

THE ROLE OF TEACHERS IN THE EVOLUTION OF EDUCATIONAL POLICIES IN
ZAMBIA: THE CASE OF SELECTED SCHOOLS OF LUSAKA AND CENTRAL
PROVINCES

BY
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DECLARATION

I, Florence Nambela, do solemnly declare that this dissertation represents my own work, which has not been submitted for any degree at this or another university.

Signed: _____

Date: _____

APPROVAL

This Dissertation of Florence Nambela is approved in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the award of the Degree of Master of Education in Educational Administration of the University of Zambia.

Examiners' Signatures

SIGNED _____ DATE _____

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DEDICATION

Dedicated to my supportive dear old parents Mr. H. P. Sinkala and Mrs. Liness Nalwimba. Their eagerness of wanting to know if ever I will stop studying kept me going;

To my brothers and sister for looking up to me in leading the way in my academic achievements;

To my dear husband Dr P.C Chisale for being indeed my pillar;

To my two children, Lukwesa and Wankumbu, for their unwavering love and understanding; and

To my late sisters' children, Cheelo, Michelo and Lwando, for their perseverance.

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ABSTRACT

The role of teachers in the evolution of educational policies in Zambia was investigated in selected schools of Lusaka and Central Provinces. Stratified random sampling was used to select four high and three basic schools of Lusaka and Kabwe towns respectively. Questionnaires, semi-structured interviews, and documentary analysis were used to collect both quantitative and qualitative data.

Quantitative data were analyzed using programmed Excel spread sheets to generate frequency tables, and percentages. Data collected from qualitative questions and interviews were analyzed and coded according to emerging themes using the comparative approach. The frequencies, tables, percentages and common themes obtained were used to establish the role of teachers in the evolution of educational policies in Zambia.

Almost all teachers graduated from Government Universities and Colleges. However; the majority of them were not conversant with the educational policy documents and their intended purposes. Most teachers, therefore, felt disgruntled with some educational policies so far formulated and described them as mere rhetoric, ambitious and chaotic.

A number of teachers were directly engaged in several business activities that split their attention between survival and professional core activities. Engaging in business activities compromised teachers' ability to deliver quality education effectively.

At school level, the channels of communicating policy measures were robust and effective at most spans of control. However, authorities seemed to practice a classical management style and created impediments manifested in form of bureaucracy by unjustified refusal to release policy information.

The distortions in impact of policies presupposed that several factors led to the discrepancies in terms of incomplete design and implementation.

Successive Zambian Governments have had different motives and motivations in the context of initial social economic conditions; and the political environment for undertaking educational policy reforms. Therefore, educational policy reforms in Zambia had been punctuated by spells of progress and frequent setbacks.

The overall conclusion was that teachers and school managers as key players in the implementation of policies in the education sector marginally participated in the policy making process. Teachers felt that the Ministry of Education Officials should play a facilitating role and let teachers and their Union representatives take part in the policy making process.

ACRONYMS

BESSIP	<i>Basic Education Sub Sector Investment Programme</i>
BETUZ	<i>Basic Education Teachers' Union of Zambia</i>
BSAC	<i>British South African Company</i>
DEBS	<i>District Education Board Secretary</i>
EFATF	<i>Education for All Task Force</i>
FNDP	<i>Fifth National Development Plan</i>
IMF	<i>International Monetary Fund</i>
JCTR	<i>Jesuit Center for Theological Reflection</i>
MMD	<i>Movement for Multiparty Democracy</i>
MoE	<i>The Ministry of Education</i>
PEO	<i>Provincial Education Officer</i>
PTA	<i>Parent-Teacher Association</i>
UN	<i>The United Nations</i>
UNIP	<i>United National Independence Party</i>
USA	<i>The United States of America</i>
VSO	<i>Voluntary Services Overseas</i>
WCEFA	<i>World Conference on Education for All</i>
ZAGT	<i>Zambia Association of Geography Teachers</i>
ZANTEIMESE	<i>Zambian Network of Teacher Education Institutions Main Training Environmental and Sustainability Education</i>
ZNUT	<i>Zambia National Unions of Teachers</i>

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Problem

Western education in Zambia can be traced to the early missionary settlements scattered around the then Northern Rhodesia. The earliest among them were at Sefula, Western Province -1887, established by the Paris Evangelical Mission and Mbereshi, Luapula Province-1900, established by the London Missionary Society (MoE, 2005).

The evolution of educational policies in Zambia may be classified into three periods: The colonial era from 1924 to 1963, the period of the first and second Republics 1964 to 1990, and the period from 1991 to the present, when the political governance system in Zambia reverted to multiparty democratic system in Zambia (MoE, 2005).

In the colonial era, under British South Africa (BSAC) Company's rule, there was no coherent or constructive policy towards education for the 30 years that BSAC ruled Northern Rhodesia. Snelson (1974) notes that constructive policy formulation in education in the colonial period started in 1924 when the colonial office established an Advisory Committee on Education for British Africa. The task of the Advisory Committee was primarily to formulate an educational policy for all British Colonies in Tropical Africa and to design programs and implement models for Native Education. In the same year, 1924, when the committee was formed it dispatched the Phelps-Stokes Commission to carry out an evaluation of educational needs in Northern Rhodesia and formulate a policy. Consequently, in 1925, the first constructive policy of native education was formulated (Snelson; 1974). Through the use of policy, the Colonial Government was able to unify and coordinate the haphazard mission education systems in Northern Rhodesia, undertaken by competing denominations, which characterized the pre-1925 period.

During the second era, particularly at independence, the task of the Zambian government was to dismantle the racist system of education that existed prior to 1964 and develop a system that would provide equal opportunities for all regardless of race, tribe or religious affiliation (MoE, 2005). In order to realize these policy issues Government decided to take centre stage in the management of the education system. School fees were abolished but statutory fees were allowed. However, Kelly (1991) and MoE (2005) observe that with the deteriorating economy, the need to involve parents in contributing to their children's education became apparent. This brought about the creation

of Parent Teacher Associations (PTA) in 1976 which introduced PTA funds meant for school supplies and special projects.

As challenges to increase access and provide quality education continued to grow, the Government embarked on the first ever major educational policy reforms in 1977. The Educational Reforms of 1977 emphasized integrating study with work, stressing equal balance between education and production, diversifying the curriculum, providing a ten year basic education and giving only a limited opportunity to private involvement in the provision of education (Subulwa, 2004). However, the 1977 Education Reforms could not be implemented in full due to a number of factors; prominent among them were economic constraints.

During the third era which started in 1991, there was a shift to multiparty political governance in Zambia. This shift necessitated changes in the national educational policy. In the preceding year, 1990, Zambia had participated in the World Conference on Education for All (WCEFA) in Jomtien-Thailand, and subsequently established her own **Education For All Task Force (EFATF)**. The EFATF was specifically tasked to promote achievement of universal quality primary education and a significant reduction in adult illiteracy especially among women. This followed the decline, prior to 1991, in enrolment and completion rates that had increased over the period since independence and stagnation of school places against a rapidly increasing population. To respond to these challenges, in 1992, the government put in place a second national education policy, **Focus On Learning**. The policy emphasized the core issue of resource mobilization to support educational provision. The third major national education policy, **Educating Our Future**, was launched in 1996. The policy was basically addressing issues of education delivery in an environment of a liberalized economy and democratized political governance system. **Educating Our Future** was based on the principle of liberalization, decentralization, curriculum relevance and diversification, efficient and cost effective management, capacity building, cost sharing, partnerships, access; equity and quality education (MoE, 1996). **Educating Our Future** was aimed at bringing a lot of changes in the education system.

It is important to realize that no educational reforms can be effective without the agreement and active partnerships with teachers who ultimately will be responsible for implementation. This is because teachers have far reaching knowledge and experience of the situational and even daily needs of an educational institution, that government should take advantage of. Moreover, teachers are both the recipients and deliverers of change and, therefore, are better placed and informed than other stakeholders about what does and does not work in education policy.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

Teachers are by no means satisfied with the current arrangement of the policy process whereby most of the times they are sidelined. Grant (1978) observes that teachers possess few sources of power found in other professions. Teachers, as well as police officers, welfare workers, legal assistants, health workers and other public employees have many of the characteristics of street-level bureaucrats. These individuals normally are at the lowest of the hierarchy and in direct contact with clients or the public. Typically, they are overworked, underpaid, assigned responsibilities that affect the lives of those with whom they deal with, and are provided with inadequate resources for their jobs. Teachers are asked to follow many directives some of these conflicting with each other.

1.3 Objectives of the Study

- a) To establish to what extent teachers were involved in educational policy making.
- b) To find out the roles teachers played in educational policy making.
- c) To establish the difficulties teachers faced during policy implementation.
- d) To find out who took the leading role in educational policy making.

1.4 Research Questions

- a) How are teachers involved in the policy making process?
- b) What are the roles of teachers in the policy making process?
- c) What difficulties do teachers face during policy implementation?
- d) Who are the leaders in the policy making process?

1.5 Purpose of the Study

The purpose of the study was to establish the roles teachers and their union representatives played in the evolution of educational policies in Zambia. The focus of the study was on the three major educational policy documents formulated since independence, namely: **Educational Reforms of 1977**, **Focus on Learning of 1992** and **Educating Our Future of 1996**.

1.6 Significance of the Study

The findings of the study would be helpful, in general, to the Ministry of Education in particular, and other key stakeholders in charge of policy making. The findings would provided the basis for coming up with ways and means of involving teachers and their union representatives in the policy making process. The involvement of teachers in the policy making process would make policy makers adequately benefit from teachers' contributions thus creating a sense of policy authorship among teachers and consequently

enhance the quality of education delivery in Zambian schools. This study is also intended to bring to the fore facts that were not taken into account during the policy making process and identify bottlenecks that were encountered during policy implementation, monitoring and evaluation. In the same vein, the impacts that the past education policies have had on the present would be identified in order to give better perspectives to the current events in the educational sector.

1.7 Delimitations

This study should have been extended to the rural schools of Lusaka and Central Provinces but was only limited to selected Lusaka and Central Provinces urban schools due to time factor and inadequate funds

1.8 Limitations

Considering that this study was centered on the involvement of teachers in the policy making process, some teachers might have not given the correct information. They might have been inhibited to give the correct information because the questionnaires were distributed by School managers or their deputies fearing their answers could be read by their superiors thereby knowing who had written what. However, the teachers were earlier assured that the outcome of the study was purely for academic purposes. Therefore, all the information provided in the questionnaire would be treated as confidential.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Overview

The review of related literature begins with what policy is; policy formulation and policy –making; types of policies and approaches to policy-making; role players and factors in policy formulation; policy analysis; planning policy implementation; and the role of teachers and teacher unions in policy-making.

The concept of policy is not a precise term. Policy denotes among other elements, guidance for action. It may take the form of a declaration of goals, a declaration of general purpose and an authoritative decision. Therefore, there is no single definition of policy which is universally accepted. Ranney (1968:7) defines policy as “a declaration and implementation of intent”. Hanekom (1987) also describes policy as making known, the formal articulation, the declaration of intent or the publication of a goal to be pursued. Whereas Peters (1993:4) defines policy as “the sum of government activities, whether they are undertaken officially or through agents to influence the lives of citizens”, Bates & Eldredge (1980:12) define policy as “...a statement that provides a guide for decision - making by members of the organization charged with the responsibility of operating the organization as a system”. Theodoulou & Cahn (1995) note that policy is what the government says and does about perceived public problems.

In analyzing the definitions of what policy is Mokhaba (2005), using Ranney's (1968) definition of policy, implies that consensus has been reached as to what should be done for society. The statement of Hanekom (1987) would mean that government must put in writing its aim in a particular matter. Not only should the aim be stated, but the process or processes to be followed to achieve the stated objective should be clearly spelt out. The definition, by Peters (1993), entails that government should apply its mind to problems that face society and formulate appropriate steps that will remedy the situation. Actions that are taken should aim at improving the living conditions of citizens.

A policy, then, could be defined as a purposeful intentional and goal – directed statement by a government or one or more of its institutions to attain one or more specific objectives.

2.2 Policy Formulation and Policy - making

Policy making is the identification of activities to be undertaken to solve a public problem. Peters (1993) states that government has to accept that the identification of a public problem is essential for preparation of its agenda for policy – making. Thereafter it has to decide what is to be done with each identified problem. He further writes that this stage of policy – making could be called policy formulation. During the policy formulation phase pertinent and acceptable proposed courses of action are developed to deal with the problem.

In the policy formulation phase various alternatives to address the specific problem should be assessed in terms of their benefits, costs, implications, and feasibility. Thus, policy formulation refers to the process followed which culminates in stating a policy. The following should be considered during policy formulation: Establishment of the context - What is the issue? What is the environmental paradigm that is relevant to the issue? What categories of population are affected by the issue? What are the political interests involved? How does the issue fit into the cultural framework of the society? Are there conflicting goals and if so, what are they? Are there current networks involved in the policy discussions? Who has primary control of an acceptable solution? (Bouser, Mc Gregor & Osten; 1996). These questions are necessary as they provide the context of the educational policies. In turn the questions lead to in-depth understanding of the purpose of policies.

Policy formulation, according to Bates and Eldredge (1980), can originate from anywhere in an institution. One of the primary criteria to test the need for a policy is that it should cover a recurring or repetitive condition.

The following steps for policy formulation have been identified by Bates and Eldredge (1980):

- a) A draft of a new or revised policy may originate from anywhere in the institution,
- b) the draft policy is evaluated by Supervisory institutions and functionaries in relation to strategy, objectives and existing policies,
- c) to determine its applicability the draft policy should be discussed with the originator and other relevant functionaries,
- d) thereafter the draft policy is routed to the appropriate supervisors for approval, and
- e) If approved, the policy is incorporated in the policy manual, if rejected, it is returned to the originator with the reasons for its rejection (Bates and Eldredge, 1980:201).

Policies may also originate as a result of an arbitrary pronouncement of an individual. This is known as policy by fiat. The major disadvantage of such a pronounced policy, according to Mokhaba (2005), is that it may lead to frustration because subordinates could not go to the source of a policy to obtain definition and clarification of its existence and purpose.

Since policies are formulated for different purposes and in different ways, they may be classified by types.

2.3 Types of Policies and Approaches to Policy-Making

There are three things to note about the concept of policy. Firstly, policies are not always stated. Sometimes they are written down or are clearly identifiable in documents. Inaction or consistent decision not to act may also imply a policy. Secondly, many policies may be prescription and thus subject to different interpretation (Grant, 1978). Thirdly, many scholars find it useful to categorize policy by levels or types. One simple distinction is between general or basic policy, and administrative policy. General policy is overarching and indicates a great deal of goal-relatedness. It usually has broad applicability to the entire organization and little in the way of specification as to actions. Administrative policy, on the other hand, is generally much more detailed and is concerned about what is done, where and by whom.

Policies, however, differ in terms of their scope, complexity, decision environment, range of choices and decision criteria.

Issue-specific policies: These are short-term decisions involving day to day management of a particular issue. For instance, When basic education is universalized (i.e. grade 1-9) what should be the core curriculum in basic schools? Subulwa (2004) writes that directives from MoE, particularly those directed towards the implementation of broad policy positions, fall in this category. For example the MoE circular to PEOs in 1998, instructing them to allow girls who became pregnant to go back to school after delivery was under issue – specific policies.

