6602.43	95.69		
Total	72	7092.49			
Teachers' Views					
Between Groups	3	497.01	165.67	1.618	.193
Within Groups	69	7066.82	102.42		
Total	72	7563.84			
Teachers' Self Evaluation					
Between Groups	3	3755.29	1251.76	1.737	.167
Within Groups	69	49718.03	720.55		
Total	72	53473.32			

Means and Standard deviations comparing years of experience

Years	Total of all			Teaching			Relevance			Materials			Content			Influence			Challenges			Knowledge			Views			Evaluation		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD			
0-5	42	22.93	59.87	42	22.57	6.64	42	20.19	7.03	42	27.64	4.32	42	18.60	7.92	42	20.29	6.27	42	26.21	6.64	42	20.29	6.30	42	21.88	7.51	42	51.62	19.22
6-10	16	30.64	119.85	16	28.88	12.76	16	27.00	12.92	16	34.56	9.14	16	26.31	14.71	16	27.81	12.60	16	31.81	11.93	16	26.88	11.39	16	29.63	12.12	16	73.50	31.50
11-15	11	27.91	110.26	11	27.27	8.47	11	24.91	11.84	11	29.91	3.94	11	25.55	15.06	11	26.27	12.15	11	29.36	9.00	11	25.91	13.96	11	25.64	13.07	11	64.27	34.45
16-20	2	34.00	227.69	2	32.50	21.92	2	31.50	24.75	2	28.50	12.02	2	28.50	27.58	2	30.00	21.21	2	40.50	9.19	2	29.50	27.58	2	32.00	22.63	2	87.00	60.81
21- Ab	2	20.60	52.33	2	6.00	.00	2	17.00	5.66	2	25.50	10.61	2	17.00	7.07	2	18.00	7.07	2	24.50	3.54	2	4.95	3.50	2	23.00	1.41	2	48.50	12.02
Total	73	25.61	93.85	73	24.75	9.33	73	22.62	10.14	73	29.42	6.48	73	21.56	11.75	73	23.04	9.80	73	28.26	8.80	73	22.73	9.94	73	24.45	10.26	73	59.21	27.25

Ab=Above

Table 16a

Output 16a and 16b

Results

A statistically significant difference was found on most of the variables- *pedagogical practices, teachers' knowledge, teachers' views and teachers' self evaluation* with respect to the years of experience of the teachers of Civic Education in schools, $F(4, 68) = 3.016, p = 0.024$. Table 16a shows that the total mean score is 25.61. A close examination of the means for age range 0-5 and 21 and above reveals some interesting findings in that both groups had minor mean differences and the study attributes this to two factors: the first one being that in both cases it is either the teachers are not trained in the subject and therefore not grounded in key areas underpinning Civic Education or that those in the age range 0-5 were not yet experienced to teach the subject accordingly. In this regard, the study revealed that years of experience to a greater extent had an influence on the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools. Those with experience by logical extension were more likely to teach more consistently and diligently than those who had less years of experience.

Table 16b**One-Way Analysis of Variance summary table comparing the years of experience**

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Total of All					
Between Groups	4	9552.28	23888.07	3.016	.024
Within Groups	68	538589.23	7920.43		
Total	72	634141.51			
Teaching of Civic Education					
Between Groups	4	814.84	203.71	2.542	.047
Within Groups	68	5448.72	80.13		
Total	72	6263.56			
Relevance of Civic Education					
Between Groups	4	833.38	208.34	2.155	.083
Within Groups	68	6573.89	96.68		
Total	72	7407.26			
Teaching and Learning Materials					
Between Groups	4	590.68	147.67	4.133	.005
Within Groups	68	2429.50	35.73		
Total	72	3020.16			
Content of Civic Education					
Between Groups	4	1043.19	260.80	1.992	.105
Within Groups	68	8900.78	130.89		
Total	72	9943.97			
Influence of Civic Education					
Between Groups	4	945.69	236.42	2.694	.038
Within Groups	68	5967.19	87.75		
Total	72	6912.88			
Challenges					
Between Groups	4	719.00	179.75	2.519	.049
Within Groups	68	4853.05	71.37		
Total	72	5572.05			
Teachers' Knowledge					
Between Groups	4	806.29	201.57	2.173	.081
Within Groups	68	6308.23	92.77		
Total	72	7114.52			
Teachers' Views					
Between Groups	4	839.38	209.85	2.11	.088
Within Groups	68	6738.70	99.10		
Total	72	7578.08			
Teachers' Self Evaluation					
Between Groups	4	7743.33	1935.83	2.88	.029
Within Groups	68	45738.59	672.63		
Total	72	53481.92			

Means and Standard deviations comparing workloads or number of periods per teacher

Years	Total of all			Teaching			Relevance			Materials			Content			Influence			Challenges			Knowledge			Views			Evaluation		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
0-15	29	21.06	28.86	29	22.21	4.23	29	19.07	4.68	29	27.90	3.91	29	15.86	5.10	29	18.03	4.35	29	25.21	6.08	29	17.34	4.63	29	19.69	5.62	29	45.24	10.36
16-25	36	28.29	108.75	36	26.56	10.86	36	24.81	12.56	36	30.39	7.55	36	24.33	13.43	36	25.78	10.96	36	30.11	9.67	36	25.83	11.21	36	27.64	11.64	36	67.47	29.65
26-35	6	32.15	129.64	6	28.17	15.33	6	30.17	9.20	6	33.00	8.76	6	32.50	12.65	6	31.33	12.01	6	31.67	12.01	6	30.17	9.87	6	29.50	11.79	6	75.00	43.74
36-Ab	2	23.75	21.92	2	26.00	14.14	2	21.50	6.36	2	27.00	1.41	2	17.00	1.41	2	19.50	.71	2	31.50	.71	2	19.50	7.78	2	19.50	2.12	2	56.00	2.83
Total	73	25.61	93.85	73	24.95	9.41	73	22.88	10.19	73	29.52	6.46	73	21.44	11.68	73	22.99	9.78	73	28.33	8.75	73	22.64	9.92	73	24.41	10.24	73	58.95	27.12

Table 17a

Output 17a and 17b

Results

A statistically significant difference was found on most of the variables- *pedagogical practices, teachers' knowledge, teachers' views and teachers' self evaluation* with respect to the workloads or number of periods per teacher, $F(3, 69) = 4.955, p = 0.004$. Table 17a shows that the total mean score is 25.61. The study has revealed that the number of teaching loads or period per teacher had an influence on the actual teaching of Civic Education in schools. On average, those with high mean score were more likely to be affected than those with low mean score. This implies that the more the number of periods one has the more affected one is likely to be in terms of teaching and learning and the converse is always true.

