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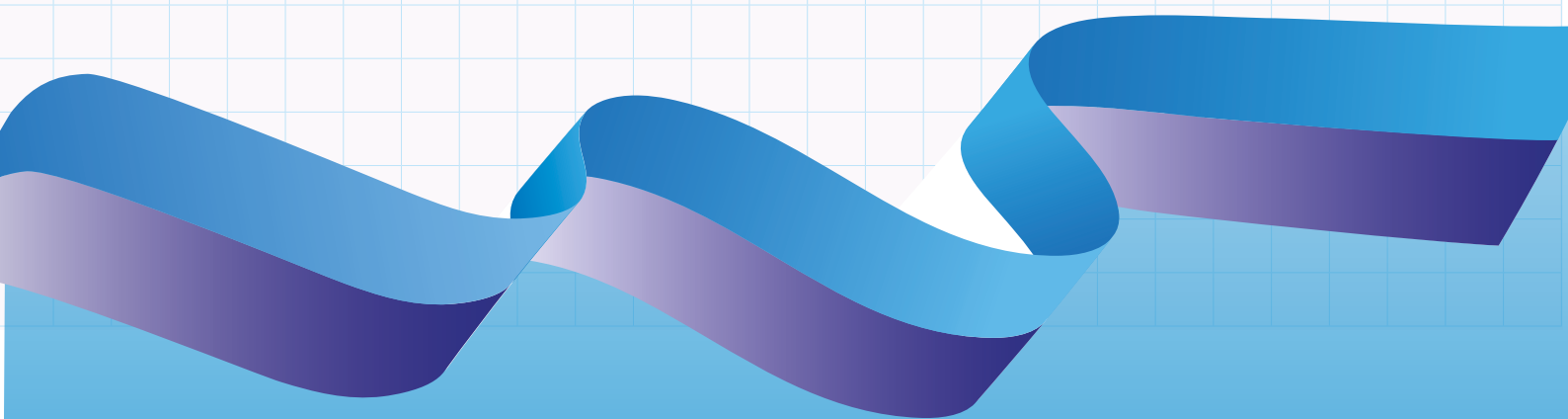*Ensuring Quality in Higher Education*

THE STATE OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA

2022
Curricula in Higher Education

HIGHER EDUCATION AUTHORITY

Ensuring Quality in Higher Education

THE STATE OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN ZAMBIA

2022

Curricula in Higher Education

DEDICATION

This report is dedicated to the memory of the late Dr Vitalicy Chifwepa (Died: 29 March 2023), the immediate past Director – Quality Assurance at the Higher Education Authority (2016 – 2023), in recognition of his immeasurable contributions to the establishment, development and publication of the annual *State of Higher Education in Zambia Report*, specifically, and the higher education subsector, generally.

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FOREWORD

The Government of the Republic of Zambia recognises the importance of higher education for personal and socio–economic development. For this reason, it has developed policies aimed at ensuring that curricula at all levels of education are responsive to societal needs and national development goals. Vision 2030, for example, calls for quality and diversified education curricula that are responsive to the knowledge, values, attitudes and practical skill needs of individuals and society at large.

The 2022 State of Higher Education Report, with its theme of *Curricula in Higher Education*, responds to the need to promote the development of curricula that will contribute to the aspirations of the national development plans. The Report discusses different approaches to, and models of, curriculum development that institutions could adopt to promote quality and relevance in higher education provision. It also highlights the importance and necessity of assuring quality in curriculum development and review, in view of the different modes of delivery that are, increasingly, being adopted by higher education institutions. Further, the report discusses the importance of foreign languages as integral parts of higher education curricula in an environment of globalisation.

In view of the above, I strongly urge higher education institutions to study this report and use it as an important guide in developing and reviewing their curricula. In this way, Higher Education Institutions (HEIs) will be promoting quality and relevance in the development and delivery of their learning programmes that not only meet international quality standards but are also necessary for producing the human capital, which is required for actualising Zambia's Vision of becoming a middle-income country by 2030.

Mr Douglas M. Syakalima, MP
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The publication of The State of Higher Education in Zambia 2022: Curricula in Higher Education, would not have been possible without the commitment of numerous stakeholders who went above and beyond to guarantee that this Report was produced. You all have my gratitude for your commitment. Additionally, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to all higher education institutions for providing reliable statistics that were used to produce this report.

I also wish to recognise the significant contribution made by the Higher Education Authority staff to the production of this report. Finally, a particular thank you is extended to the Authority's Board and the Ministry of Education for their continued support in ensuring that the Authority carries out its mandate of ensuring quality in higher education.