Multi-programme policies: These policies deal with competing programme areas in terms of choosing priorities. For example: how should we allocate public resources between Basic and High school education? For instance, Kelly (1999) observes that at the moment donor attention and government priority was in favor of revamping basic education at the expense of high school and tertiary education.

Programme directed policies: These policies are confined to a programme in a single area of the education system. For example: how to improve administration and managerial capacity in basic schools which was the focus of the training programme under BESSIP (Subulwa, 2004).

Large scale or strategic policies: These policies are concerned with broad resource allocations or issues of a strategic nature to a country or section of the education system. For example, the universalization of basic education from Grades 1-9, is an issue of a strategic nature to a country. This is because of the large financial resource allocations and equity considerations associated with such policies if adopted suggests (Subulwa, 2004). He further goes on to say that the broader the scope of a policy, the more problematic it becomes.

Mokhaba (2005) citing Turton & Bernhardt (1998) distinguishes approaches to policy-making as:

Rational approach: Also called the linear or mainstream model, is the most widely-held view of the way policy is made. It outlines policy-making as a problem solving process which is rational, balanced, objective and analytical. In this model, decisions are made in a series of sequential phases, starting with the identification of a problem or issue and ending with a set of activities to solve or deal with the issue. This model assumes that policy makers approach the issues rationally, going through each logical stage of the process, and carefully considering all relevant information. If policies do not achieve what they are intended to achieve, the blame is often not laid on the policy itself, but rather on political or managerial failure during policy implementation asserts (Lindblom, 1968).

The rational approach has serious limitations and weaknesses. Many argue that in reality a great deal of policy making does not fit this pattern. The model assumes that policy is the product of one mind, which often is not the case. The rational approach fails to evoke or suggest the distinctively political aspects of policy-making, its disorder and the consequent strikingly different ways in which policies emerge as Lindblom (1968:4) points out:

“A policy is sometimes the outcome of a political compromise among policy makers, none of whom had in mind quite the problem to which the agreed policy is a solution. Sometimes policies spring from new opportunities, not decided upon but nevertheless happen.”

In addition, the rational approach assumes a degree of perfection which policy-makers seldom achieve. The Criticisms leveled against the weakness of the

rational approach led to the development of an alternative approach which was premised on the assumption of incrementality.

The incrementalist model: This is where policy makers look at a small number of alternatives for dealing with a problem and tend to choose options that differ only marginally from existing policy. In this model, there is no optimal policy decision. It is considered that a good policy is one that all participants agree on rather than what is best to solve a problem. Incremental policy-making is essentially remedial; it focuses on small changes to existing policies than drastic fundamental changes. Policy-making in this approach is also serial in the sense that as mistakes become apparent the problems have to be revisited and corrected and new approaches to the issues are developed. Policy is not made once and for all, it is remade endlessly.

The weakness of the incremental model is its inability to account satisfactorily for fundamental changes and for the fact that sometimes policy-makers behave in non-incremental manner (sometimes they behave as if they are dealing with radically different alternatives). It further has limitations in that as new decisions are built on the base of old programmes the decisions will probably go wrong if the base itself is misdirected states (Lindblom, 1968).

The political interest group theory: This theory stresses the importance of external pressure from interest groups or pressure groups. David Truman, one of the major theorists in this tradition, has emphasized that society is composed of multiplicity of competing groups and that it is impossible to explain policies without taking these into account. According to Truman (1995) groups make demands concerning particular policies according to three main clusters of variables; that is: The internal characteristic of each group, the relative strategic position in society of each group and the characteristic of government or governance procedures. The political Interest group theory has limitations. In the more extreme form it tends to see policy simply as the result of group conflict and compromise. In addition, there is a tendency to play down the importance of the role of individuals and of organizational factors and environmental conditions, and the stress on conflict tends to mean neglect of elements of consensus and integration.

The Bargaining approach: This approach has been described as one in which policy reforms are presented as reasoned arguments. Policy is developed through debate between state and societal actors. Participants present claims and justifications which others review critically. In this approach language not only depicts reality in such arguments, but also shapes the issues at hand in the debates. Because of the controversial nature of much of the

education policy-making process, bargaining models have clear application. The model could be adapted to provide a basis for studying bargaining between government agencies and officials.

The political system approach: Pioneered in political science by David Easton, this is another model or approach. This approach is rooted in a criticism of development of policy as being top-down, not generated from the communities in which policies are implemented. It argues for “actor-perspective”, emphasizing the need to take into account the opinion of individuals, agencies and social groups that have a stake in how a system evolves. This approach promotes an interaction and sharing of ideas between those who make policy and those who are influenced most directly by the outcome. As a model, it is based on the assumption that political activities and behavior in a society or part of it are interrelated, and that disturbances in one part inevitably affect others. The political system approach is useful in that it avoids the necessity of concentrating attention exclusively on interest groups, or on official structures and actors.

Another very different approach to policy-making is that of Theodore Lowi, a scholar in the field of public administration. Lowi (1970) assumes that policies determine politics, and that different kinds of policies may be associated with quite distinctive political processes. Thus, his examination of policy formulation begins with an analysis of the different outputs of government policy, and then attempts to establish systematic relationships between those outputs and differences in the processes from which they evolved.

Lowi (1970) distinguishes four basic types of policy output as: distributive, redistributive, regulative and constituent. He states that the political and, hence, policy characteristics of each are differentiated by different degrees of directness or indirectness in the application of legitimate coercion, and by the size of the unit (ranging from individuals to groups and to classes) to which the legitimate coercion is applied.

2.4 Role Players and Factors in Policy Formulation

On account of the fact that policies affect the whole spectrum of the community, people from different walks of life should and could contribute to policy formulation. Many individuals and groups take part in policy formulation. Some are more important participants in this respect than others.

The following institutions and factors influence policy formulation: Public bureaucrats, think tanks, interest groups, members of legislative bodies,

circumstances of the environment, needs and expectations of the society and political parties.

The public bureaucrats: The public bureaucrats (i.e. appointed government officials) are responsible for translating lofty aspirations of political leaders into attainable concrete proposals. That is, government bureaucracies are central to policy formulation as Mokhaba (2005) quoting Cloete (1998) points out that those political executive office-bearers are well placed to influence the policies of the institutions entrusted to them. These office-bearers have at their disposal expert officials to advise them. In addition, these office-bearers are leaders in the legislative institutions which have a final say in policy matters.

Think tanks and shadow cabinets: Significant sources of policy formulation are “think tanks”. These institutions usually consist of professional policy analysts and policy formulators who usually work on contract for a client. The “think-tanks” tend to be more creative and innovative than public institutions. A “think tank” could be requested by a public institution to solve a specific problem. Reports produced by a think tank have an element of respectability attached to it as they are produced by one or more experts. These “think tanks” have an inherent weakness in that the experts who constitute them have an unfortunate tendency to tell their clients what they want to hear.

Interest groups: These could also influence policy formulation. Numerous associations have been created by members of the public with interests. These groups from time to time approach government on policy matters, either to propose a new policy or an amendment of an existing policy or the scrapping of an unfavorable policy. The aim of the interest groups is to secure tangible benefits for their members through policy adaptations. In particular instances interest groups are represented in policy formulating bodies where their vote could count. This representation enables them to be a force to be reckoned with because they are in a position to bring pressure to bear on legislators.

Interest groups participate in policy formulation by identifying public problems. It is up to decision makers to accept or reject policy proposals of interest groups. In general, policy choices advocated by interest groups tend to be conservative, incremental, rarely produce sweeping changes, and serve self interest. A case in point is the educational reforms of 1977 where the elites whose conservative orientation dictated a gradualist approach to educational reform and implementation. This observation suggests that elite and incremental models of policy – making are particularly relevant to the understanding of some general causes and consequences of policy-making in developing countries. These groups broaden the range of interests

represented in the policy-making. They provided a balance to the policy process and provide a strong voice for reform and change.

Members of legislatures: Members of legislature are significant functionaries in policy formulation. A number of them involve themselves in serious policy formulation activities. Just like interest groups, parliamentarians have interest in reform rather than in incremental changes. They use formulation and advocacy as means of furthering their careers by adopting roles as national policy makers instead of emphasizing constituency service.

Circumstances or the environment: Circumstances refer to the environment as a whole in which the government operates. The environment includes the state of community life with respect to economic, technological and social matters. Dry climatic conditions and land that is not arable have necessitated the formulation of policy with respect to conservation of water and forestry. Other factors that influence policy on the state of community life are: technological developments, expectations of society, population increase and urbanization, crises, natural disasters, War and depression, international treaties and economic and industrial development (Cloete, 1998).

Policies of political parties: Both in democratic countries and one-party state the leaders of political parties govern. The ways in which they govern their countries are based on their policies. It therefore, follows that when a new political party wins an election and thus comes into power, it could introduce policy change. Other matters which could change when a new political party takes over the government are priorities.

2.5 Policy Analysis

Policy analysis covers the pre-decision activities, the decision process itself, and the post-decision planning activities. Policy analysis, therefore, includes the entire range of activities through which policy is developed and implemented (Mokhaba, 2005). The framework consists of seven policy-planning processes, the first four deal with policy making, the fifth deals with planning, the sixth and seventh deal with policy adjustment. These are as follows:

- a) Analysis of the existing situation;
- b) The generation of policy options;
- c) The evaluation of policy options;
- d) Making the policy decision;
- e) Planning of policy implementation;
- f) Policy impact assessment; and
- g) Subsequent policy cycles (Haddard & Demsky, 1994).

Analysis of the existing situation: A policy change is normally a response to a problem or a set of problems in the sector, and must, therefore, start with an appreciation of the education sector and its context. In addition to the analysis of the sector itself, policy analysis should consider a number of aspects of social context including political, economic, demographic and cultural issues which are likely to affect the decision making and even implementation processes (Haddad & Demsky, 1994).

Country background: The general character of a country that is, location, geography, population, culture and social stratification patterns has obvious implications for education policy analysis. This makes the process of educational policy making more difficult in a number of ways. Typically different groups have different values about the role of education. In so far as education represents access to economic and political power, then different access or interest in education also mean differential access to power where the distribution of access to goods and services has become increasingly unequal.

Political context: Analysis of the political environment is necessary for the understanding of the national decision-making process, the comparative value of education, and the role that education must play in the socio-political process. Haddad & Demsky (1994) observe that it is worth distinguishing between the priorities of the national elite relative to education.

Economic context: In this area, the analyst wants to understand the present macro-economic situation in general and the human resources situation in particular. First variables such as demographic shifts, urbanization and migration, coupled with the likely growth in various sectors of the economy, will have a significant impact on labor markets and consequently on needs for education and skills training. Second, the level of economic development will set enormous constraints on the capacity of the educational system to build schools and to expand. Third, the economic growth rate is important not only for estimating the likely need for certain kinds of skills but also for estimating the future amounts of slack resources. This is necessary because, as the rate of growth increases, more funds are often made available to education, by the same measure, if it decreases, allocation to education is among the first to be cut.

Education sector: The Education sector analysis starts with identification and understanding of the major sectoral issues relevant to the country. These issues may be explored under six categories: access to educational services, structure of the education system, internal efficiency, external efficiency and institutional arrangements for the management of the sector. An analysis of the above issues should take into consideration their evolutionary nature: how

have issues in the development of the educational system changed over time? The meeting of one educational need or solution of one problem frequently creates another state (Haddard and Demsky, 1994) and the case in point is how the expansion of the education system and the provision of new facilities naturally led to a compromised quality education provision and lack of capacity of the educational administration to handle a large educational system.

A historical and evolutionary perspective on the dynamics of policies across time allows the analyst a better sense of why a particular policy is being advocated at the moment. By studying the past, one also learns the likely speed with which educational policies can be implemented. An assessment of the present situation cannot be complete without evaluating the forces for or against change. In the event that policy changes need to be made such an assessment has an implication for the chances of success of different types of policies and strategies that must be employed to promote and implement such policies.

2.6 Generating Policy Options

New policies are usually generated when the present situation of the sector and its context is perturbed by a problem, a political decision or a re-organization scheme (Overall national planning). Policy options can be generated in several different ways to accommodate the disequilibrium. For analytical purposes one can group these processes under the following four modes: Systemic, incremental, adhoc and importation. In concrete situations, though, several of these modes maybe combined (Haddard & Demsky, 1994).

2.7 Evaluation of Policy Options

Policy options can be evaluated only if alternative scenarios are developed to allow estimations of the likely implications of the options considered. The imaginary situation that would be created if a policy option were implemented is compared with the present situation, and the scenario of transition from the existing to the imaginary case is evaluated in terms of: desirability, affordability and feasibility (Haddad & Demsky, 1994).

Desirability: Desirability involves three dimensions:

- a) The impact of the option on the various interest groups or stakeholders, who would benefit? Who might feel threatened? How might the potential losers be compensated? What would make the option desirable to all stakeholders?
- b) Compatibility with the dominant ideology and targets of economic growth articulated in development plans and,
- c) In some cases, the impact of a policy option on political development and stability.

Affordability: The fiscal costs of the change as well as the social and political costs need to be evaluated. This is especially important because educational expenditures are more vulnerable to changes in economic situations and political objectives than some other kinds of public expenditures. Therefore, alternative economic scenarios need to be considered. Further, Private costs [will a reform require consumers to share the costs? and if so, what happens to the poorer groups?]; Opportunity cost [are there other measures which might benefit the education system, but would have to be forgone to pay for the current proposal?]; What are the political costs [if an option favors one group over another; is the government willing to pay the political costs?] (Haddard & Demsky, 1994).

Feasibility: A very different kind of implication is the availability of human resources for implementing the change. The more difficult is the estimate of what level of training is required of teachers (the more sophisticated the programme and/or technology involved, the more highly trained the personnel need to be) and whether there are enough personnel to implement the policy option.

Another element to observe is time. Most studies of education projects indicate that there are frequent time overruns in implementation. More realistic estimates of time need to be made and can only be done by the careful assessment of the implementation capabilities and experiences. The issue of sustainability should fare prominently when the above criteria are applied. Education initiatives have to be sustained politically and financially over a lengthy period of time to reach fruition.

2.8 Planning Policy Implementation

Once a policy has been chosen, planning for policy implementation should begin immediately. What was abstract during the evaluation stage begins to become concrete during implementation. Policy implementation encompasses actions by public and private groups that effect the achievement of objectives set forth in policy decisions (Van Melter & Van Horn, 1977).

Policies which have less problematic features have a great possibility for successful implementation than the policy having more problematic features. Policy implementation does not only or mainly depend on distribution of the political power in a society.

The resources available to policy actors are not uniform in all societies. Most of the public policy analysts argue that the success or failure of the policy implementation largely depends on the policy's content and context. The crucial role for implementation analysts is to identify the factors that affect the

achievement of policy objectives and these are: resources, policy standards and objectives, communication, characteristic of the implementing agencies, political environment, and economic, social and cultural conditions.