Table 17b

One-Way Analysis of Variance summary table comparing workloads or number of periods per teacher

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Total of All					
Between Groups	3	112408.41	37469.47	4.955	.004
Within Groups	69	521787.92	7562.14		
Total	72	634196.33			
Teaching of Civic Education					
Between Groups	3	375.30	125.10	1.438	.239
Within Groups	69	6004.48	87.02		
Total	72	6379.78			
Relevance of Civic Education					
Between Groups	3	877.06	292.35	3.058	.034
Within Groups	69	6596.83	95.61		
Total	72	7473.89			
Teaching and Learning Materials					
Between Groups	3	188.97	62.99	1.546	.210
Within Groups	69	2811.25	40.74		
Total	72	3000.22			
Content of Civic Education					
Between Groups	3	1977.02	659.01	5.799	.001
Within Groups	69	7840.95	113.64		
Total	72	9817.97			
Influence of Civic Education					
Between Groups	3	1433.97	477.99	6.046	.001
Within Groups	69	5455.02	79.06		
Total	72	6888.99			
Challenges					
Between Groups	3	483.96	161.32	2.213	.094
Within Groups	69	5030.15	72.90		
Total	72	5514.11			
Teachers' Knowledge					
Between Groups	3	1539.86	513.29	6.385	.001
Within Groups	69	5546.86	80.39		
Total	72	7086.74			
Teachers' Views					
Between Groups	3	1225.16	408.39	4.453	.006
Within Groups	69	6328.51	91.72		
Total	72	7553.67			
Teachers' Self Evaluation					
Between Groups	3	9627.50	3209.17	5.109	.003
Within Groups	69	43344.28	628.18		
Total	72	52971.78			

Means and Standard deviations comparing number of training and workshops attended

Number	Total of all			Teaching			Relevance			Materials			Content			Influence			Challenges			Knowledge			Views			Evaluation		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
0	35	24.17	79.66	35	22.40	8.77	35	21.17	8.58	35	28.71	6.66	35	19.43	9.87	35	21.37	7.60	35	27.63	8.31	35	21.57	8.68	35	23.17	8.88	35	56.20	22.45
1	9	27.71	105.89	9	27.22	10.12	9	25.11	11.81	9	30.89	5.42	9	23.56	12.82	9	24.22	10.27	9	31.44	7.60	9	26.44	8.63	9	25.56	11.53	9	62.67	33.32
2	7	26.21	84.47	7	27.14	7.03	7	24.86	11.60	7	31.00	8.06	7	22.57	11.80	7	23.86	9.04	7	26.86	8.67	7	21.86	7.60	7	25.57	8.36	7	58.43	19.36
3	11	29.15	120.47	11	30.09	10.07	11	25.18	11.29	11	31.09	6.32	11	26.73	13.19	11	28.00	13.09	11	30.09	10.83	11	24.36	11.65	11	26.91	13.85	11	69.00	40.21
4	9	25.89	114.158	9	26.11	10.72	9	24.22	13.34	9	30.11	5.25	9	20.78	15.90	9	22.78	13.14	9	28.78	9.86	9	23.22	15.38	9	25.11	12.26	9	57.78	28.37
5	1	28.30	_	1	22.00	_	1	15.00	_	1	25.00	_	1	33.00	_	1	28.00	_	1	20.00	_	1	28.00	_	1	30.00	_	1	82.00	_
6	2	18.60	24.04	2	18.00	2.83	2	17.00	5.66	2	21.00	4.24	2	17.00	7.07	2	16.00	4.24	2	20.00	2.83	2	15.00	2.83	2	20.00	2.83	2	42.00	2.83
Total	74	25.65	93.26	74	24.91	9.35	74	22.77	10.16	74	29.46	6.43	74	21.59	11.67	74	23.05	9.73	74	28.22	8.74	74	22.72	9.87	74	24.49	10.19	74	59.26	27.07

Table 18a

Output 18a and 18b

Results

There was no statistically significant difference found among all the variables- *pedagogical practices, teachers' knowledge, teachers' views and teachers' self evaluation* with respect to the number of trainings and workshops attended by the teachers of Civic Education in schools, $F(6, 67) = 0.669, p = 0.675$. Table 18a shows that the total mean score for all the variables is 25.65. This implies that number of training and workshops attended by the teachers of Civic Education had no significant influence on the teaching and learning of Civic Education. The study attributes this kind of situation to the training and workshops attended outside Civic Education and therefore might have just attended general training and workshops not necessarily meant to ground them in key areas and other perspectives on Civic Education.

Table 18b**One-Way Analysis of Variance summary table comparing number of training and workshops attended**

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Total of All					
Between Groups	6	35891.13	5981.86	.669	.675
Within Groups	67	599019.25	8940.57		
Total	73	634910.38			
Teaching of Civic Education					
Between Groups	6	715.73	119.29	1.409	.224
Within Groups	67	5672.61	84.67		
Total	73	6388.34			
Relevance of Civic Education					
Between Groups	6	379.19	63.20	.592	.736
Within Groups	67	7155.91	106.81		
Total	73	7535.10			
Teaching and Learning Materials					
Between Groups	6	250.55	41.76	1.010	.426
Within Groups	67	2769.83	41.34		
Total	73	3020.38			
Content of Civic Education					
Between Groups	6	673.59	112.27	.811	.565
Within Groups	67	9276.25	138.45		
Total	73	9949.84			
Influence of Civic Education					
Between Groups	6	509.64	84.94	.889	.508
Within Groups	67	6404.14	95.58		
Total	73	6913.78			
Challenges					
Between Groups	6	362.83	60.47	.776	.591
Within Groups	67	5219.72	77.91		
Total	73	5582.54			
Teachers' Knowledge					
Between Groups	6	355.29	59.22	.587	.740
Within Groups	67	6759.75	100.89		
Total	73	7115.04			
Teachers' Views					
Between Groups	6	217.78	36.30	.330	.919
Within Groups	67	7366.71	109.95		
Total	73	7584.49			
Teachers' Self Evaluation					
Between Groups	6	2613.25	435.54	.573	.750
Within Groups	67	50882.87	759.45		
Total	73	53496.12			

Means and Standard deviations comparing number of teachers teaching civic education