Prof. Stephen Simukanga
Director-General
Higher Education Authority

EXECUTIVE SUMMARY

The publication of The State of Higher Education in Zambia is backed by the *Higher Education Act No. 4 of* 2013, which requires the Higher Education Authority (HEA) to publish, annually, the state of higher education report. The purpose of the Report is two-fold. Firstly, the Report provides vital statistics on the state of higher education in Zambia and secondly, it seeks to provide a platform for discussing topical or emerging issues in higher education. Thus, in the first part of the Report, vital statistics relating to academic staff and the student population are provided. The second component comprises four papers on the theme, "*Curricula in Higher Education*" of the 2022 state of higher education report.

The data on vital statistics was obtained through a census of universities and university colleges in Zambia. The Census focused on student enrolment and graduation rates by gender and field of study, level of study, academic staff by rank, level of qualification, and specialisation. The results of the census show an increase in the number of students from 126,739 in 2021 to 156,044 in 2022. Of these students, the majority are in the fields of health and welfare, education, business and law. The Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) fields recorded the lowest number of students at 20 per cent (31,221) of all students.

The increase in the number of students in universities was largely attributed to the university sector's recovery from the Covid-19 pandemic and the introduction of university colleges and technical university colleges. In total 6 private university colleges and 1 technical university college were established during the year under review. On the other hand, the number of universities stood at 61. Of the 61 universities, 9 were public and the rest (52) were private.

Whilst there was a significant increase in the number of students, the report shows that the number of academic staff in universities increased marginally by 44(0.07%) from 5,553 in 2021 to 5597 in 2022. The bulk of academic staff are in the fields of health and welfare, education, business administration and law. In terms of qualifications, 64 per cent of academic staff had a Master's degree as their highest qualification while 26 per cent had Doctoral qualifications.

In terms of gender, the report shows that there were more male students than female students. Female students account for 46 per cent while male students account for 54 per cent of the total student population. The proportion of female students was even lower in the STEM fields as the Report shows that only 14 per cent of all female students were in the STEM fields. Similarly, at the level of academic staff, there were more male staff than female staff in universities. The number of male staff stood at 3,926 (70.1%) and for female staff was at 1,671 (29.9%).

The final component of the Report presents scholarly papers, mainly from Zambian academics from different Higher Education Institutions (HEIs), that reflect on the state of curricula in higher education. The papers show the importance of using curriculum development models or approaches that are responsive to student and societal needs. In this regard, the bottom-up and competence-based approaches are recommended as the most appropriate models for achieving this objective. Further, there is a call for the higher education system in Zambia to broaden its curricula to include foreign languages. It is argued that learning a foreign language increases global understanding, employment potential, develops life skills, and strengthens diplomatic relations world over.

ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

HEA	Higher Education Authority
HEI	Higher Education Institution
ICT	Information and Communication Technology
PG	Postgraduate
PhD	Doctor of Philosophy
STEM	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics
ZQF	Zambia Qualifications Framework
ZAQA	Zambia Qualifications Authority
CBU	Copperbelt University
SECAT	Student Evaluation of Courses and Teaching
CAD	Centre for Academic Development
HEA-IMIS	Higher Education Authority Integrated Information Management System
COVID-19	Corona Virus Disease 2019
CBTE	Competency-Based Teacher Education
CRC	Curriculum Review Committee
ZQF	Zambia Qualifications Framework
SuFO	Student Feedback Online
TEVETA	Technical Education, Vocation and Entrepreneurship Training Act
ZQF	Zambia Qualifications Framework
SuFO	Student Feedback Online

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CHAPTER ONE

OVERVIEW

1.1 Introduction

This report is the fourth in the series of the State of Higher Education in Zambia. The 2021 report was third in the series and ran with the theme *Policy and Legal Reforms in Higher Education*. Its focus was on the various reforms that the higher education sub-sector has undergone since 1964. Further, it examined structural changes induced by the *Higher Education* (Amendment) *Act No. 23 of 2021* and their implications for the sub-sector. The theme for the 2022 Report is *Curricula in Higher Education.* Thus, in addition to providing vital higher education statistics, the Report includes four papers that focus on the subject of curriculum in higher education.

1.2 Sources of Data for the Report

The data on which the chapter on vital statistics is based, was drawn from a questionnaire survey of all universities in Zambia. The questionnaire was administered through the Higher Education Information Management System (HEA-IMIS) and verified through physical visits to universities. The second component of the Report is based on manuscripts from independent authors who responded to the call for papers on the theme of curricula in higher education. The authors used various sources of data that included secondary and primary sources. The manuscripts are published as chapters in the report.