Resources may include funds or other incentives in the program that might encourage or facilitate effective implementation. Funds and incentives are usually not adequate, a cause often cited for the failure of implementation efforts. Cleaves (1980) states that because of the few resources for execution many policies formulated in the Third World countries are highly problematic to implement. Resource availability is important for two reasons: First, Policies sometimes make demands on implementers that simply cannot be met without further infusion of money, skilled personnel, or other resources. Second, even where allocations are not absolutely necessary for effective implementation, the provision of additional resources can lessen the burdens on implementing agencies.

Standards and objectives elaborate on the overall goals of the policy decision. The profile of policy standards and objectives can be utilized to assess the quality, clarity consistency and accuracy of national level direction. If the policy standards when viewed longitudinally are inconsistent, confusing, unclear and inaccurate, then they will create problems that will seep into the policy delivery system state Van Horn & Van Meter (1977). So if policies are to be implemented, as intended by the policy makers, then the goals must be clear and understandable to the implementers.

The political environment of implementing agencies affects the nature of policy performance and implementation. The extent of support for or opposition to the policy objectives by organizational superiors, public and private individuals, and groups influence implementation efforts and results, regardless of the positions of the implementers or the quality of the agency executing the program.

Cultural norms may also affect the implementation of a particular policy. Cultural dimension pertains to society in which certain norms are distinct and clearly affect the implementation of government policy.

2.9 Policy Impact Assessment

Once the policy has been in place long enough to produce results, a policy assessment can take place. To carry this out, it is necessary to have some sense of how long it should take for the policy, once implemented, to take hold. Haddad & Demsky (1994) concur with Kremer (1990) and observe that while policy output measurement can be carried out on a continual basis,

premature attempts at assessment can mis-state the effectiveness of the policy. Furthermore, it is preferable to delay final assessment until a number of cycles have transpired to separate the effect of the contents of the policy change from the excitement which often accompanies implementing a new initiative for the first time. On the other hand, the sooner accurate assessment initiatives take place, the sooner policy-makers can know if their initiatives are working as anticipated or if adjustments in policy design or implementation are required.

If assessment reveals that the policy outcome is lacking, it is necessary to determine whether the policy itself is inadequate, or whether poor implementation is at fault. Human capital inadequacies, under-funding, or inadequate economic stimulus during the implementation stage are the many possible causes of failure of a well designed policy. Kremer (1990) again points out that if assessment reveals deficiencies in outcomes and if implementation can be shown to have been well done, then it is necessary to re-examine the policy decision and to determine what adjustments or what new policies should be substituted for the original choice. Once this is done, then one moves again to the planning and implementation stages given the rapid pace of contemporary change and their intimate links between the educational system and the rest of society even successfully conceived and implemented initiatives require adjustments over time.

2.10 The Role of Teachers and Teacher Unions in Policy Making

To transform schools and the school systems, it is essential to change the strategy and modify traditional ways of thinking and carrying out reforms and innovations. VSO (2007) observes that in order to respond to this new demand teachers' status in society should seriously be taken into account.

In schools, head-teachers, managers and inspectors often ignore teacher's views; instead they hand down orders and instructions of how to implement certain policies. At national level, teachers' representatives are often denied a place at the policy formulation stage by governments and donors alike. Government tend to come up with education policies by employing expensive consultants or by following the advice of the IMF, World Bank, UN agencies and other cooperating partners, since they are the major financiers of most reforms.

According to VSO (2002) despite commitments made at the World Conference Forum at Dakar in 2000, themed ***Making Education For All a Reality*** consultation for including the voices of teachers through their union

representatives and through civil society coalitions remained extremely weak or nonexistent in many countries.

In India researchers at the University of Edinburgh concluded that lack of consultation led to failure of India's "Operation Blackboard", a government programme that aimed to ensure that all schools had at least two rooms and two teachers, and that all teachers had a package of essential teaching aids. However, the programme fell apart because of failure to consult teachers or representatives at the planning stage (VSO, 2002).

Poor or nonexistent management training of managers has led to ineffective implementation of national policies and misapplication of resources. In Ghana teachers are often promoted to managerial posts on the basis of age and length of service rather than on merit. In the more remote districts where there are few trained teachers, the head, as the only trained qualified teacher, may in fact be fresh out of training college. Other managers get little training for their new roles. Moreover, the concept of ongoing support through continuing professional development does not exist. If managers are called to training it is more about disseminating information than developing their skills (VSO, 2006).

In Zambia, decentralization of education services was included as part of the national policy in 1996. In 2010 the process was still incomplete. This seemed to be due to reluctance from the centre to relinquish power and responsibility, coupled with reluctance from districts to accept it. The reason for this unwillingness on both sides was lack of knowledge and skills at district level. However, systems and personnel in place at both levels resulted in an extra layer of bureaucracy and lack of clarity as to who was doing what. In addition to this, some urban districts moved towards completion of decentralization than others and cited instances of positive change (such as access to funding, planning and budgeting that better address local priorities), the process was incomplete, it remained inequitable (MoE, 2005).

2.11 Summary

The concept of "policy" is not a precise term. It denotes among other elements, guidance for action. Policies differ in terms scope, complexity, decision, environment, range of choices and decision criteria. There are many types of policies, ranging from those that are broad and general to those that are precise and specific. Policy analysis covers the pre-decision activities, the decision process itself and the post- decision planning activities.

It is of concern, the lack of value governments and donors alike place on incorporating teachers' views when drawing up and implementing educational

plans and reforms. It is crucial to realize that no educational reforms can be effective without the agreement and active partnership of teachers who will ultimately be responsible for its implementation.

The next Chapter looks at the research methods used in the study.

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CHAPTER THREE

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Overview

Chapter Two reviewed literature in relation to the role of teachers in the evolution of educational policy making in Zambia. This chapter discusses the research methods used in this study. It describes the research design, target population, sample size and sampling procedure; research instruments, data collection procedure, data collection techniques, problems encountered during data collection, data analysis and data interpretation.

3.2 Research Design

This research was a survey. The data were collected using a combination of qualitative and quantitative research methods. This entailed the use of a survey technique in which questionnaires were given to the respondents to complete. Personal interviews were conducted where the researcher managed to secure appointments with the respondents.

3.3 Target Population

Since it was not possible to cover all the schools across the country, a sample of selected high schools of Lusaka and Central Provinces consisting of head teachers and teachers was done. Union teacher representatives from ZNUT, MoE officials-the DEBS and PEOs- of Lusaka and Central Provinces were selected respectively.

3.4 Sample Size and Sampling Procedure

To ensure adequate representation, and to reduce bias, the researcher preferred to use simple random sampling techniques in conjunction with stratified sampling. A list of schools per province was used to randomly select the schools. The selection of the Ministry of Education Officials and Union Representatives was based on their availability in offices during data collection.

A sample of 4 basic and 3 high schools was selected from Lusaka Province and 3 basic and 4 high schools were selected from Central Province. Then 7 school managers of each selected schools of Lusaka Province and 7 school managers each selected from schools of Central Province. Other included in the sample were 1 Secretary General of teachers' union or union

representative, and 2 Ministry of Education Officials from Lusaka and Central Provinces.

3.5 Research Instruments

Questionnaires: This study was done through written questionnaires which were administered to 140 randomly selected basic and high school teachers, 14 of them were administered to head teachers. The questionnaires were self explanatory though the researcher had to give instructions on how they were to be completed. The questionnaire consisted of both closed and open-ended questions derived from the research questions and the purpose of the study. For confidentiality and anonymity teachers were not allowed to write their names on the questionnaires.

Personal interviews: Appointments were made with the Ministry of Education Officials and teacher union representatives, interviews were scheduled for 15 and 20 minutes respectively. The interviews took a semi structured form in a face to face situation, providing the researcher with opportunities to probe beyond the given answers which were tape recorded.

Documentary analysis: The step involved identifying, locating information pertaining to the research topic, and also verifying data from questionnaires and interviews. This involved reviewing relevant documents such as Education Acts, Cabinet guidelines on policy formulation, newspapers, books, periodicals, articles and circulars.

3.6 Validity of Instruments

The questionnaire was subjected to validity and reliability tests to ensure that the data collected were trustworthy and that the questionnaire would be used by other researchers in future. The questionnaire was checked by people with experience in constructing questionnaires. A formal piloting of the questionnaire was done on fellow students. The piloting exercise was a success and only minor typing errors were encountered and corrections done thereafter. The purpose of this validation was to ensure representivity of items dealing with the relevance of the problem being investigated, clarity of items and clarity of instructions.

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

The collection of data was from November 2009 to January 2010. Upon obtaining written permission from Lusaka Provincial Education Officer (PEO) and Central Provincial Education officer respectively, the researcher proceeded with obtaining data from selected schools. This was done through head teachers with the assurance that the data collected from their schools

would purely be for academic purposes and that the information given in the questionnaires would be strictly confidential. Personal interviews were conducted with the Ministry of Education officials and Teacher Union representatives.

3.8 Data Analysis Techniques

Interview data were analyzed qualitatively by coding emerging themes which were grouped into categories using the constant comparative analysis technique. The themes and categories of the data were examined side by side with those in subsequent interviews. Thereafter, the categories were regrouped to generate the most significant categories and themes. The researcher used also the triangulation technique in data analysis. This allowed the researcher to test one source of data against another. Data collected through documentary analysis were compared with data from questionnaires and interviews.

3.9 Problems Encountered

The researcher experienced challenges while collecting data in that most teachers and some head teachers showed an open dislike toward getting to answer the questionnaires. The reasons they were giving were that they were tired of answering questionnaires that only cost them time without any financial gain on their part for giving out information. According to them, they felt “used” and “abused” by people doing research. At one particular school the deputy head was so blunt in telling the researcher that teachers were not obliged to fill in the questionnaires and that she could not persuade them as they knew that all research came with some financial benefits. After explaining the importance of the research, she reluctantly accepted but only to return, two weeks later, all the questionnaires unfilled claiming that teachers were busy preparing for examinations which was not the case, according to the researcher’s view as other schools had no such excuses.

Being examinations period teachers and head teachers that got questionnaires spent less time in school. Consequently, the researcher had to make several trips to the schools to find respondents and most of them kept forgetting their questionnaires at home even when reminded. The rate of return of questionnaires from head teachers was surprisingly very low.

3.10 Analysis of Data

The quantitative data collected through questionnaires were analyzed using programmed Excel spread sheets to generate tables of frequencies and percentages. In order to present statistical information, bar graphs were also used.

3.11 Data Interpretation

Quantitative and qualitative data were gathered in this research. Interpretation of quantitative data included the use of tables of frequencies and percentages. The general views from respondents were derived from responses with the highest frequencies or percentages. Qualitative data from semi-structured interviews were interpreted by considering the most significant categories of themes that were actually the views of the respondents.

3.12 Summary

Chapter Three explained the methods and procedures the researcher used during the research. The chapter described the research design, target population, sample size and sampling procedure, instruments that were used, data collection procedure, data collection techniques, problems encountered, data analysis and data interpretation.

The next Chapter deals with the findings.

CHAPTER FOUR

PRESENTATION OF FINDINGS

4.1 Introduction

Chapter Three explained the methods and procedures the researcher used during the research. This Chapter presents the findings of the research on the role of teachers in the evolution of educational policies in Zambia. The presentation of the findings is done under the headings taken from the research objectives. The headings are subdivided into five broad areas: Academic and professional characteristics of respondents; household and economic characteristics of respondents and policy process issues.

4.2 Academic and Professional Characteristics of Respondents

The sampled population was made up of 145 respondent teachers chosen randomly. The number of female respondents was 86 (59%) and male respondents were 59 (41%). Academically, the respondent teachers were generally graduates of both universities and colleges. The data collected revealed that 135 (93%) of the respondents obtained their qualifications from Government run institutions (i.e. the University of Zambia and its affiliate Colleges) and the rest, 10 (7%) respondents, had obtained their qualifications from private institutions.

a) Rank of respondents

Table 4.1 shows the stratified professional status of the respondent sample. Among the respondents 130 (90%) were Class Teachers, 4 (2%) were School Deputy Head Teachers and 11 (8%) were Heads of Departments.

Table 4.1: Rank of Respondents.

Rank	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Class Teachers	130	90
Deputy Head Teachers	4	2
Head of Departments	11	8
Total	145	100

b) Number of years in service

The data, in Table 4.2 (Page 25), revealed that 103 (71%) of the respondents had been in the teaching profession for more than 10 years. While 42 (29%)

had less than 10 years experience. Those with less than 10 years experience, 23 (79 %) respondents, had joined the profession in the last 4 years.

Table 4.2: Respondents Number of Years in Service.

Years in Service	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Over 10 Years	103	71
Less than 10 Years	42	29
Total	145	100

Respondents teaching in basic schools were 80 (55%) and 65 (45%) were teaching in high schools.

Figure 4.1 depicts the highest academic qualifications attained by respondents. The data revealed that 12 (8%) of the respondents had Masters Degree, 38 (26%) Bachelor Degree holders, 70 (48%) had Diplomas and 25 (17%) were Certificate holders.

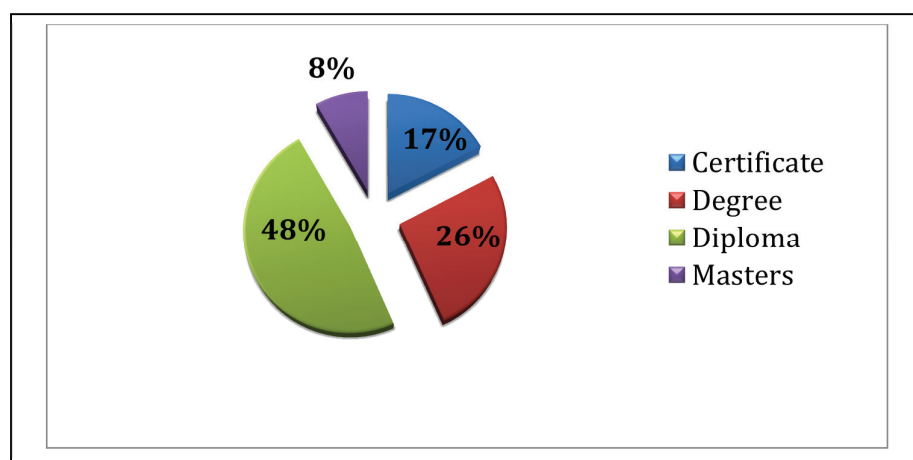


Figure 4.1 Respondents' Highest Level of Qualifications.

4.3 Household and Economic Characteristics

Among the 145 respondents, 90 (62%) and 15 (10%) of the respondents, shown in Table 4.3, lived in private and council rented homes respectively. Forty or 28% of the respondents lived in family homes.

Table 4.3: Respondents' Type of Accommodation.

Accommodation	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Private	90	62
Council	15	10
Family	40	28
Total	145	100

All 145 (100%) respondents were on the Ministry of Education pay roll and drew salaries every month.

The salaries of respondents, shown in Fig. 4.2, revealed that 25 (17%) respondents earned less than K1 million (\$196) per month. The majority of respondents, 138 (83 %), earned less than K2.5 million (\$490) per month compared to 7 (5%) who earned more than K3 million (\$588) per month. At the time of conducting this study \$1 (USA) was equivalent to K5 100 on the average based on the official exchange rate.