Number	Total of all			Teaching			Relevance			Materials			Content			Influence			Challenges			Knowledge			Views			Evaluation		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD
1	2	25.25	43.13	2	19.00	4.24	2	16.00	1.41	2	26.50	2.12	2	24.50	12.02	2	24.00	5.66	2	26.00	8.49	2	21.00	9.90	2	25.50	6.36	2	70.00	16.97
2	8	24.25	51.60	8	22.00	10.13	8	22.00	6.50	8	30.13	4.36	8	20.25	6.43	8	21.63	5.97	8	28.75	5.60	8	22.13	6.62	8	21.63	4.31	8	54.00	13.45
3	10	23.30	46.24	10	21.20	5.85	10	19.80	5.22	10	29.10	6.06	10	17.20	5.80	10	20.30	3.53	10	27.80	4.24	10	20.30	3.97	10	20.60	5.27	10	56.70	16.55
4	14	23.17	70.36	14	23.43	7.09	14	21.14	7.44	14	26.93	4.50	14	19.29	9.33	14	20.71	7.16	14	26.07	6.58	14	19.00	8.82	14	22.14	6.81	14	53.00	22.19
5	17	28.51	120.63	17	29.24	10.80	17	25.12	12.73	17	30.00	6.12	17	24.00	15.41	17	26.29	12.98	17	30.00	10.83	17	26.29	13.94	17	28.47	13.38	17	65.71	33.54
6	6	34.70	143.35	6	32.83	12.06	6	31.17	14.02	6	36.33	11.48	6	30.67	16.78	6	32.83	13.70	6	35.50	10.46	6	29.67	11.02	6	33.33	15.04	6	84.67	41.65
7	7	20.81	23.46	7	21.43	5.26	7	20.00	6.58	7	26.43	2.44	7	17.71	7.32	7	18.14	5.70	7	26.43	6.97	7	18.29	3.99	7	17.29	4.31	7	42.43	10.16
8	5	21.98	12.03	5	19.80	6.61	5	16.60	4.67	5	26.40	3.29	5	19.20	4.02	5	20.60	2.79	5	21.80	8.90	5	23.00	5.87	5	25.40	5.18	5	47.00	9.27
Total	69	25.37	89.52	69	24.59	9.27	69	22.30	9.51	69	29.09	6.15	69	21.23	11.16	69	23.01	9.43	69	28.14	8.34	69	22.55	9.71	69	24.23	9.88	69	58.52	26.12

Output 19a and 19b

Results

A statistically significant difference was found on all the variables- *pedagogical practices, teachers' knowledge, teachers' views and teachers' self evaluation* with respect to teachers teaching Civic Education in schools, $F(7, 61) = 1.991, p = 0.071$. Table 19a shows that the total mean score is 25.37. While the broad picture reveals a significant difference, a close look at the teachers' knowledge reveals that there was no statistically significant difference, $F(7, 61) = 1.430, p = 0.210$. The study also reveals that on some aspects under pedagogical practices such as challenges faced by the teachers, there was no statistically significant difference as can be shown in table 19b, $F(7, 61) = 1.461, p = 0.198$. This means that teachers of Civic Education faced similar challenges in the schools. This is also in line with results from the interviews. The study also revealed that there was no statistically significant difference on Civic Education content against the teachers teaching in the schools as can be shown in table 19b, $F(7, 61) = 1.187, p = 0.324$. These results are consistent other results on age range, position of the teacher, years of experience, trainings and workshops as well as the school locality. This means that teachers of Civic Education share similar understanding on Civic Education content which in this case could be described as lacking in key aspects that create spaces and opportunities for social change and transformation of society. In other words, the study reveals that teachers of Civic Education in the schools are not well grounded in key pedagogical perspectives in the teaching of Civic Education and even their knowledge base about the subject is lacking to effect social change and transformation among the learners in the schools.

Table 19b**One-Way Analysis of Variance summary table comparing number of teachers teaching civic education**

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Total of All					
Between Groups	7	101342.21	14477.46	1.991	.071
Within Groups	61	443604.78	7272.21		
Total	68	544946.99			
Teaching of Civic Education					
Between Groups	7	1209.20	172.74	2.275	.040
Within Groups	61	4631.44	75.93		
Total	68	5840.64			
Relevance of Civic Education					
Between Groups	7	967.50	138.21	1.625	.145
Within Groups	61	5187.11	85.04		
Total	68	6154.61			
Teaching and Learning Materials					
Between Groups	7	502.03	71.72	2.114	.055
Within Groups	61	2069.45	33.93		
Total	68	2571.48			
Content of Civic Education					
Between Groups	7	1016.27	145.18	1.187	.324
Within Groups	61	7460.02	122.30		
Total	68	8476.29			
Influence of Civic Education					
Between Groups	7	1121.73	160.25	1.986	.072
Within Groups	61	4921.25	80.68		
Total	68	6042.98			
Challenges					
Between Groups	7	678.51	96.93	1.461	.198
Within Groups	61	4048.04	66.36		
Total	68	4726.55			
Teachers' Knowledge					
Between Groups	7	903.81	129.12	1.430	.210
Within Groups	61	5507.27	90.28		
Total	68	6411.08			
Teachers' Views					
Between Groups	7	1397.60	199.66	2.325	.036
Within Groups	61	5238.69	85.88		
Total	68	6636.29			
Teachers' Self Evaluation					
Between Groups	7	8342.54	1191.79	1.910	.083
Within Groups	61	38056.68	623.88		
Total	68	46399.22			

Means and Standard deviations comparing the school locality																														
LOC	Total of all			Teaching			Relevance			Materials			Content			Influence			Challenges			Knowledge			Views			Evaluation		
	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD	n	M	SD			
TS	25	25.20	96.33	25	24.40	9.67	25	21.76	10.10	25	28.80	6.78	25	20.40	11.33	25	22.38	10.31	25	28.88	9.29	25	21.64	9.95	25	23.48	10.26	25	60.32	26.94
TC	42	26.43	98.34	42	26.48	9.09	42	23.90	10.89	42	30.05	6.65	42	22.24	12.71	42	23.74	10.18	42	28.60	8.88	42	23.50	10.55	42	25.45	10.88	42	60.38	28.65
RL	2	21.00	16.97	2	13.00	11.31	2	20.00	.00	2	30.50	2.12	2	18.50	.71	2	20.00	1.41	2	23.00	1.41	2	23.50	.71	2	22.00	.00	2	39.50	4.95
C	3	22.60	20.66	3	19.67	3.51	3	22.33	2.31	3	28.00	4.58	3	22.67	1.15	3	21.67	2.31	3	22.67	4.51	3	20.67	4.04	3	21.67	3.21	3	46.67	9.29
Total	72	25.69	94.24	72	25.10	9.39	72	22.99	10.22	72	29.54	6.50	72	21.51	11.74	72	23.04	9.84	72	28.29	8.81	72	22.74	9.96	72	24.51	10.28	72	59.21	27.22

LOC= Locality; TS=Township; TC=Town/City; RL=Rural; C=Community

Table 20a

Output 20a and 20b

Results

There was no statistically significant difference found on all the variables- *pedagogical practices, teachers' knowledge, teachers' views and teachers' self evaluation* with respect to school locality, $F(3, 68) = 0.372, p = 0.773$. Table 20a shows that the total mean score is 25.69. While one would have expected variations owing to the locality of the school, the findings in this particular study were different implying that teachers of Civic Education were not in any way influenced by the school locality. In this regard it disqualifies long standing views and taken for granted positions that the locality of the school always will have any influence on the teachers. The only difference though in this particular case which was noted was in the manner Civic Education was taught in town/city or township as compared to rural and community schools. Those in town schools had a comparative advantage in terms of teaching and learning resources as compared to those in rural and community schools and as such their teaching tended to be influenced by such opportunities in the area teaching and learning resources. Other than this particular case there was no much difference that was noted against other variables.

Table 20b**One-Way Analysis of Variance summary table comparing the school locality**

Source	df	SS	MS	F	p
Total of All					
Between Groups	3	10194.36	3398.12	.372	.773
Within Groups	68	620340.29	9122.65		
Total	71	630534.65			
Teaching of Civic Education					
Between Groups	3	473.18	157.73	1.854	.146
Within Groups	68	5785.14	85.08		
Total	71	6258.32			
Relevance of Civic Education					
Between Groups	3	92.14	30.71	.285	.836
Within Groups	68	7318.85	107.63		
Total	71	7410.99			
Teaching and Learning Materials					
Between Groups	3	33.47	11.16	.256	.857
Within Groups	68	2964.41	43.59		
Total	71	2997.88			
Content of Civic Education					
Between Groups	3	75.20	25.07	.175	.913
Within Groups	68	9712.79	142.84		
Total	71	9787.99			
Influence of Civic Education					
Between Groups	3	59.05	19.68	.196	.898
Within Groups	68	6813.83	100.20		
Total	71	6872.88			
Challenges					
Between Groups	3	163.45	54.48	.693	.559
Within Groups	68	5343.43	78.58		
Total	71	5506.88			
Teachers' Knowledge					
Between Groups	3	68.56	22.85	.223	.880
Within Groups	68	6973.43	102.55		
Total	71	7041.99			
Teachers' Views					
Between Groups	3	100.68	33.56	.308	.819
Within Groups	68	7397.31	108.78		
Total	71	7497.99			
Teachers' Self Evaluation					
Between Groups	3	1337.36	445.79	.591	.623
Within Groups	68	51270.51	753.98		
Total	71	52607.87			

5.10.3 Summary

In this chapter, the results, discussions and summaries have been given based on the pedagogical principles and practices regarding the teaching of Civic Education in selected schools in Zambia. The chapter has established that in some cases the level of significant difference were observed with respect to the specific variables that were being measured while in other cases there was no significant difference established on what was being examined with respect to the teaching of Civic Education in schools.

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE STUDY

6.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the conclusion and recommendations of the entire study is given and this is done by way of providing the purpose and research questions that guided the study at hand. That done, the chapter presents the major findings of the study by way of drawing some broad conclusions based on each of the statements that were guiding the study. A summary of the theoretical framework with some implications to the study and the research recommendations are also given.

6.2 Conclusions

The purpose of the study was to establish or ascertain the extent upon which the teaching of Civic Education in schools was serving to enhance and/or impede social change and transformation of society. More specifically the study wanted to find out or ascertain the extent to which the teaching of Civic Education was serving to enhance and impede social change and the transformation of society. By this, the study was trying to examine the extent to which service learning framework, classroom practices, a climate of discussion and engagement were promoted in the teaching and learning of Civic Education. The study was trying to find out how the various civic skills were promoted in the teaching of Civic Education. The study was also trying to assess the influence of Civic Education on the learners. Additionally, the study was also trying to assess teachers' knowledge and views with regard to the delivery of Civic Education in schools and lastly the study was also trying to examine the challenges faced in the teaching and learning of Civic Education.

The study was guided by the following research questions:

- (a) How is the teaching and learning of Civic Education serving as an indicator of social change and/or transformation of society?
- (b) What sort of classroom practices promotes a climate of discussion and engagement among the learners during of Civic Education lessons?
- (c) How are the virtues of civic obligation, civic awareness, civic virtue and civic engagement promoted in Civic Education lessons in schools?
- (d) What sort of pedagogical practices are promoted in Civic Education lessons in schools?
- (e) Are the teaching methods used in Civic Education lessons service learning oriented?
- (f) What challenges are encountered in the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools?

NB: The study examined the above questions by exploring other related questions such as;

1. How does Civic Education influence the learners in schools?
2. How much knowledge do the teachers teaching Civic Education have on the subject?
3. What views do the teachers hold on Civic Education?
4. What role does Civic Education play in fostering positive mindset among the learners in schools?

Having given the purpose and the research questions of the study the next part provides the major findings that were raised in the study and these are:

The main findings with respect to pedagogical principles and practices:

- Teaching of Civic Education is not modelled on practices that encourage engagement of the learners and as such not lived and experienced by the learners
- Service learning approaches and other related aspects of it are clearly missing in the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools

- Methods of instruction in the training of teachers of Civic Education in colleges and university are not succinct and are also greatly lacking
- Current approaches in the teaching and learning of Civic Education are not meeting the intended target of social change and transformation of society
- Teaching of Civic Education in schools is mainly done for examination purposes and not really to effect social change and transformation of society
- Teachers of Civic Education mainly use methodological practices that do not invoke critical thinking and reflection among the learners

The main finding with respect to teaching and learning materials: was that in the selected schools Civic Education materials were not readily available. The study also established that in some of the schools a small pocket of school administrators were proactive in the purchase of Civic Education materials whereas the majority were not proactive in this area.

The main finding with respect to the relevance of Civic Education: Civic Education was not always seen in the context of social change and transformation of society. The picture that came out on the question of relevance points to the fact that different views were projected. Thus on one hand some saw Civic Education as relevant while on the other hand some did not see it as relevant.