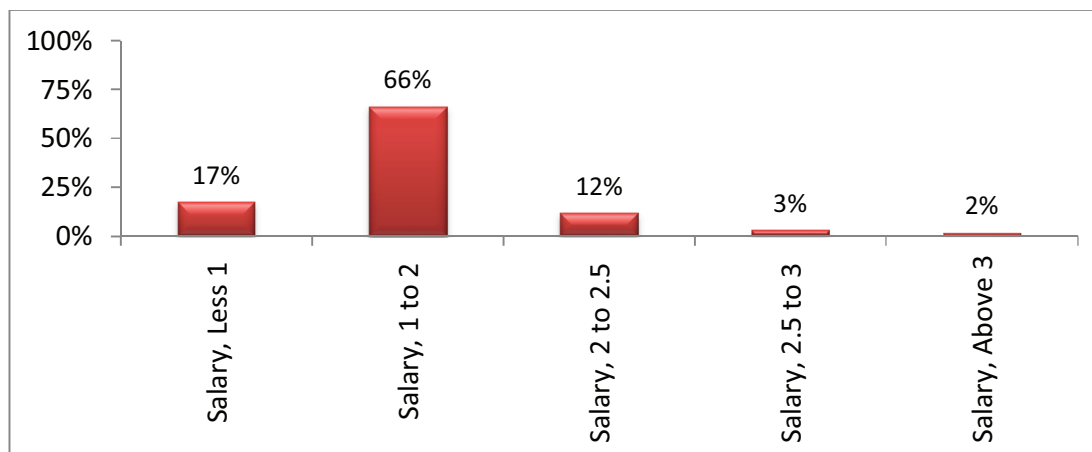


Figure 4.2 Respondents' Salary Bands

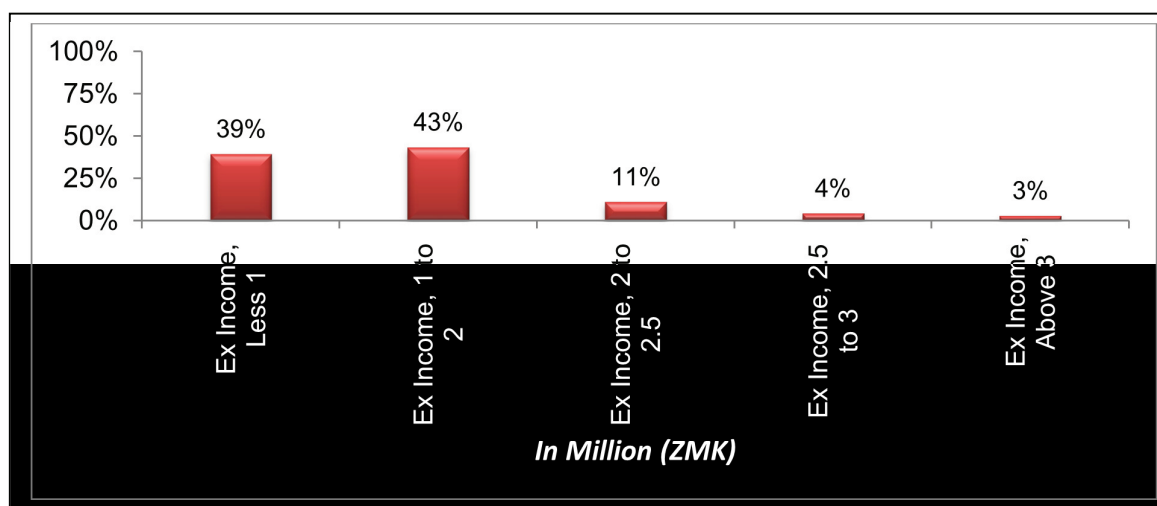
Besides drawing salaries every month, all respondents were involved in extra income activities. The economic activities involved in were: Selling of agricultural produce and livestock; Trading; and Offering tuition lessons. The bulk of respondents, i.e. 80 (55%) were involved in various kinds of trading activities. Those selling agricultural produce were 23 (16%), 20 (14%) were involved in selling livestock, while 22 (15%) were involved in unspecified business activities (Table 4.4 on page 26).

From Table 4.4, on page 26, 80 (55%) respondents were directly involved themselves in executing these business transactions. However, 35 (24%) conducted their businesses by alternating between wife and husband, while 10 (7%) and 20 (14%) engaged their older children and other people respectively to conduct businesses on their behalf.

Table 4.4: Respondents Extra Source of Income by Sector

No	Variables	Responses	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
1.	Extra Source of Income.	Selling Agric. Products	23	16
		Selling Livestock	20	14
		Trading	80	55
		Others & Wages	22	15
		Total	145	100
2.	Person/s Involved in Extra income Activities.	Self	80	55
		Husband & Wife	35	24
		Older Children	10	7
		Others	20	14
		Total	145	100

Figure 4.3 shows the amount of money earned from extra income activities. The majority of the respondents, 62 (43%), earned between K1 million and K2 million (\$196-\$392). Those who earned less than K1 million (\$196) were 57 (39%); 16 (11%) respondents earned between K2 million to K2.5 million (\$392-\$490) 6 (4%) of the respondents earned between K2.million to K3 million (\$392-\$588) and 4 (3%) respondents earned above K3 million (\$588).

**Figure 4.3** Respondents' Extra Income

4.4 National Educational Policy Documents

Figure 4.4 (page 27) depicts respondents; in percentages, that had seen and read the educational policy documents and how well versed they were in them.

The number of respondents who had come across **MoE (1977)** was 35 (24%) and out of the 35 respondents only 7 (19 %) respondents were well versed in it.

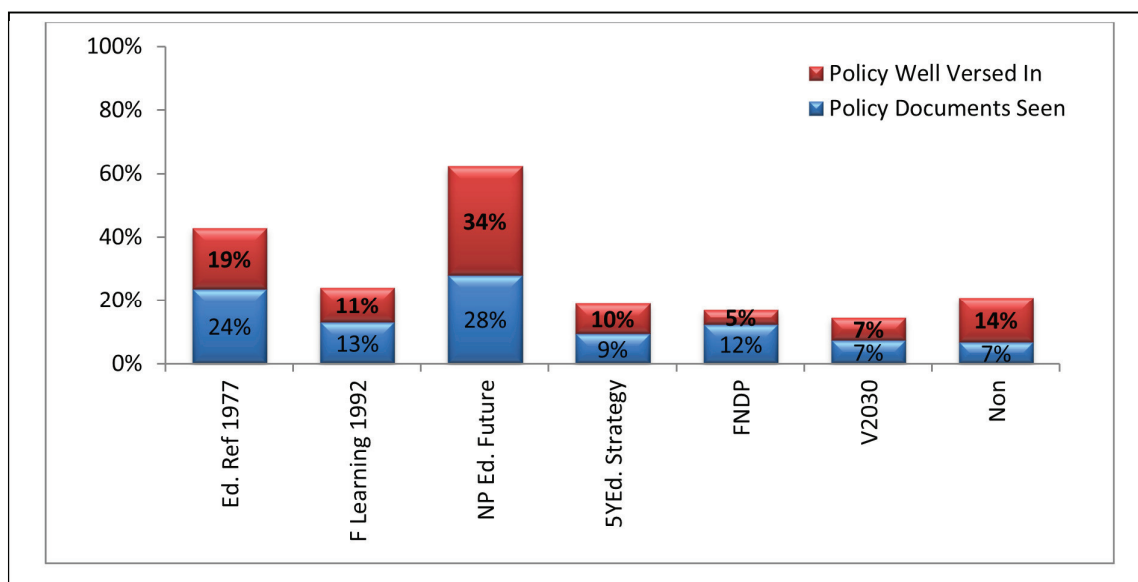


Figure 4.4 Educational Policies Seen Vs Educational Policies Versed In

Those who had come across **MoE (1992)** were 19 (13 %) and out of the 19 respondents only 2 (11%) were well versed in it.

The number of respondents who had come across **MoE (1996)** was 41 (28%) and out of the 41 respondents only 14 (34 %) were well versed in it.

Those who had come across **MoE (2003-2007)** were 13 (9%) and out of the 13 only 1 (10%) was well versed in it.

The number of respondents who had come across **MoE (2006-2010)** was 17 (12%) and out of the 17 respondents only 1 (5%) was well versed in it.

Ten (10) respondents, (i.e. 7%), had seen the **Vision 2030** and out of the 10 respondents only 1 (10%) was well versed in it.

Respondents who had not come across any policy documents were 10 (7%) and out of the 10 only 1 (14 %) respondent was completely ignorant of all policy documents.

Figure 4.4 generally revealed that 135 (93%) respondents had come across the educational policy documents the study focused on. And out of 135 respondents, only 26 were well versed in the said educational policies. And 10 (7%) respondents had not come across any of these educational policies.

MoE (1996) was the most encountered policy document with 41 (28%) respondents having read the policy document and 14 (34 %) respondents were well versed with the contents.

From the data depicted in Fig. 4.5; 94 (65%) respondents indicated that educational policy measures had positive impact in urban areas while 19 (13%) respondents felt educational policy measures had positive impact in Peri-urban and 20 (14%) said educational policy measures had positive impact in rural areas.

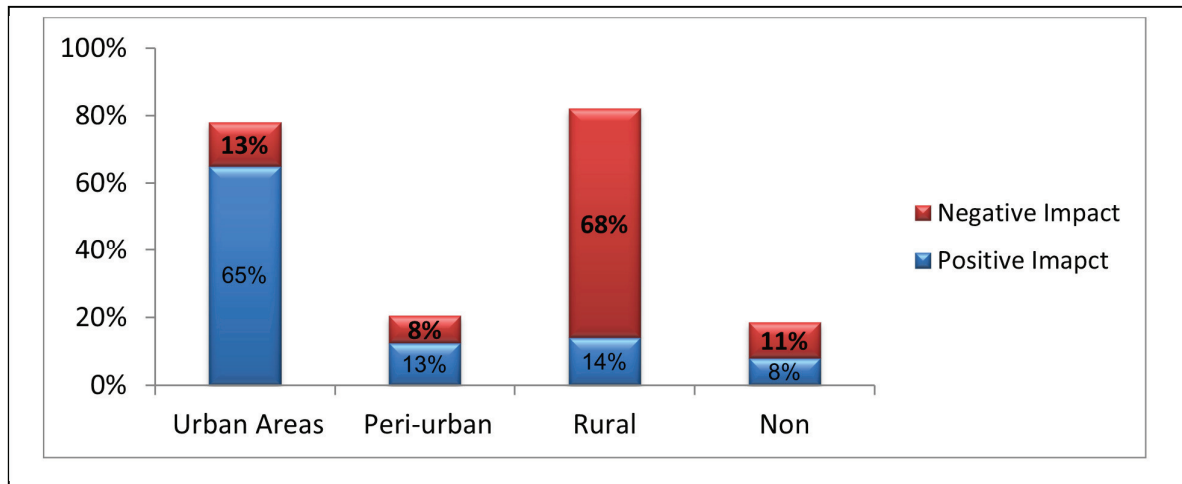


Figure 4.5 Education Policy Impact by Locations

The rest of the respondents, 12 (8%), could not tell if educational policies had any positive impact with regard to locations. From Fig.4.5 it was also noted that 99 (68%) respondents were of the view that educational policies had impacted negatively in rural areas, 19 (13 %) respondents held the view that educational policies had impacted negatively in Urban while 11 (8%) respondents said educational policies had impacted negatively in Peri-urban areas. The number of respondents who could not tell what negative impact policies had on locations was 16 (11 %).

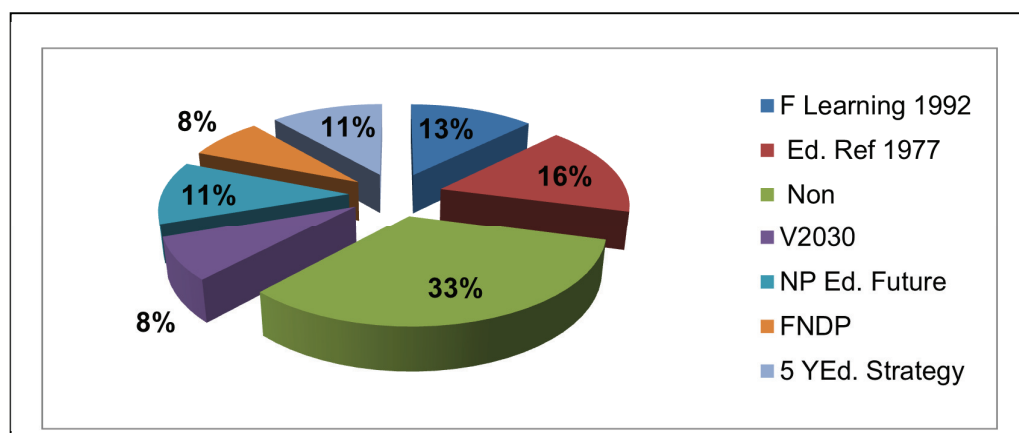


Figure 4.6 Educational Policies and Negative Impact

Figure 4.6 (page 28) shows that 48 (33%) of the respondents did not consider that the educational policies so far undertaken by Government had any negative impact. However, 23 (16%) respondents cited **MoE (1977)** to have impacted more negatively on the education sector. **MoE (1992)** was in second position with 19 (13%) respondents citing it to have negatively impacted on the education sector; despite the fact that policies found in **MoE (1992)** were adopted following the World Conference in Education For All (WCEFA) in Jomtien- Thailand. **MoE (1996)** had 16 (11%) respondents saying its policy measures had negatively impacted on the education sector. **MoE (2006-2010)** and **Vision 2030** had both 12 (8%) respondents saying the two policy documents had impacted negatively on the education sector. Interestingly, these two policy documents were formulated and launched after 1991 when planning was re-introduced by Government.

Table 4.5 shows, according to respondents' point of views, some of the salient policy measures and their positive impacts.

Table 4.5: Salient Policy Measures and Positive Impacts.

Policy Measures	Positive Impacts
The introduction of Rural Hardship Allowance.	Motivation for teachers to teach in rural areas.
Construction of school infrastructure.	Improvement in general education infrastructure and environment.
Girl re-entry policy.	Empowerment of girls.
Recruitment of teachers and deployment	Reduction in pupil teacher ratio.
Enhancement of Teacher Training opportunities.	Capacity and quality building.
Equity and access.	Improved pupil enrolment and attrition.
Curriculum realignment with teachers' and learners' aspirations.	Improved subject content relevance and lifelong skills acquisition.
Mandatory Basic Education	Improved pupil enrollment and attrition.
More awareness by pupils of their rights	Highly enlightened citizenry.

Table 4.6 shows (on page 30), according to respondents, some of the salient policy measures and their negative impacts.

Table 4.6: Salient Policy Measures and Negative Impacts.

Policy Measure	Negative Impact
Girl Re-entry policy	Deterioration of discipline and morals.
Construction of more Basic schools	Expansion of classes without construction of laboratories, teachers' houses and other support infrastructure.
Recruitment of teachers and deployment	Failure to put new recruits on the pay roll within the shortest time possible.
Enhancement of Teacher Training opportunities	Less teachers participating in in-service training due to lack of sponsorship.
Equity in education and accessibility	Carrying along pupils that have no will to learn hence poor quality of the end product due to removal of cut-off point.
Mandatory Basic Education	High pupil teacher ratio, especially in urban areas; and lack of teaching and learning aids. Lack of awareness of teachers' rights.
Low salary	Low morale and motivation among teachers.
Trial and error in implementing policies	Disjointed policy achievements.
Inertia in the release of funds	Non completion of capital projects.