The main finding with respect to the content of Civic Education: teachers were not familiar or grounded in the key content areas of Civic Education. In other words, the teachers were not grounded in the theoretical, philosophical, pedagogical and epistemological perspectives that underpin the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools.

The main finding with respect to the influence of Civic Education in schools: Civic Education was not the only factor influencing learners, social change and transformation of society. There were other factors that did influence the learners such as the use of instructional methods and experiences of young people in the communities in which they live in.

The main findings with respect to the challenges of the teachers in Civic Education: Challenges range from conceptualization of Civic Education, teacher preparedness and training, pedagogical practices, teaching and learning resources and how they could influence social change among the learners and transformation of society at large.

The main findings with respect teachers' knowledge: the teachers of Civic Education in the selected schools had inadequate information and understanding on some critical aspects of Civic Education in terms of the philosophical, theoretical epistemological and pedagogical perspectives. The study noted also that teachers of Civic Education were greatly lacking in methodological strategies that promote effective teaching of Civic Education in schools due to poor training offered in colleges and at the university. This aspect was attributed to over-enrolment of students, lack of adequate teaching and learning materials, time and space.

The main findings with respect to teachers' views: the teachers in the selected schools of the study reflected mainly a traditional (minimalist view and not maximalist view) of Civic Education. The study further noted that their views were mainly on banking type of Civic Education.

The main findings with respect to self evaluation: was that teachers of Civic Education rarely carried out self evaluation reports to check on their level of competency and skills in the delivery of Civic Education in schools.

Other Findings of the study

Gender

The main finding after having done an independent sample *t* test on gender was that the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools was not in any way significantly different between males and females. In other words gender as a variable had no influence when it came to teaching Civic Education by both males and females.

Age

The main finding with respect to age as a variable was that young teachers in the school system were more likely to perform better than the old teachers due to their vibrancy and interest in searching for information from the internet and other e-sources as compared to the old teachers.

Post of the teacher

The main finding with respect to the position of the teacher as a variable was that the post of the teacher in the school had no influence when it came to the teaching of Civic Education. It did not matter whether one had a post or not, the teaching was done in a similar fashion.

Years of teaching experience

The main finding with respect to the years of experience as a variable was that to a greater extent experience had an influence on the teaching and learning of Civic Education in schools. Those with more years of experience in the service were more likely to teach consistently and diligently than those who less years of experience.

Teaching Loads and/or Periods per week

The main finding with respect to the teaching loads or number of periods was that those with more teaching periods were more likely to be affected in their teaching than those with less number of teaching periods.

Number of workshops and training attended

The main finding with respect to workshops and training attended as a variable was that in this particular case it did not affect or influence teaching in any way. It would appear that teachers of Civic Education did not attend workshops regularly in Civic Education but attended other workshops that were based on other related aspects of education.

Number of Teachers of Civic Education

The main finding with respect to the number of teachers of Civic Education per school as a variable was that it had no influence in the manner the teaching of Civic Education was executed in schools.

Locality

The main finding with respect to the locality of the school as a variable in this particular study was that locality of the school had no influence and this dispels long held and taken for granted positions that the locality of the school will always have an influence in the teaching and learning. The finding in this particular case proves such views otherwise.

6.3 Summary of the theoretical framework with implications to the study

Service learning is one such pedagogy that provides the means of translating education into action. It involves students and their instructors or teachers leaving the classroom and engaging with their communities in order to make learning come alive and to experience real-life connections between their education and everyday issues. The approach also encourages learners to learn how to work with others and also use knowledge and skills learnt from their academic disciplines and subjects in understanding, the underlying social, political and economic issues that contribute to community difficulties. Service learning is pedagogy of reflective inquiry linking students' involvement in community service with their intellectual and moral development. This kind of approach as and when used in the teaching and learning of Civic Education could work towards addressing issues of social change and transformation of society. This is because Civic Education as a subject stands out as one of the subjects that

could help the learners brings about social change and transformation of society. The teaching and learning of Civic Education deals with matters of social change and transformation in the community and things could be improved upon by those who have been exposed to Civic Education. As such service learning becomes an appropriate pedagogy that could be used in the teaching and learning of Civic Education. It builds stronger academic skills, encourages lifelong civic commitment and improves personal as well as communal development skills among the learners. Therefore seen in this context, indeed it is something that has a significant role to play especially in the context of the study under investigation because it links meaningful service experiences to daily classroom instruction and vice versa.

6.4 Research Recommendations

The following are the recommendations that this study is making:

- There will be need to apply service learning in the teaching and learning of Civic Education in Zambian schools if social change and transformation of society is to be realised.
- Training of teachers of Civic Education in colleges and university in Zambia will need to be configured to service learning approaches if these teachers are to be relevant in society.
- Teachers of Civic Education in Zambian schools will require retraining from time to time if there are to remain relevant and in tune with current and contemporary issues in society.
- Teaching and learning materials in Civic Education in Zambian schools will need to be written and revised from time to time in order to suit the current events at each particular time.
- Civic Education teaching in Zambian schools must be built on community engagement and community involvement if it is respond to the needs of society.

- Government of the Republic of Zambia must prioritise and make the teaching of Civic Education compulsory from Pre School to University level if we are see positive social change and transformation of society.
- Only qualified teachers of Civic Education in Zambian schools should be allowed to teach the subject and not anyone else.
- Government of the Republic of Zambia to strengthen quality assurance mechanisms on the teachers of Civic Education in schools

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Appendix 1: Consent Letters

TEACHERS QUESTIONNAIRE CONSENT LETTER

Dear Respondent,

I am a D ED (Socio-Education) student at the University of South Africa carrying out a research entitled: **The Teaching of Civic Education in Zambia: An Examination of trends in the Teaching of Civic Education in Schools.**

The data you supply will only be used for academic purposes and the information that you provide will not be divulged to anyone. Your participation in the study will be greatly appreciated. Participation in the survey is voluntarily. The information collected will be treated with confidentiality and anonymity is guaranteed.

I thank you in advance for your effort and cooperation.

Please sign here if you agree/disagree to participate in this research

Agree and Sign

.....

Date.....

Disagree and Sign

.....

Date.....

LECTURERS CONSENT LETTER

Dear Respondent,

I am a D ED (Socio-Education) student at the University of South Africa carrying out a research entitled: **The Teaching of Civic Education in Zambia: An Examination of trends in the Teaching of Civic Education in Schools.**

You have been identified as one of the participants to be interviewed in this study and your participation will be of help to the research.

Your participation will be highly appreciated. I thank you in advance for your effort and cooperation.

Please sign here if you agree/disagree to participate in this research

Agree and Sign

.....