Figure 4.7 shows respondents' views of the contents of the national education policies.

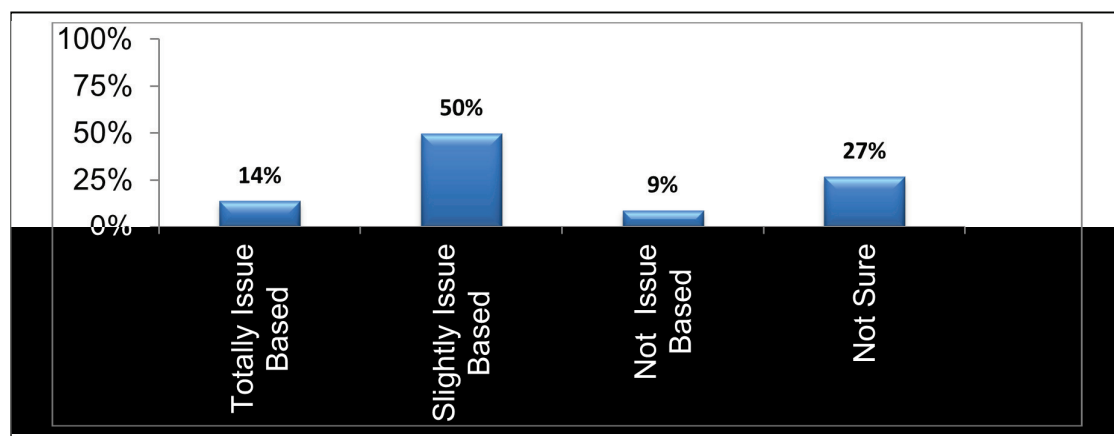


Figure 4.7 Respondents' Views of Educational Policies.

Respondents who felt measures in the educational policies documents were slightly issue based were 73 (50%) while 39 (27 %) respondents were not sure if education policy measures were issue based. However, 13 (9%)

respondents said the measures in the educational policy documents were not issue based at all. And 20 (14%) respondents said measures in the educational policy documents were totally issue based.

Figure 4.8 indicates that 75 (52%) of the respondents when it came to implementing various measures related to educational policies they felt slightly confident. 17 (12%) were not confident. However, 52 (36 %) were very confident.

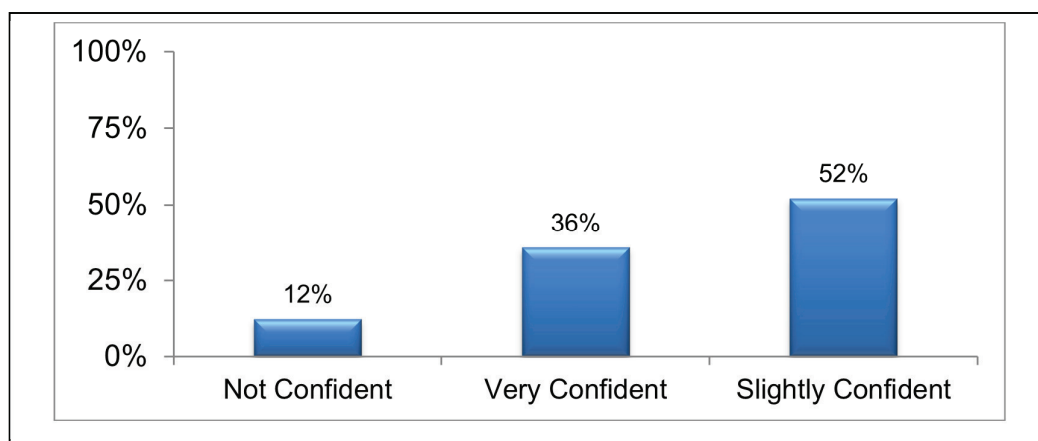


Figure 4.8 Respondents' Confidence in Executing Policy Measures

In terms of consultations, Fig. 4.9 shows that 51 (35%) of the respondents consulted their immediate supervisors when they encountered difficulties when implementing educational policies. However, 44 (30%) said they consulted their school managers. The other 29 (20 %) said they consulted their fellow workmates. And 6 (4%) respondents sought advice from the Ministry of Education Officials. Only 16 (11 %) respondents consulted Union representatives.

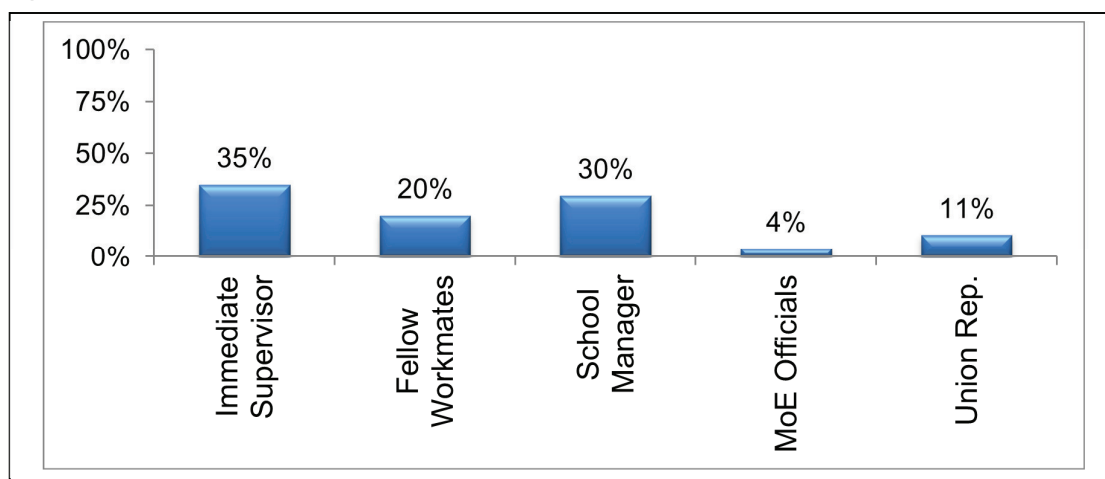


Figure 4.9 Respondents' Consultations on Policy

Figure 4.10 shows that 55 (38%) respondents considered the contents of educational policy documents to be mere political rhetoric and 36 (25%) said educational policy measures in Zambia were ambitious. While 15 (10%) felt the policies were chaotic, 16 (11%) thought the policies were pragmatic. The rest, 23 (16%) could not categorize the contents of educational policies.

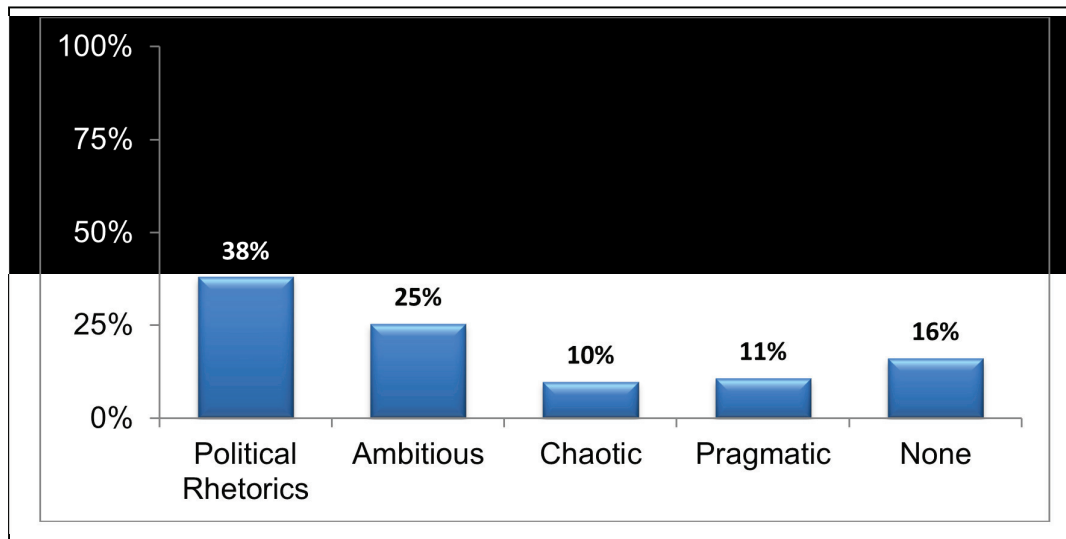


Figure 4.10 Respondents' Description of Policies

Fig. 4.11 reveals that 106 (73%) respondents cited bureaucratic inertia on the part of authorities in releasing necessary policy information, as an impediment during consultations on policies issues.

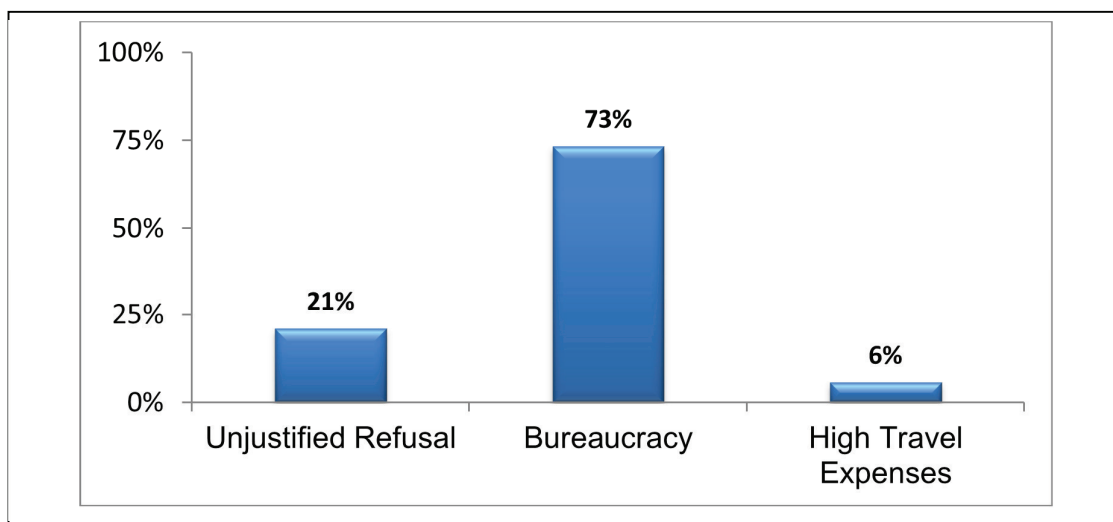


Figure 4.11 Respondents' Consultation Impediments

Thirty one (31) (i.e. 21%) respondents cited unjustified refusal by authorities in releasing information on policies. And 9 (6%) cited high costs of travel, as an impediment, while seeking clarification on policy matters.

4.5 Policy Process Issues

Table 4.7 shows that 26 (18%) of the respondents had participated in the policy making process. The majority 119 (82%) had never been availed the opportunity to take part in the policy making process.

Table 4.7: Respondents Participation in Policy Making.

No	Variables	Responses	Frequencies	Percentages (%)
1.	Participated in Policy Making	Yes	26	18
		No	119	82
2.	Capacity as Participant in Policy Making	Teacher	17	67
		Union Representative	7	25
		School Manager	2	8

Among those who participated in the policy making process, 17 (67%) respondents participated as class teachers, 7 (25%) participated as Union representatives and 2 (8%) participated as school managers.

Figure 4.12 shows the nature of participation by respondents in the policy making process. The majority, 12 (47%), of the respondents took part in the policy making process by way of participatory dialogue through workshops. Seven (7) or 26% of respondents participated in the policy making process through Union representatives.

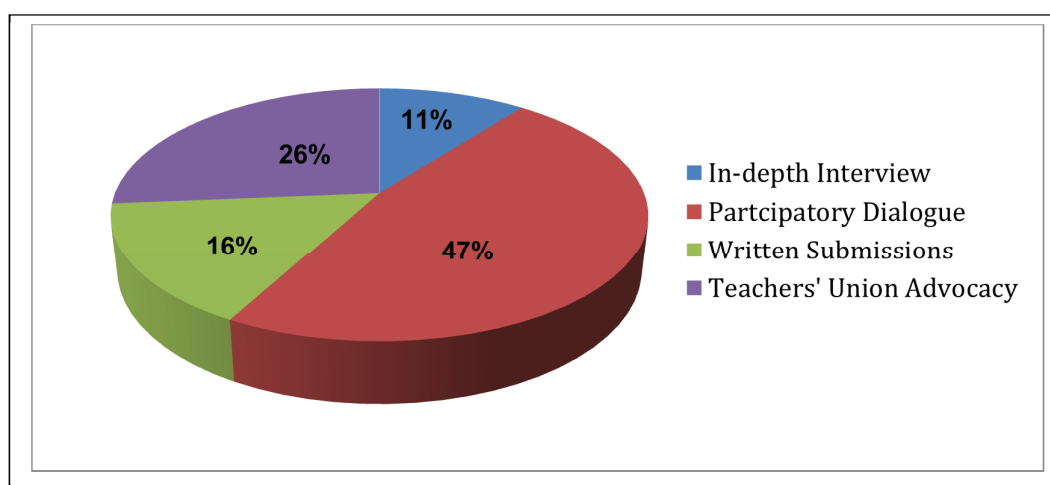


Figure 4.12 Respondents' Nature of Participation in Policy Making

Respondents who participated through written submissions were 4 (16%) and 3 (11 %) took part in depth policy interviews with the Ministry of Education Officials or appointed policy technocrats.

From the sampled population of 145, 119 (82%) respondents had never participated in the policy making process. Out of the 119 respondents, who did not participate in the policy making process, 77 (65%) respondents cited lack of provision for teachers' participation as reason for not being included in the policy making process. The remaining 42 (35%) respondents considered policy making as a function or a preserve of selected few individuals.

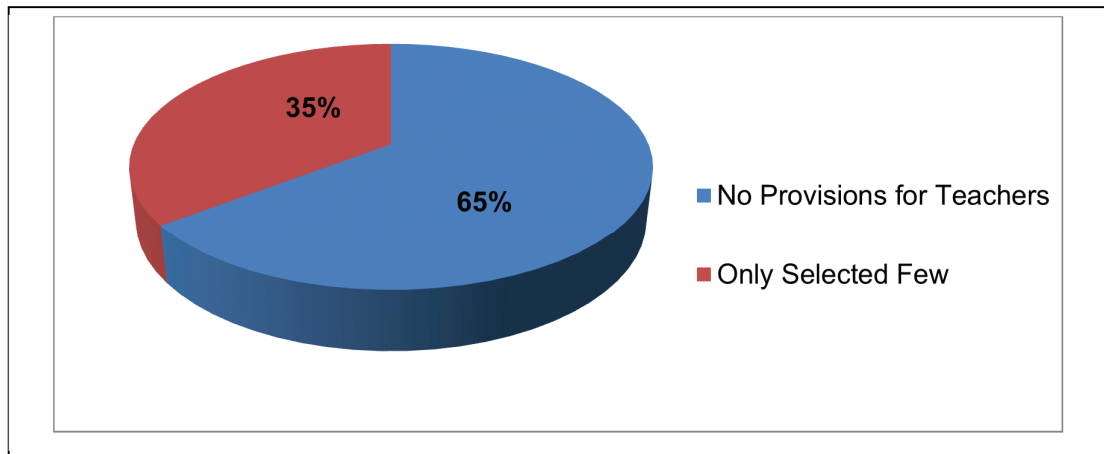


Figure 4.13 Respondents' Reasons for non Participation in Policy Making Process

Figure 4.14 (on page 35) depicts the perceptions of respondents about who normally participated in the policy making process.

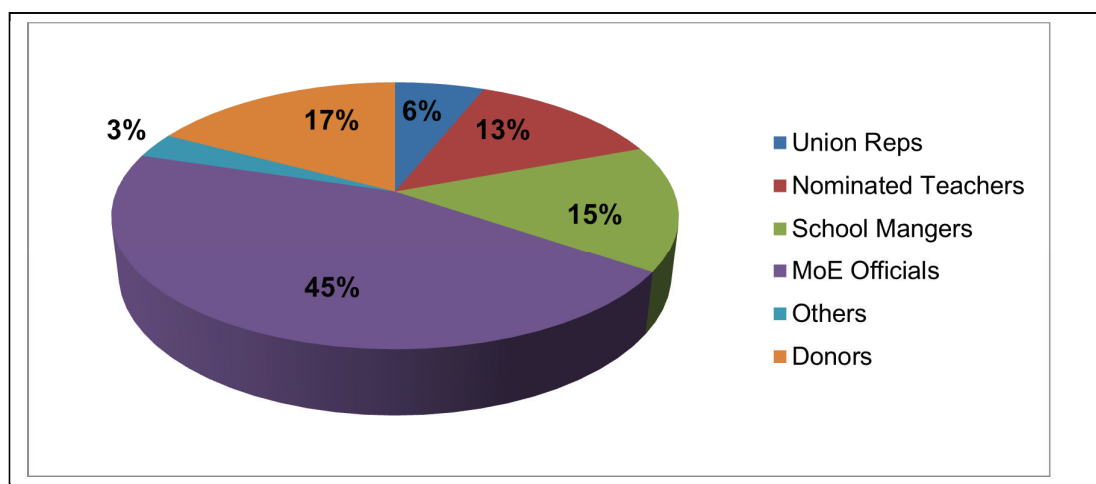


Figure 4.14 Respondents' Views of Participants in Policy Making Process

The number of respondents, who perceived the Ministry of Education Officials to be frequent participants in the policy making process was 65 (45%). Those

who viewed the process as donor driven in connivance with the Government were 25 (17%). And those who cited school managers were 22 (15%); 19 (13%) respondents said nominated teachers participated in the policy making process. And 9 (6%) respondents felt Union representatives drove the process.

The results, shown in Fig. 4.15; revealed that 60 (41%) respondents were made aware of new policy measures through the Ministry of Education circulars and respondents who were made aware of policies through policy documents were 31 (21%). However, 49 (33%) of respondents were informed about policy measures by the school managers and 6 (4%) through Presidential decrees. The rest, 3 (2%) respondents, indicated that they were made aware of policy matters by the Teaching Service Commission.

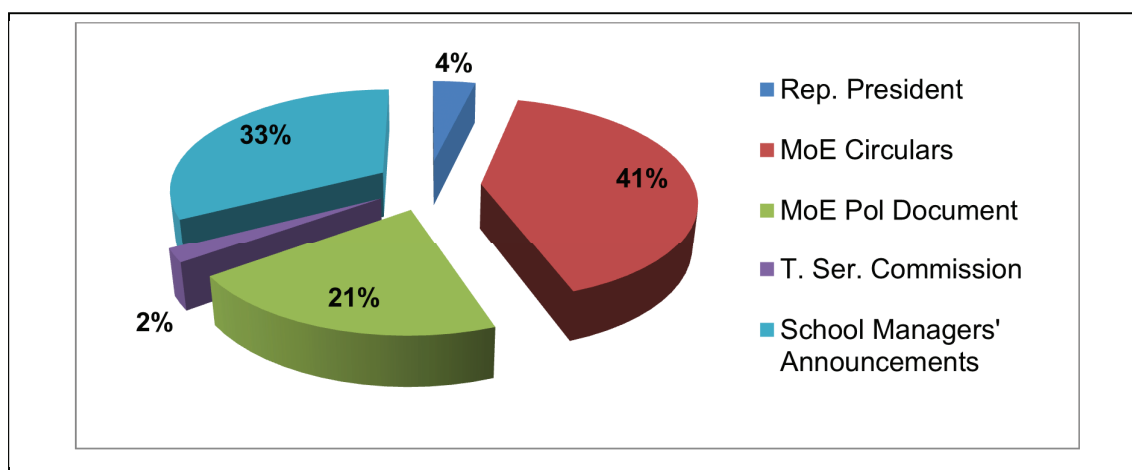


Figure 4.15 Policy Dissemination Channels

Figure 4.16 revealed that 59 (41%) of the respondents were of the view that teachers should be more involved in the policy making process.

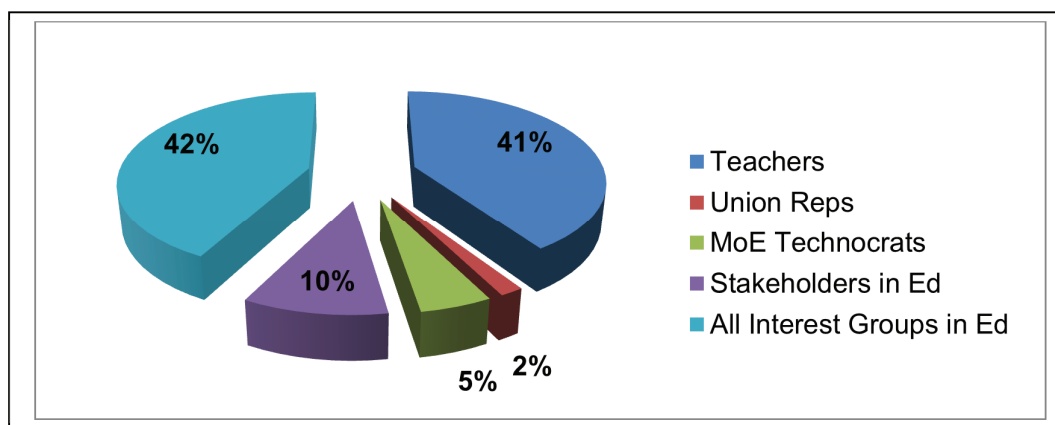


Figure 4.16 Respondents' Views of Key Policy Making drivers

Similarly, 61 (42%) of the respondents were of the view that all stakeholders, involved in the provision of education, should take part in the policy making process. However, 7 (5%) and 3 (2%) of respondents considered the Ministry of Education Officials and Union representatives respectively as key players in the policy making process.

4.6 Summary

The overall findings regarding the role of teachers in the evolution of educational policies in Zambia were that teachers who were implementers of policies were somehow disgruntled with most educational policies so far formulated in the sense that they felt alienated and perceived most policy reforms to be prescribed and imposed by donors in connivance with the Government.

The distortions in the impacts of the policy measures presupposed that several factors led to the discrepancies in terms of incomplete design and implementation lapses in policies. Consequently, implementation of policies had been punctuated by spells of progress and frequent setbacks.

Chapter Five discusses the findings presented in this chapter.

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION OF FINDINGS

5.1 Introduction

Chapter Four presented research findings on the role of teachers in the evolution of educational policy making. The presentations of the findings were subdivided into five broad areas: Academic and professional characteristics, household and economic characteristics of the sampled population; national policy document; and policy process issues.

This Chapter discusses the findings on the role of teachers in the evolution of educational policies. In discussing the findings the sequence of presentation in Chapter 4 is followed.

5.2 Findings

a) Academic and Professional Characteristics

The sampled population was skewed toward females with 86 (59%) and 59 (41%) of the respondents being females and males respectively (Table 4.1 on page 24). Although this was so, gender bias in terms of perceptions was ruled out because the sample was randomly selected. Other than that it was already assumed that the population of female teachers was higher than that of their male counterparts.

The number of respondents, that obtained their tertiary academic qualifications from Government institutions, was 135 (93%) while 10 (6%) attended private tertiary institutions (page 24). This implied that most respondents had followed Government approved teacher education programs that included learning aspects of educational policies in Zambia. The sampled population was predominantly made up of class teachers, as shown in Table 4.1 (Page 24), who numbered 130 (90%). It was deduced from this finding that the majority of the teachers, upon graduation from universities and colleges, were equipped with requisite aspects of the evolution of educational policies and their intended purposes.

From Table 4.2, on page 25, 103 (71%) respondents had been in the teaching profession for more than 10 years while 42 (29%) had less than 10 years experience. The majority of the respondents with less than 10 years, 23 had joined the teaching profession in the last 4 years. These findings meant that teachers with less than 10 years experience drew easily on the professional experiences of veteran teachers for valuable advice and day to day implementation of educational policy measures. On the whole, the findings

meant that the education sector had professionals who possessed the ability to chart the destiny of the entire educational sector by bringing to the table, during policy making process, their vast practical experiences.

The majority of respondents 70 (48%) held diplomas, while 38 (26 %), 25 (17%) and 12 (8%) respondents were in possession of first university degrees, certificates and master's degrees in teacher education respectively (Fig. 4.1 on page 25). This scenario implied that the sampled population was made up of respondents that were able to analyze and give a fairly acceptable picture from the practical point of view of the evolution of the educational policies in Zambia.

b) Household and Economic Characteristics

From Table 4.3 on page 25, it was noted that 90 (62%) and 15 (10%) of respondents lived in private and council rented homes, respectively. The research sample was located in Lusaka and Kabwe towns and this implied that respondents were under extreme pressure in sustaining house rentals and their daily livelihoods. These findings were arrived at in the wake of results shown in Fig.4.5 on page 29.

From Fig. 4.2 on page 26, 138 (95 %) of the respondents earned less than K2.5 million (\$490) per month compared to 7 (5%) of the respondents who earned more than K3 million (\$588) per month .Of the 138 respondents who earned less than K2.5 million (\$490) per month 25 respondents earned less than K1 million (\$196) per month. According to the Jesuit Center for Theological Reflection (JCTR) Bulletin of February 2010, those workers taking home less than K2,713.580 (\$532) would not afford buying their basic needs. Similarly, the JCTR (2010) bulletin stated that a take home pay for teachers ranged between K1, 145, 300 to K 1,831,600 (\$225-\$359).

Due to low wages and pressure to sustain their livelihoods respondents were engaged in extra income activities (Table 4.4 on page 27). Most respondents, 80 (55%), were involved in trading activities. This was followed by 23 (16%) respondents who were involved in selling agricultural products and 20 (14%) were involved in livestock selling. Overall 80 (55%) respondents were directly involved themselves in various extra income activities compared to 20 (14%) respondents who engaged other people to conduct businesses on their behalf.

Figure 4.3, on page 27, shows the amounts of money earned from extra income activities. The majority of the respondents, 62 (43%), earned between K1million and K2 million (\$196-\$392) from extra income activities. Those who earned less than K1 million (\$196) were 57 (39%) while 16 (11%) respondents earned between K2 million to 2.5 million (\$392-\$490), 6 (4%) respondents

earned between K2.5 to K3 million (\$392-\$588) and 4 (3%) respondents earned above K3 million (\$588) from extra income activities.

Engaging in business activities split teachers' attention between survival and their professional core activities. Other than low salaries and other incentives, teachers were also forced to indulge in business activities due to a malfunctioning salary system characterized by late salary payments. Allowances such as fix band housing, when available, were often inadequate and poorly administered. Hence, many respondents raised extra income by engaging in business activities. Consequently, there was loss of manpower in terms of hours spent by teachers discharging their core functions; disillusionment and exhaustion among teachers; none or piece meal adherence to policy implementation; and ultimately delivery of half-baked pupils.

c) National Educational Policy Documents

Table 5.1 is an extract of Fig. 4.4 on page 28. The Table revealed that though 135 (93%) respondents had come across educational policies, the number of respondents who had actually read and were well versed in the policies was 26 (19%). This number was insignificant to translate into meaningful policy achievements in terms of implementation. It was deduced that during teachers' training, aspects of policy in the curricula were neither emphasized nor taught. This was especially true for those teachers who had diploma and certificate teaching qualifications.

The findings in Table 5.1 and Fig. 4.4 were very revealing in that despite some policy documents being recently adopted such as: **The Fifth National Development Plan** and **Vision 2030** during the era of multi-party system or new political dispensation (New Culture) under the Movement for Multi Part Democracy (MMD), and **MoE (1992)** which was viewed by the MMD Government as a watershed document meant to make the entire educational sector responsive to dictates of the liberalized economy following the removal of United National Independence Party (UNIP) from Government, only 19 (13%) respondents had access to **MoE (1992)** and to make matters worse only 2 (11%) were well versed with it.

The picture created, from Table 5.1, was that there was need to have more teachers involved in the policy making process to avoid a situation whereby key players were not well versed in policies governing the education sector.

Table 5.1: Educational Policies Seen Vs Educational Policies Versed In

No	Policy Document	Respondents (Seen)	Respondents (Versed in)
1.	Education Reforms (1977)	35 (24%)	7 (19 %)
2.	Focus On Learning (1992)	19 (13 %)	2 (11%)
3.	Educating Our Future (1996)	41 (28%)	14 (34 %)
4.	Five Year Education Strategic Plan (2003-2007)	13 (9%)	1 (10%)
5.	Fifth National Development Plan (2006-2010)	17 (12%)	1 (5%)
6.	Vision 2030	10 (7%)	1 (10%)
	Total	135 (93%)	26 (19%)

NB: Ten (7%) respondents had not come across any educational policy document.

Data on the impacts of educational policies by locations (Fig. 4.5 on page 29) showed that 94 (65%) respondents said educational policies had positive impacts in urban areas. This view when contrasted with 20 (14%) respondents, who said education policies had positive impacts in rural areas, suggested a distortion in the implementation of policies.

On negative impacts of policies, with regard to locations (Fig. 4.5 on page 29); 99 (68%) respondents were of the view that educational policies had impacted negatively in rural areas. Respondents that held the view that educational policies had impacted negatively in Urban areas were 19 (13 %) and 11 (8%) said educational policies had impacted negatively in Peri-urban areas.

From the Decentralization policy point of view, this typically meant that there was dramatic reallocation of authority and responsibility (recruitment, allowances, retention, equity, gender etc.) among various levels of the Ministry of Education and transfers of resources. Meaning the results in Fig. 4.6, on page 28, suggested a lack of convergence between design and implementation, or between **de jure** and **de facto** decentralization.

Table 5.2 (Page 42), extracted from Fig. 4.6 on page 29, shows how educational policies had negatively impacted on the sector. The distortions in impacts (Positive and negative), according to respondents' views, presupposed that several factors led to the discrepancies in terms of: incomplete design and implementation lapses in policies. These were attributed to weak technical and administrative capacity, and lack of broad political support for policies. For example, the Ministry of Education Headquarters transferred responsibilities for financing and delivering education services to Provincial and District Boards.