Date.....

Disagree and Sign

.....

Date.....

MoE Officials CONSENT LETTER

Dear Respondent,

I am a D ED (Socio-Education) student at the University of South Africa carrying out a research entitled: **The Teaching of Civic Education in Zambia: An Examination of trends in the Teaching of Civic Education in Schools.**

You have been identified as one of the participants to be interviewed in this study and your participation will be of help to the research.

Your participation will be highly appreciated. I thank you in advance for your effort and cooperation.

Please sign here if you agree/disagree to participate in this research

Agree and Sign

.....

Date.....

Disagree and Sign

.....

Date.....

Appendix 2: Research Instruments

CIVIC EDUCATION LECTURERS – INTERVIEW GUIDE

Dear Respondent,

I am a D ED (Socio-Education) student at the University of South Africa carrying out a research entitled: **The Teaching of Civic Education in Zambia: An Examination of trends in the Teaching of Civic Education in Schools.**

You have been identified as one of the participants to be interviewed in this study and your participation will be of help to the research.

Your participation will be highly appreciated. I thank you in advance for your effort and cooperation.

Mr G Muleya - Student No: 36606049

Interview Guide for Lecturers teaching Civic Education Methods in Colleges and Universities

The purpose of this interview is to gather from Civic Education teachers on the teaching of Civic Education in Zambia. The data to be collected will only be used for academic purposes. Your confidentiality is highly guaranteed.

Section A: Biographic Data

1. Gender: Male [] Female []
2. Age:
3. Qualification:
4. Position /Designation:
5. Years of experience:

Section B: Questions on teaching of Civic Education in Colleges and Universities

1. Explain what is involved in the training of Civic Education teachers?
2. What are some of the instructional practices and principles around which Civic Education is organised?
3. What kind of curriculum is followed in the training is followed in the training of Civic Education teachers in the Colleges and Universities?
4. How responsive is the curricula to the needs of society and especially with regard to social change and transformation in society?
5. Is training of Civic Education based on exploring classroom and school-based pedagogical approaches that accommodate the complex learning goals or otherwise?
6. Does the training provide learners or students with school wide and /or community-based practices to be experienced in their community?
7. Does the training take into account shifts from traditional conceptions of citizenship of Citizenship Education to goals and practices that forefront transformation and social change in society?
8. What is the main focus of training in this area?
 - a. Is it on Education About Citizenship?
 - b. Is it on Education Through Citizenship?
 - c. Is it about Education for Citizenship?
9. Any other comments, observations and suggestions that may arise in the course of the interview

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION OFFICIALS – INTERVIEW GUIDE

Dear Respondent,

I am a D ED (Socio-Education) student at the University of South Africa carrying out a research entitled: **The Teaching of Civic Education in Zambia: An Examination of trends in the Teaching of Civic Education in Schools.**

You have been identified as one of the participants to be interviewed in this study and your participation will be of help to the research.

Your participation will be highly appreciated. I thank you in advance for your effort and cooperation.

Mr G Muleya - Student No: 36606049

Interview Guide for MoE officials and administrators

The purpose of this interview is to gather information from standards officers, administrators and curriculum subject specialists on the teaching of Civic Education in Zambia. The data to be collected will only be used for academic purposes. Your confidentiality is highly guaranteed.

Section A: Biographic Data

1. Gender: Male [] Female []
2. Age:
3. Qualification:
4. Position /Designation:
5. Years of experience:

Section B: Policy relevant questions on the organisation of Civic Education in the Zambian Education system

1. What is the current status of Civic Education in the Zambian education system?
2. Around what pedagogical and instruction principles is Civic Education organised in the Zambia education system?
3. To what extent is Civic Education in the Zambian school system intended to contribute to the transformation of society?
4. How is Civic Education in general and in specific terms responsive to social change and transformation of society?
5. To what extent is there consensus among all stakeholders that Civic Education creates spaces and opportunities for the students and learners to have open discussions during teaching and learning processes?
6. Any other suggestions, observations and comments from those being interviewed on the subject at hand

NB: any other questions that maybe deemed fit to the study will be factored in

CIVIC EDUCATION TEACHERS – INTERVIEW GUIDE

Dear Respondent,

I am a D ED (Socio-Education) student at the University of South Africa carrying out a research entitled: **The Teaching of Civic Education in Zambia: An Examination of trends in the Teaching of Civic Education in Schools.**

You have been identified as one of the participants to be interviewed in this study and your participation will be of help to the research.

Your participation will be highly appreciated. I thank you in advance for your effort and cooperation.

Mr G Muleya - Student No: 36606049

Interview Guide for Civic Education Teachers

The purpose of this interview is to gather from Civic Education teachers on the teaching of Civic Education in Zambia. The data to be collected will only be used for academic purposes. Your confidentiality is highly guaranteed.

Section A: Biographic Data

1. Gender: Male [] Female []
2. Age:
3. Qualification:
4. Position /Designation:
5. Years of experience:

Section B: Questions on teachers teaching Civic Education in schools

1. Briefly explain your understanding of Civic Education
2. How do teachers deal with Civic Education related issues in their teaching
3. Do they allow a climate of discussion and participation on some of the contentious issues raised during the process of teaching and learning in the classroom?
4. What sort of classroom practices do teachers encourage among their learners/students when teaching Civic Education
5. How the practices are mentioned above influence or affect the thinking of the students or learners over time?
6. How does Civic Education promote Civic Engagement among the learners?
7. How does Civic Education facilitate or impede transformation of society among the learners in schools?
8. To what extent do you see Civic education being responsive to the needs of society?
9. What would be your opinion/views on the current status of civic education in schools today
10. How well-trained are the teachers of Civic Education in relevant methodologies of delivering the in schools?
11. Are all the teachers teaching Civic Education trained?
12. How do teachers deal with different orientations of Civic Education in their teaching?

13. Do you see Civic Education as a subject that brings transformation in society?
14. How does Civic Education foster the awareness of the importance of responding to social change in society?
15. What challenges are faced in the teaching and learning of Civic Education in the school system
16. How the challenges addressed?
17. Any other suggestions, observations and comments deemed relevant in addressing the research problem

CIVIC EDUCATION TEACHERS QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear Respondent,

I am a D ED (Socio-Education) student at the University of South Africa carrying out a research entitled: **The Teaching of Civic Education in Zambia: An Examination of trends in the Teaching of Civic Education in Schools.**

The data you supply will only be used for academic purposes and the information that you provide will not be divulged to anyone. Your participation in the study will be greatly appreciated. Participation in the survey is voluntarily. The information collected will be treated with confidentiality and anonymity is guaranteed.