Table 5.2: Rating of Policies (Negative Impacts) by Respondents

No	Policy Document	No. of Respondents
1.	Education Reforms (1977)	23 (16%)
2.	Focus On Learning (1992)	19 (13%)
3.	Educating Our Future (1996)	16 (11%)
4.	Five Year Education Strategic Plan (2003-2007)	16 (11%)
5.	Fifth National Development Plan (2006-2010)	12 (8%)
6.	Vision 2030	12 (8%)
	Total	98 (67%)

However, the Ministry of Education Headquarters was still not eager to share corresponding authority and resources, and always found ways of reasserting its control. Therefore, Provincial and District Boards that were supposed to yield some decision-making authority to schools also held back from doing so. This meant that some wealthier and urban districts, that cited positive impacts, had moved further to completion of decentralization than the poorer rural districts. In rural districts, for instance, teachers were overloaded with work due to the policy of compulsory basic education, removal of school fees and uniform requirements. Under these circumstances a gap appeared between the teacher's capacity and the unrealistic expectations imposed by policies. Heavy workloads acted only to intensify demotivation and passive resistance among teachers.

The two common challenges that have haunted the Ministry is alignment of functions, powers, and resources at various levels of the Ministry; and defining appropriate roles for the central agency (Ministry Headquarters) within a decentralized system. Achieving a better alignment of functions, powers, and resources is a primary matter in improving the policy making process or design and improving implementation. It is important to look at how decentralization has changed governance and management; which responsibilities and functions have devolved; whether resources are adequate to act on key policy issues; whether the structure of the system is aligned with the changes; and what functions should be retained by the central agency. This is because successive Zambian Governments have had different motives and motivations for educational policy reforms in the context of initial social economic conditions, and the political environment. Since independence in 1964, educational policy reforms and processes, in Zambia, have never been smooth. The evolution of educational policies has been punctuated by spells of progress and frequent setbacks, which have led to rising frustration and growing mistrust among teachers and other key stakeholders who see themselves as losers during the policy reforms and processes.

Figure 4.7, on page 31, shows respondents' views about the content of the national education policies. From Fig. 4.7, on page 31, a significant number of 73 (50%) respondents felt the measures in the educational policy documents were slightly issue based. And 13 (9%) respondents said the measures in the educational policy documents were not issue based at all.

The view that the policies were slightly issue based was at variance with all policy document contents. Throughout the world it was common knowledge that governments did not devolve wholesale responsibility and power to lower levels of government (Provinces and Districts) and schools. It was apparent that in Zambia, from the perspective of the respondents the Ministry of Education had transferred governance and overall management of education to lower levels and had retained control of pedagogical matters, personnel management, financing and resource allocation. Governance cannot be devoid of policy and by decentralizing the education sector a major proportion of policy making should have been transferred to teachers through Educational Boards. Therefore, the teachers were still not considered central (*The Locus of Policy Decision Making*) to overall policy making processes at District and Provincial levels.

By not involving teachers in policy making processes and the fact that teachers perceived policy measures as slightly issue based, teachers were slightly confident during policy execution. This was validated by the fact that the majority of the respondents, 75 (52%), indicated that when implementing various measures related to educational policies they felt slightly confident (Fig. 4.8 on page 31). However, 52 (36 %) respondents were very confident when implementing educational policies.

To be effective in their duties, vis-à-vis policy issues and difficulties, 51 (35%) respondents (Fig. 4.9 on page 32) consulted their immediate supervisors in case they encountered difficulties when implementing educational policies. Overall the finding revealed that teachers consulted a lot at school levels in terms of policies. This finding seems to agree with the fact that only 26 (19%) of the respondents were well versed with the policy measures. The Ministry was far detached in terms of consultations with only 6 (4%) respondents who sought the advice from the Ministry of Education Officials.

Though consultation was intense at school levels the majority, Fig 4.10 on page 33, of the respondents, 55 (38%), considered the contents of educational policy documents were mere political rhetoric and 36 (25%) respondents said

the educational policies in Zambia were ambitious. These findings implicitly suggested that though teachers were consulted, the net effect of policies on the entire sector did not translate into very tangible results. The fact that 16 (11%) respondents felt the policies were pragmatic was an indicator that some fundamental policy issues or majority views during the policy making process were not taken into account.

Similarly, during consultations, teachers experienced impediments in accessing policy information from authorities (Fig. 4.11 on page 33). The majority, 106 (73%) of the respondents, observed bureaucratic inertia on the part of authorities, in releasing necessary policy information. Respondents, who experienced unjustified refusal by authorities in releasing information on policies, were 31 (21%). These findings revealed some inherent flaws symptomatic of a classical management system. The fact that authorities were not keen to pass on information to subordinates seemed to impute that the education system was still autocratic or may be authorities were incompetent enough when it came to policy issues. Consequently, when information about policies failed to reach teachers or school managers, both teachers and school managers who were recipients and deliverers of change did not know what worked and did not work in education policy (VSO, 2006).

d) Policy Process Issues

From the findings, as depicted in Fig. 4.11 on page 33, 26 (18%) of respondents participated in the policy making process and the majority 119 (82%) had never. However, 17 (67%) of the respondents who participated were teachers, 7 (25%) Union representatives and 2 (8%) were School Managers.

The nature of participation, Fig 4.12 on page 34, shows that 12 (47%) of the respondents took part in the policy making process through participatory dialogues in workshops. While 7 (26%) took part in the policy making process by advocating for policy measures through Union representatives, 4 (16%) was through written submissions and 3 (11 %) took part through in depth interviews with the Ministry of Education Officials. These findings showed that the process adopted by the Government during policy making only allowed a few teachers to participate in the process.

From Fig. 4.13 on page 35 out of the 119 respondents, who had never participated in the policy making process, 77 (65%) of them indicated that Government did not make provisions for teachers' participation. And 42 (35%)

respondents considered policy making as a function exclusively for a few selected individuals (Fig. 4.13 on page 34). Teachers and School Managers who were key players in the implementation of policies felt particularly alienated.

From Fig 4.14 on page 35, 65 (45%) respondents perceived the policy making process to be dominated and driven by the Ministry of Education Officials. And those who felt it was driven by donors were 25 (17%). Those who cited School Managers were 22 (15%). Those who cited nominated teachers were 19 (13%), and Union Representatives were 9 (6%). The findings seemed to reinforce perceptions by Teachers and School Managers alike that most policy reforms in the education sector are imposed by Donors in connivance with the Government. To which BETUZ Director of Research Mr. Mhango concurred with the above assertions: "Government in many instances consulted stakeholders on policy reforms but with its hands already tied by Donors who dictated to Government what to implement since Donors, were the major financiers of most policy reforms".

These perceptions seemed to impute that most education policies were not in tandem with Zambian realities on the ground.

The findings seemed to be in agreement with the fact that 55 (38%) respondents, Fig. 4.14 on page 35, considered the contents of educational policy documents to be political rhetoric, 36 (25%) felt educational policies in Zambia were ambitious. Fifteen or 10% of respondents felt the policies were chaotic and 16 (11%) felt they were pragmatic.

From Fig. 4.15, on page 36, respondents indicated that they were made aware of new policy measures through circulars from the Ministry of Education and Policy Documents numbered 60 (41%) and 31 (21%) respectively. However, 49 (33%) respondents were informed about policy measures by the School Managers and 6 (4%) through Presidential decrees. Three (2%) respondents were made aware of policy matters by the Teaching Service Commission. In the light of these findings it was evident that the channels of communicating policy measures were robust and effective at most spans of control in the education sector. However, in the wake of the findings from Table 4.6, consultations occurred at most spans of control where the functionaries were not competent enough in some educational policies.

From Fig 4.16, on page 36, 59 (41%) respondents were of the view that teachers should be more involved in the policy making process. Similarly, 61 (42%) of the respondents were of the view that all stakeholders should take part in the policy making process. The implications of these findings were that the Ministry of Education Officials and Union representatives should play a

facilitating role in the policy making process. Evidently, a genuine participatory consultation process with all stakeholders at all levels of the education system, would serve to provide valuable information for monitoring and evaluation of already implemented policy reforms and allow for new proposals to be tested for popularity, realism and equity.

5.3 Summary

Findings of the research revealed that most respondents obtained their qualifications from Government institutions. This implied that they followed Government approved teacher education programmes that included learning aspects of policies. It was also revealed that most of the respondents lived in private and council rented homes. Consequently, they were under extreme pressure to sustain house rentals and their livelihood hence engaging in extra income activities.

On national educational policy documents, it was deduced that during teachers' training, aspects of policy in the curricular were neither emphasized nor taught. This was especially true for those teachers with diploma and certificate qualifications.

A significant number of respondents felt the measures were slightly issue based. This was at variance with all policy document contents.

During consultations on policy matters teachers experienced impediments in accessing information from authorities citing bureaucratic inertia and unjustified refusal in releasing information.

Chapter Six discusses the conclusions the researcher has deduced from the research findings; recommendations and the suggestion for further research.

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CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Conclusion

The previous Chapter discussed findings of the role of teachers in the evolution of educational policies. This Chapter makes conclusions and recommendations based findings discussed in the previous Chapter. The overall conclusion of this study is that teachers play a very peripheral role in the policy making process.

The overall conclusion of this study is that teachers play a very peripheral role in the policy making process.

Nearly all teachers graduated from Government universities and college. However, it appeared that the majority were not taught or fully taught aspects of policies thereby missing out on requisite knowledge of the evolution of educational policies and their intended purposes. Policy aspects and knowledge were essential tools that helped teachers analyze policies and gave fairly an acceptable picture, from the practical point of view, of the failures and successes of policies.

Teachers with less than 10 years of professional experience drew on the experience of veteran teachers, for valuable advice during day to day implementation of policy measures.

Fairly a good number of teachers were directly engaged in business activities. Thus, splitting their attention between survival and professional core activities. This led to loss of manpower, poorly prepared pupils and negation of provision of quality education as a universal requisite as stated in the FNDP.

Teachers, who were implementers of policy measures, were somehow disgruntled with educational policies so far formulated and considered educational policies as mere political rhetoric, ambitious, and chaotic.

Teachers and school managers, as key players in the implementation of policies felt alienated and perceived most policy reforms to be prescribed and imposed by Donors in connivance with the Government.

The channels of communicating policy measures were robust and effective at most spans of control. But most consultations were at school levels where most functionaries were not competent enough about policy measures and the intended purposes. Evidently, most school managers attended workshops where new policy measures were discussed but failed to disseminate information effectively when they went back to their respective schools.

Authorities, at all spans of control, seemed to practice a classical management style hence creating impediments, manifested in form of bureaucracy and unjustified refusal to release policy information.

The Ministry of Education had transferred governance and overall management of education to lower levels and retained control of pedagogical matters, personnel management, financing and resource allocation. However, Governance could not be devoid of policy and by decentralizing the education sector a major proportion of policy making should have been transferred to teachers through Educational Boards.

The two common challenges that faced the Ministry of Education were alignment of functions, powers, and resources at various levels of the Ministry; and defining appropriate roles for the Central Agency (Ministry) within a decentralized system. Achieving a better alignment of functions, powers, and resources was cardinal in improving the policy making process or design and eventually implementation.

The distortions in impact, according to respondents' views, presupposed that several factors led to the discrepancies in terms of: incomplete design and implementation lapses in policies. These were attributed to weak technical and administrative capacities, and lack of broad political support for policies.

Successive Zambian Governments have had different motives and motivations, in the context of initial social economic conditions, and the political environment, for undertaking educational policy reforms. Therefore, the evolution of educational policies in Zambia had been punctuated by spells of progress and frequent setbacks, which had led to rising frustration and growing mistrust among teachers and other key stakeholders who saw themselves as losers during the policy reforms.

Respondents were of the view that Ministry of Education Officials and Union Representatives should play facilitating roles and let teachers take part in the policy making process in order to foster ownership, by teachers, of the formulated educational policies.

6.2 Recommendations

Based on the findings, discussions and conclusions herewith contained in this study, the following summative recommendations are made to the Government and all stakeholders in the education Sector:

- a) Government and institutions responsible for educational policy making should consider involving teachers in the policy making process through consultations. However, not every single teacher should be consulted but the consultations or negotiations can take place through organized structures. The organized consultations should also include teachers' professional bodies. The consultations should be held in a transparent way such that views expressed by participants should take on board and conveyed, through the elected their representatives, to the general membership. Other than that various structures should be used to disseminate information or highlight salient policy issues to all stakeholders.
- b) Open attitude and transparency are also required on the apart of authorities as evidenced from the findings that teachers experienced impediments in accessing policy information due to bureaucratic inertia and unjustified refusal to release information to them while seeking clarification on policy matters. On the whole the Ministry of Education and all line managers ought to realize that it is for the common good to keep all stakeholders in the education sector well informed on policy matters.
- c) The Ministry of Education should consider appointing more teachers to Policy Review Teams as opposed to only technocrats. In order to ensure quality and effective participations by teachers in the Policy Review Teams, the Ministry of Education should embark on in-house capacity building through professional support services. This is because increasingly complex abilities, skills and commitment are required of teachers today than the traditional curriculum role they have always played. By doing this teachers are inclined to have a sense of ownership with regard to policies.
- d) Policy Review Teams should not necessarily duplicate resolutions of global fora and undertakings without domesticating such resolutions to suit the local conditions. This recommendation arises from the perceptions by teachers and school managers that educational reforms undertaken by Government are dictated by donors and operationalized in collusion with Government.

- e) Government should consider piloting formulated policies in order to gauge the chances of failure and success of the new policies. This would entail abandoning policies that fail. This is because successive Zambian Governments have had different motives and motivations in the context of initial social economic conditions, and political environment, for undertaking educational policy reforms. Hence, teachers considered educational policies in general as mere political rhetoric, ambitious, and chaotic.
- f) If education is to meet the challenges posed by social, technological and political changes, teachers' status in society should also be taken into account. Paying teaching uneconomic salaries has not only made teachers to engage in extra income activities but also made them feel disgruntled with educational policies so far formulated. Paying teachers economic salaries will make teachers focus their energies on core professional activities.
- g) The Ministry of Education should endeavour to provide updated printed materials on key policy measures in order to ensure that all stakeholders are in tandem with the requirements and vision of the sector. By doing this, the Ministry of Education will to some extent forestall distortions in policy impacts, design and implementations lapses in the wake of a weak technical and administrative base in the sector; and lack of broad political will to execute formulated policies.
- h) The Ministry of Education should consider transferring a major proportion of the role it plays in the policy making process, bearing in mind the on going decentralization in the sector, to teachers through Educational Boards. This is because decentralized governance can not be achieved without policy alignment of functions, powers, and resources. Defined functions, powers, and resources are essential ingredients in the policy making process, monitoring and evaluation. To this effect the Ministry of education should redefine its roles to that of a Central Agency.
- i) There is need to conduct further studies in rural provinces on the role of teachers in the evolution of educational policies in Zambia because this research was done in the urban areas of Lusaka and Central Provinces. Similarly, views of professional teachers' associations such as the Zambia Association of Geography Teachers (ZAGT), Zambian Network of Teacher Education Institutions Main training Environmental and sustainability Education (ZANTEIMESE) on policy should be sought.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Questionnaire for Teachers

**THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH**

Dear Respondent,

I am a post graduate student at the University of Zambia carrying out research for the award of the degree of Master of Education in Education Administration. My theme of study is policy making in Education: The role of teachers in the evolution of Educational policies in Zambia. The questionnaire is intended to capture data with regard to my research topic. The outcome of this study will be for academic purposes and for the fulfillment of the partial requirements for the award of the said Degree. Therefore, all the information provided in the questionnaire shall be treated as confidential. Kindly tick or fill in your answer as truthfully and correctly as possible.