I thank you in advance for your effort and cooperation.

Mr G Muleya - Student No: 36606049

INSTRUCTIONS

1. Kindly respond to all questions.
2. The questionnaire consists of eleven sections. Please answer all the sections.
3. Please indicate your response with a "X" in the appropriate box.
4. Please select one option.

For official purposes

1	2	3

A SECTION A: BIOGRAPHICAL DATA

1	Gender	Female	1	male	2	4	<input type="checkbox"/>				
2	Age (years)	20 - 25	26 - 35	36 - 45	46 - 55	55 +	5	<input type="checkbox"/>			
		1	2	3	4	5					
3	Post level (Class Teacher =1; HOS = 2; HOD = 3; Senior Teacher = 4)	1	2	3	4	6	<input type="checkbox"/>				
4	Professional qualifications Please specify if marked Other : _____	Certificate	Diploma	Degree	Masters Degree	Other	7	<input type="checkbox"/>			
		1	2	3	4	5					
5	Teaching experience in teaching Civic Education	0 - 5 yrs	6 - 10 yrs	11 - 15 yrs	16 - 20 yrs	21 + yrs	8	<input type="checkbox"/>			
		1	2	3	4	5					
6	Work load (periods per week)	0 - 15	16 - 25	26 - 35	36 +	9	<input type="checkbox"/>				
		1	2	3	4						
7	Number of workshops/training attended in teaching Civic Education over the last three years	0	1	2	3	4 +	10	<input type="checkbox"/>			
8	Number of teachers teaching Civic Education	1 - 10	11 - 15	16 - 20	21 - 25	26 - 30	31 - 35	11	<input type="checkbox"/>		
		1	2	3	4	5	6				
		36 - 40	41 - 45	46 - 50	51 +						
		7	8	9	10						
9	School locality	T	O	W	T	O	R	C	O	12	<input type="checkbox"/>

		1	2	3	5

SECTION B: PEDAGOGICAL PRACTICE

Please evaluate your agreement on each of the following statements regarding the teaching of Civic Education in your school against the satisfaction level provided below
Satisfaction scale:

- 1 – SA – strongly agree
- 2 - A - agree
- 3 - N - neutral
- 4 - D - disagree
- 5 - SD strongly disagree

1. How is Civic Education taught in schools?

Give your view on each of the following statements:

In my school Civic Education is

		1	2	3	4	5	
1	Taught as an Independent subject						14
2	Taught using service learning approaches						15
3	Taught using minimal approaches						16
4	Taught using maximal approaches						17
5	Taught using ordinary and general approaches						18
6	Taught conservatively						19
7	Taught progressively						20
8	Taught to promote independent and critical minds						21
9	Taught for the purposes of transforming society						22
10	Taught for examinations purposes						23
							24

2 How relevant is Civic Education in schools?

In my school Civic Education ...

		1	2	3	4	5	
1	Promotes virtues of civic obligation, civic awareness, civic virtues and civic knowledge within the school						25
2	Makes learners responsible in the school						26
3	Is a catalyst for social change in society						27
4	Does not provide opportunities and possibilities for transformation of the school						28
5	Prepares learners to become active citizens						29
6	Contributes to the well-being and transformation of school						30
7	Is learning by doing than traditional teaching methods						31
8	Encourages real-life democratic practices within the school						32
9	Promotes community engagement activities						33
10	Promotes positive change of mindset						34

3 Teaching and learning materials in Civic Education

In my school ...

		1	2	3	4	5		
1	Readily available for all the students						35	
2	Not readily available for all the students						36	
3	Always in short supply						37	
4	Need to be re-stocked						38	
5	Outdated sources						39	
6	Latest sources						40	
7	E-Resources						41	
8	Does not help students in relating with their homes, community, culture and language						42	
9	Rarely address issues of social change						43	
10	Constantly reinforces the status quo						44	

4 How is the Civic Education curriculum organised

In my school...

		1	2	3	4	5		
1	Knowledge and conceptual understanding on current issues and the application						45	
2	Incorporates both minimal and maximal approaches						46	
3	Incorporates teachers civic professionalism						47	
4	Integrates a broader civic related focus reinforced by many aspects of classroom and school community life including greater participation of students in school governance						48	
5	Development of both civic knowledge and active citizenship in students						49	
6	Incorporates learning units that promote tolerance, respect, cooperation, open-mindedness, compassion, fairness, responsibility						50	
7	Incorporates a broader framework for implementing Civic Education						51	
8	Developing an analytical, innovative, creative constructive and mind						52	
9	Cherishing and safeguarding individual liberties and human rights						53	
10	Animated by a personally held set of civic, moral and spiritual values						54	

5 What is the impact of Civic Education

In my school...

		1	2	3	4	5		
1	Does not help students understand their multiple and complex identities						55	
2	Students develop the decision making and social action skills						56	
3	Fosters critical skills in students						57	
4	Develop democratic attitudes and perceptions						58	
5	Help teachers to improve intergroup relations, interactions and deliberations in school						59	
6	Fosters cooperation among students from diverse racial, ethnic and cultural groups						60	

7	Help students to acquire the knowledge, values and skills needed for transformation of society							61	
8	Increase student motivation, empathy and self esteem							62	
9	Students become transformative and deep citizens							63	
10	Challenges inequality and stratification within the large society							65	

6 Challenges of and/or in Civic Education

In my school...

		1	2	3	4	5			
1	Narrow conception of Civic Education							66	
2	Misunderstanding of Civic Education							67	
3	Helping students to develop commitments to the well being of society							68	
4	Developing in students a deep understanding of the need to take action on various societal issues							69	
5	Participating in ways that enhance social change and transformation of society							70	
6	Re-imagining students to be transformed and function in the 21 st century							71	
7	Getting students to acquire information, skills and values needed to change society							72	
8	Inadequate and qualified teachers of Civic Education							73	
9	Availability of the Civic Education syllabus							74	
10	Lack of connection between theory and practice							75	

SECTION C: TEACHER'S KNOWLEDGE ON CIVIC EDUCATION

		1	2	3	4	5			
1	Civic Education is a process of social initiation and induction							76	
2	Civic Education is a tool for social reproduction of the existing socio-economic order							77	
3	Civic Education is linked to Civic Republican political thought							78	
4	Civic Education and Citizenship Education are synonymous							79	
5	Civic Education is grounded in the practices, experiences and meanings articulated and acted upon by individuals and social groups							80	
6	Civic Education includes citizenship, civics, social sciences, social studies, moral education, life skills, studies of society and world studies							81	
7	Civic Education is linked to social change and transformation							82	
8	Civic Education reflects about community participation							83	
9	Civic Education dates back to ancient Greece							84	
10	Citizenship is a social construct to the emergence of Civic Education							85	