Questionnaire No		<div style="display: flex; justify-content: space-around;"><div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 30px; height: 30px;"></div><div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 30px; height: 30px;"></div><div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 30px; height: 30px;"></div><div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 30px; height: 30px;"></div><div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 30px; height: 30px;"></div><div style="border: 1px solid black; width: 30px; height: 30px;"></div></div>
PERSONAL DETAILS OF THE INTERVIEWEE 1. Date of the interview:..... 2. Sex Male ☐ Female ☐ 3. Highest level of education attained by Interviewee's: College ☐ University ☐ 4. College or University attended: Govt. ☐ Private ☐ 5. Qualification obtained by Interviewee Cert. ☐ Diploma ☐ Degree ☐ Masters ☐ 6. Interviewees' number of years in service 0-4 ☐ , 5-10 ☐ , 11-24 ☐ , 25 and above ☐ 7. Interviewee's type of School Basic School ☐ High School ☐ 8. Ownership of Interviewees' institution: Govt. ☐ Private ☐ 9. Rank of the interviewee: 10. Location of Interviewees' school Province:District:Village:	FIELD RESEARCHER'S COMMENTS:	

SECTION 1: HOUSEHOLD CHARACTERISTICS

1. Who is the owner of the house you occupy?

<i>Family</i>	1
<i>Landlord</i>	2
<i>Council</i>	3

2. How many children do you have?

<i>Male</i>	<i>Female</i>
-------------	---------------

3. What are the sources of income for your household?

<i>Wages / salaries only</i>	1
<i>Selling of agricultural produce and wages</i>	2
<i>Selling of livestock and wages</i>	3
<i>Trading and wages</i>	4
<i>Others and wages</i>	5

If your answer to Question 3 is *others and wages*, Specify.....

4. Which of the following economic activities is your household involved in?

<i>Wages / salaries only</i>	1
<i>Selling of agricultural produce and wages</i>	2
<i>Selling of livestock and wages</i>	3
<i>Trading and wages</i>	4
<i>Others and wages</i>	5

If your answer to Question 4 is *others and wages*, Specify.....

5. How much does your family earn per month from such economic activities?

<i>Less than K 5000,000</i>	1
<i>K 1,000,000 –K 2, 000,000</i>	2
<i>K 2, 000,000 –K 3,000,000</i>	3
<i>Above K 3,000,000</i>	4

6. Who is normally involved in the extra income activities listed in Question 4?

<i>Self</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Father or mother only</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Older Children only</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>Daughters only</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>Sons only</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>Others</i>	<i>6</i>

If your answer to Question 6 is *others*, Specify.....

-
7. How much do earn (salary / wages) per month?

<i>Less than K 5000,000</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>K 1,000,000 –K 2, 000,000</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>K 2, 000,000 –K 3,000,000</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>Above K 3,000,000</i>	<i>4</i>

SECTION 3: NATIONAL EDUCATIONAL POLICY DOCUMENTS

8. Which of the following educational policy documents you have come across?

<i>Educational Reforms (1977)</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Focus on Learning (1992)</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>National Policy: Educating our Future (1996)</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>Five Year Education Strategic Plan (2003-2007)</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>Fifth National Development Plan (2006-2010)</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>Vision 2030</i>	<i>6</i>
<i>None of the above</i>	<i>7</i>

-
9. Which of the following educational policy documents are you well versed in?

<i>Educational Reforms (1977)</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Focus on Learning (1992)</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>National Policy: Educating our Future (1996)</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>Five Year Education Strategic Plan (2003-2007)</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>Fifth National Development Plan (2006-2010)</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>Vision 2030</i>	<i>6</i>
<i>None of the above</i>	<i>7</i>

10. Which of the policy measures, contained in educational policy documents that you have read, have impacted positively on the education sector?

<i>Educational Reforms (1977)</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Focus on Learning (1992)</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>National Policy: Educating our Future (1996)</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>Five Year Education Strategic Plan (2003-2007)</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>Fifth National Development Plan (2006-2010)</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>Vision 2030</i>	<i>6</i>
<i>None of the above</i>	<i>7</i>

11. What do you think are the major reasons for the positive impact/s, of the cited policy or policies in Question 10?

.....
.....
.....

12. Which of the educational policy measures have impacted negatively on the education sector?

<i>Educational Reforms (1977)</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Focus on Learning (1992)</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>National Policy: Educating our Future (1996)</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>Five Year Education Strategic Plan (2003-2007)</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>Fifth National Development Plan (2006-2010)</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>Vision 2030</i>	<i>6</i>
<i>None of the above</i>	<i>7</i>

13. What do you think are the major reasons for the negative impact/s?

.....
.....

14. In which location/s have educational policy measures impacted positively on the education sector?

<i>Urban areas</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Rural areas</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Peri-urban</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>None of the above</i>	<i>4</i>

15. In which location/s have educational policy measures impacted negatively on the entire education sector?

<i>Urban areas</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Rural areas</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Peri-urban</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>Non of the above</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>Others</i>	<i>5</i>

16. Are measures, in the current educational policy, issue based?

<i>Totally issue based</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Slightly issue based</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Not at all</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>Not sure</i>	<i>4</i>

17. Whom do you consult when you run into difficulties when implementing educational policies?

<i>Immediate supervisor</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>School Managers</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Fellow workmate</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>Union Representative</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>Ministry of Education Officials</i>	<i>5</i>

18. What challenges do you experience during consultations on educational policies?

<i>Unjustified refusal by authorities to explain policy directives</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Bureaucracy in releasing information</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>High travel expenses</i>	<i>3</i>

19. How best would you describe the contents of the educational policies mentioned in question 12 in this questionnaire?

<i>Political Rhetoric</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Ambitious</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Chaotic</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>Pragmatic</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>Others</i>	<i>5</i>

SECTION 4: POLICY PROCESS ISSUES

20. Have you ever participated in educational policy formulation discussions?

Yes	1
No	2

21. If your answer, to question 20 is Yes in what capacity did you participate?

Class teacher	1
Union representative	2
School representative	3
School manager	4

22. What was the nature of your participation?

In-depth interviews	1
Participatory dialogues with Provincial Education Officials	2
Participatory dialogues with District Education Officials	3
Written submissions	4
Advocacy through a National Member of Parliament	5
Advocacy through a Member of teachers' Professional body	6
Member of the educational policy reform Committee	7

23. Who normally participate in educational policy formulation discussions?

Ministry of Education Officials	1
Nominated teachers	2
School managers	3
School teachers	4
Ministry of Education Provincial Officials	5
Cooperating partners	6
Others	7

24. How are you informed about the outputs of educational policy formulation discussions?

Republican President Pronouncement	1
Ministry of Education Circulars	2
Ministry of Education Policy Documents	3
Teaching Services Commission	4
School Managers' announcements	5

25. Who normally takes the leading role during educational policy formulation discussions?

- | | |
|---|----------|
| <i>Teachers</i> | <i>1</i> |
| <i>Union Representatives</i> | <i>2</i> |
| <i>School Managers</i> | <i>3</i> |
| <i>Ministry of Education Officials</i> | <i>4</i> |
| <i>Ministry of Education Provincial Technocrats</i> | <i>5</i> |
| <i>Stakeholders in provision of education</i> | <i>6</i> |
| <i>All the above</i> | <i>7</i> |

Thank you

APPENDIX B: Questionnaire for School Managers

**THE UNIVERSITY OF ZAMBIA
SCHOOL OF EDUCATION
SCHOOL OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH**

Dear Respondent,

I am a post graduate student at the University of Zambia carrying out research for the award of the degree of Master of Education in Education Administration. My theme of study is policy making in Education: The role of teachers in the evolution of Educational policies in Zambia. The questionnaire is intended to capture data with regard to my research topic. The outcome of this study will be for academic purposes and for the fulfillment of the partial requirements for the award of the said Degree. Therefore, all the information provided in the questionnaire shall be treated as confidential. Kindly tick or fill in your answer as truthfully and correctly as possible.

Questionnaire No	<table border="1" style="margin: auto;"><tr><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td><td style="width: 20px; height: 20px;"></td></tr></table>						
<p>PERSONAL DETAILS OF THE INTERVIEWEE</p> <p>1. Date of the interview:.....</p> <p>Sex: Male ☐ Female ☐</p> <p>2. Highest level of education attained by Interviewees':</p> <p>College ☐ University ☐</p> <p>3. College or University attended:</p> <p>Govt. ☐ Private ☐</p> <p>4. Qualification obtained by Interviewee's</p> <p>Cert. ☐ Diploma ☐ Undergraduate ☐ Masters ☐</p> <p>5. Interviewee's number of years in service</p> <p>0-5 ☐, 5-10 ☐, 11-24 ☐, 25 and above ☐</p> <p>6. Interviewee's type of School</p> <p>Basic School ☐ High School ☐</p> <p>7. Ownership of Interviewee's institution:</p> <p>Govt. ☐ Private ☐</p> <p>8. Rank of the interviewee:</p> <p>9. Location of Interviewee's school</p> <p>Province:District:Village: ...</p>	<p>FIELD RESEARCHER'S COMMENTS:</p>						

1. Which of the following educational policy documents you have come across?

<i>Educational Reforms (1977)</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Focus on Learning (1992)</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>National Policy: Educating our Future (1996)</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>Five Year Education Strategic Plan (2003-2007)</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>Fifth National Development Plan (2006-2010)</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>Vision 2030</i>	<i>6</i>
<i>None of the above</i>	<i>7</i>

2. How best would you describe the contents of the educational policies mentioned in question 1 in this questionnaire?

<i>Political Rhetoric</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Ambitious</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Chaotic</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>Pragmatic</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>Others</i>	<i>5</i>

3. Have ever participated educational policy formulation discussions?

<i>Yes</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>No</i>	<i>2</i>

4. If your answer, to question 3 is Yes in what capacity did you participate?

<i>Class teacher</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Union representative</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>School representative</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>School manager</i>	<i>4</i>

5. Who normally takes the leading role during educational policy formulation discussions?

<i>Technocrats</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Cooperating partners</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Ministry of Education Officials</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>School Managers</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>Teachers</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>Union Representatives</i>	<i>6</i>
<i>Others</i>	<i>7</i>
<i>All the above</i>	<i>8</i>

6. Who do you think should drive the process of educational policy formulation?

<i>Technocrats</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Cooperating partners</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Ministry of Education Officials</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>School Managers</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>Teachers</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>Union Representatives</i>	<i>6</i>
<i>Others</i>	<i>7</i>
<i>All the above</i>	<i>8</i>

7. In your own assessment what has been the impact of policy measures contained in educational policy documents that you have ready?

<i>Moderate</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Positive</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Negative</i>	<i>3</i>

8. If your answer to question 7 is moderate or negative, what do you think could be the reasons?

<i>Limited resources</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Lack of clear goals and objectives</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Lack of implementation strategies</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>Unskilled manpower</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>Apathy</i>	<i>5</i>

9. If your answer to question 7 is positive, what do you think could be the reasons?

<i>Adequate resource allocation</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Clear implementation strategies</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Clear objectives and goals</i>	<i>3</i>
<i>Skilled manpower</i>	<i>4</i>
<i>Fixed timeframe</i>	<i>5</i>
<i>All the above</i>	<i>6</i>

10. In which location/s have educational policy measures impacted positively on the education sector?

<i>Urban areas</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Peri-urban</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Rural areas</i>	<i>3</i>

11. In which location/s have educational policy measures impacted negatively on the education sector?

<i>Urban areas</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>Peri-urban</i>	<i>2</i>
<i>Rural areas</i>	<i>3</i>

12. Are measures, in the current educational policy, issue based?

<i>Yes</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>No</i>	<i>2</i>

13. How confident are you to execute educational directives?

Not Confident	1
Confident	2

If your answer to question 13 is not confident, explain why?

.....
.....
.....

14. Are there provisions that allow teachers or their representatives' involvement in educational policy making processes?

<i>Yes</i>	<i>1</i>
<i>No</i>	<i>2</i>

15. What are the impacts, on education policy implementations, of teachers or their union representatives' involvement in policy making?

Less successful	1
Successful	2

16. What are the constraints that school managers face as a result of non participation of teachers or their union representatives in education policy implementations?

.....
.....
.....

Thank you

APPENDIX C: Semi-Structured Interview Guide for Teachers' Unions and MoE Officials

- a) Which of the educational policy documents, Educational reforms 1977, Focus On Learning 1992, and Educating Our Future 1996 are you very conversant with?
- b) What do you think have been the major advantages of Educational reforms 1977, Focus On Learning 1992, and Educating Our Future 1996?
- c) What have been the major disadvantages of the mentioned policies if any?
- d) Who normally participates during the policy making process?
- e) What extent have teachers been involved in the policy making process?
- f) Who should take a leading role during the policy making process?
- g) Why should they lead in the policy making process?
- h) What challenges do teachers experience during implementation of policies?

APPENDIX D: Permission Letter from Ministry Of Education in Lusaka

*All Correspondence should be addressed
to the Provincial Education Officer*

Telephone: 250655



REPUBLIC OF ZAMBIA
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION

PEO/LR/101/5/02

No.

PROVINCIAL EDUCATION OFFICER
LUSAKA REGIONAL HEADQUARTERS
Private Bag RW21E
LUSAKA.

20th October, 2009.

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

RE: MRS. FLORENCE NAMBELA CHISALE

This serves to introduce to you the above named and bearer of this letter who is a Postgraduate student at the University of Zambia in the school of Education.

Permission has been granted to her to visit four high and basic schools and randomly selected Ministry of Education officials in Lusaka Province for the purpose of research for the award of the degree of Master of Education in Education Administration.

Your assistance in providing the required data to her, will be greatly appreciated.

A.M. Nzala (Mrs) (F.O.S)
PROVINCIAL EDUCATION OFFICER
LUSAKA PROVINCE.

APPENDIX E: Permission Letter from Ministry of Education in Kabwe

<i>All Communication should be addressed to the District Education Board Secretary TEL / FAX: 05 - 224702</i>		<i>In reply please quote: No.</i>
MINISTRY OF EDUCATION		
DISTRICT EDUCATION BOARD		
P.O. BOX 80423		
KABWE		
October 30, 2009		
<u>TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN</u>		
<p>This serves to introduce to you the above named registered student at University of Zambia, School of Education who has come to conduct her field work for Masters of Education.</p>		
<p>Kindly assist her in any way possible to carry out her field work.</p>		
		
Jennipher C. Banda DITRICT EDUCATION BOARD SECRETARY KABWE DISTRICT		