SECTION D: TEACHER'S VIEWS ON THE TEACHING OF CIVIC EDUCATION

		1	2	3	4	5	
1	Civic Education is informed by three major pedagogical strands such as education about citizenship, education through citizenship and education for citizenship						86
2	Not limited to instruction in schools but engagement with all that surrounds the individual						87
3	Places the learner at the centre of all activities of society						88
4	Gives the learner an opportunity to participate in the transformation of society						89
5	Civic Education has a clear vision directing its actions						90
6	An emphasis on objectives and teaching approaches stimulates social change and transformation of society.						91
7	Every teacher has a clear vision of Civic Education objectives.						92
8	Every Civic Education teacher knows exactly what they need to do.						93
9	Civic Education goals are usually formulated precisely and specifically.						94
10	Civic Education is better addressed through double consciousness, cross-cultural competencies and strategies for collective social action						95

SECTION E: TEACHERS' SELF EVALUATION?

Please rate the competencies/skills of the teachers by evaluating the following statements on their competence against the competency scale:

Competency scale:

- 1 – Very competent
- 2 - Competent
- 3 - Undecided
- 4 - Not really competent
- 5 - Not competent at all

		1	2	3	4	5	
1	Realising the benefits of using service learning						96
2	Promoting active learning and engagement in the school						97
3	Promoting participative leadership among the learners.						98
4	Creating effective opportunities for civic engagement.						99
5	Assisting learners to function at their best.						100
6	Managing their environment successfully						101
7	Getting involved in the affairs of the school						102
8	Identifying the right leadership in the school governance council.						103
9	Assigning tasks and responsibilities within themselves according to preferences of the school populace.						104
10	Community work amongst themselves.						105
11	Supporting the school to progress through the various phases						106
12	Having a clear vision of the direction to be taken						107
13	Keeping themselves focused on their roles and responsibilities						108
14	Improving teaching and learning through teamwork.						109

15	Forward looking							110	
16	Motivating.							111	
17	Inspiring participation by all the learners.							112	
18	Respecting and tolerating divergent views							113	
19	Managing group conflicts amicably							114	
20	Managing own feelings appropriately in the school settings							115	
21	Monitoring individual and group performance in the school							116	
22	Getting feedback amongst each other							117	
23	Critical thinking							118	
24	Keeping to agreed upon deadlines.							119	
25	Allowing creativity.							120	
25	Supporting individual creative team members.							121	
27	Social skills							122	
28	Civic values and virtues							123	

SECTION F: GENERAL

1 What challenges/problems have you experienced in teaching of Civic Education

2 In your opinion, how would you address challenges and problems experienced in the in teaching of Civic Education

3 For future training purposes, what aspects of Civic Education would you like to see included in a training programme?

--

Thank you

Appendix 3: Permission Letter

The Permanent Secretary
Ministry of Education Science Vocational Training and Early Education
P. O. Box 50093
Lusaka
20th December, 2013

Gistered Muleya (Mr.)
University of Zambia
School of Education
Department of Language and Social Sciences Education
P.O. Box 32379
Lusaka, Zambia

Dear Sir/Madam

RE: Permission to conduct and collect data for my studies from selected schools and institutions of Higher Learning

The subject above refers I am Gistered Muleya lecturer of Civic Education from the University of Zambia. I am currently reading for a D Ed in Socio Education with the University of South Africa. My study is focusing on the teaching of Civic Education in Zambia. The target population for my proposed study are teachers of Civic Education in some selected secondary schools in five provinces, lecturers of Civic Education in selected institutions of higher learning, Curriculum experts in Civic Education at the Curriculum Development Centre, ministry of education senior officials and selected head teachers. I am now in the process of collecting information for my study from the mentioned sample and therefore I am writing to seek for permission through your good office to allow me conduct and collect data from the mentioned schools and institutions under your jurisdiction for my studies in D Ed-Socio Education.

Looking forward to hearing from you. Thanking you in advance.

Yours Sincerely,



Gistered Muleya –Student No: 36606049



In reply please quote:

No.

REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA

MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND VOCATIONAL TRAINING

OFFICE OF THE PERMANENT SECRETARY
P.O. BOX 50093
LUSAKA

3rd January, 2014.

Dear Sir/Madam,

**RE: PERMISSION TO COLLECT DATA AND CONDUCT INTERVIEWS FOR D ED
IN SOCIO-EDUCATION IN SELECTED SCHOOLS, COLLEGES AND SENIOR
MINISTRY OFFICIALS**

The subject above refers.

The bearer of this letter is a lecturer of Civic Education at the University of Zambia in the School of Education, Department of language and Social Sciences Education.

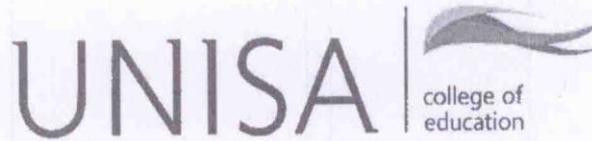
Currently, he is reading for his D ED in Socio-Education with a focus in the teaching of Civic Education with the University of South Africa.

Kindly assist him with the information he is looking for in his study.

Chishimba Nkossa
Permanent Secretary

**MINISTRY OF EDUCATION, SCIENCE, VOCATIONAL TRAINING AND EARLY
EDUCATION**

Appendix 4: Ethics Certificate



Research Ethics Clearance Certificate

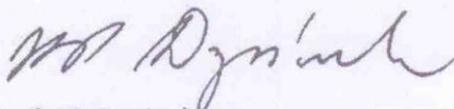
This is to certify that the application for ethical clearance submitted by

M Gistered [36606049]

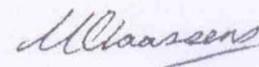
for a D Ed study entitled

**The teaching of Civic Education in Zambia: An examination of trends in the
teaching of Civic Education in schools**

has met the ethical requirements as specified by the University of South Africa
College of Education Research Ethics Committee. This certificate is valid for two
years from the date of issue.



Prof KP Dzvimbob
Executive Dean : CEDU



Dr M Claassens
CEDU REC (Chairperson)
mcdtc@netactive.co.za

Reference number: 2014 JULY /36606049/MC

16 JULY 2014