1.3 Structure of the Report

The Report has seven chapters. Chapter One provides an overview of the Report, while Chapter Two focuses on vital statistics pertaining to staff and the student population in higher education. The vital statistics include data on the number of universities in Zambia, academic staff numbers by qualification, student enrolment and graduation rate and gender dimensions in higher education. The statistics are vital for understanding the university education landscape in Zambia.

After the second chapter, the next four chapters that follow focus on curricula in higher education and are all based on papers from independent authors. The first paper (chapter three) examines principles and models of curriculum development for higher education. The papers point out that there is a growing need for higher education institutions to respond to the changing environment in a positive, learner-centred and sustainable manner through quality curricula. To address this, the paper proposes a bottom-up and competence-based approach to curriculum development.

The second paper (Chapter Four) focuses on the importance of quality assurance in curriculum development. It proposes curriculum development guidelines for higher education institutions. The paper emphasises the fact that curriculum needs to respond to national development goals, aspirations in national development plans, as well as the sustainable development goals. Further, curricula should incorporate emerging issues such as climate change, technological innovations and sustainability.

The third paper (Chapter Five) is a case study of student evaluation of teaching and learning. The authors use the case of the Copperbelt University to show how Student Evaluation of Courses and Teaching (SECAT) can be integrated with the student online portal as a way of getting feedback on the performance of teaching and learning.

The final paper (Chapter Six) advocates for the incorporation of foreign languages such as French, Swahili and Chinese in Zambia's higher education curriculum. They argue that foreign languages play an important role in international relations, employability, tourism, and intercultural competence.

Lastly, Chapter Seven summarises the Report and provides reflections on the state of the higher education for the year 2022. The Report further provides appendices on established and registered higher education institutions.

CHAPTER TWO

2022 VITAL STATISTICS ON ACADEMIC STAFF AND STUDENTS IN UNIVERSITIES IN ZAMBIA

2.1 Introduction

This chapter examines the 2022 statistics on universities in Zambia, their academic staff, and student population. The statistics are vital to the understanding of the university landscape with regard to the important variables such as enrolment and graduation levels, student distribution by programme and academic staff qualifications. The chapter is divided into three parts. The first part provides an update on the number of universities. In the last two parts, statistics on staff and students are examined.

2.2 Universities in Zambia

As of 2022, the number of universities in Zambia declined slightly from 63 universities in 2021 to 61 universities. This decrease was as a result of the deregistration of two private universities, namely MANCOSA university and University of the Foundation for Cross-Cultural Education. MANCOSA was deregistered because educational operations were moved to South Africa and the institution was operating as a student recruitment centre. The Foundation for Cross-Cultural Education was deregistered on account of winding up higher education operations in Zambia. Following the deregistration of the two universities, there are currently 52 private Universities and 9 public universities in Zambia.

A major development that occurred in 2022 is the registration and establishment of university colleges and technical university colleges. The Higher Education Authority registered 6 private university colleges. These are George Benson University College, UNICHOS University College, Lusaka Environmental Health University College, Central Africa University College, BEREA University College and London American University College. In addition, a public technical university college (Zambia University College of Technology) was established in the Copperbelt. In total there were 7 university colleges and technical university colleges in addition to the 61 universities in Zambia.

2.3 Statistics on academic staff in Universities in Zambia

Academic staff are crucial to teaching and learning, research, and public service in the higher education sector. The adequacy and quality of academic personnel have an impact on the quality of educational outcomes from the universities. Additionally, an institution's research output is also influenced by the quality of its academic staff. The academic statistics are examined from four perspectives, which are academic staff population, ranking, level of qualification, and field of specialisation.

In 2022, there were 5,597 academic staff in universities in Zambia. This represents a slight increase of 44 (0.7%) from the 5,553 academic staff reported in 2021. However, it is important to note that during the year under review seven university colleges were established. Given these statistics, it is evident that for universities alone the number of staff may have declined and the increase recorded maybe due to the newly established institutions. Of the 5,597 academic staff, 2,102 worked for public universities and 3,358 for private ones, or 37.6 per cent and 62.4 per cent, respectively.

As was the case in 2021, male academic staff still predominate in both public and private universities. In total, there were 1,671 (29.9%) female academic staff working in both public and private universities, compared to 3,926 (70.1%) male academic staff members. In public universities, only 650 (31%) of the 2,102 academic staff were female, whereas 1,452 (69%) were male.

In private universities, 1,021 (29.7%) of the 3,495 academic staff were female, compared to 2,474 (70.3%) male staff. Figure 2.1 shows the distribution of academic staff in universities by gender.

Figure 2.1: Distribution of Academic Staff in Universities by Gender.
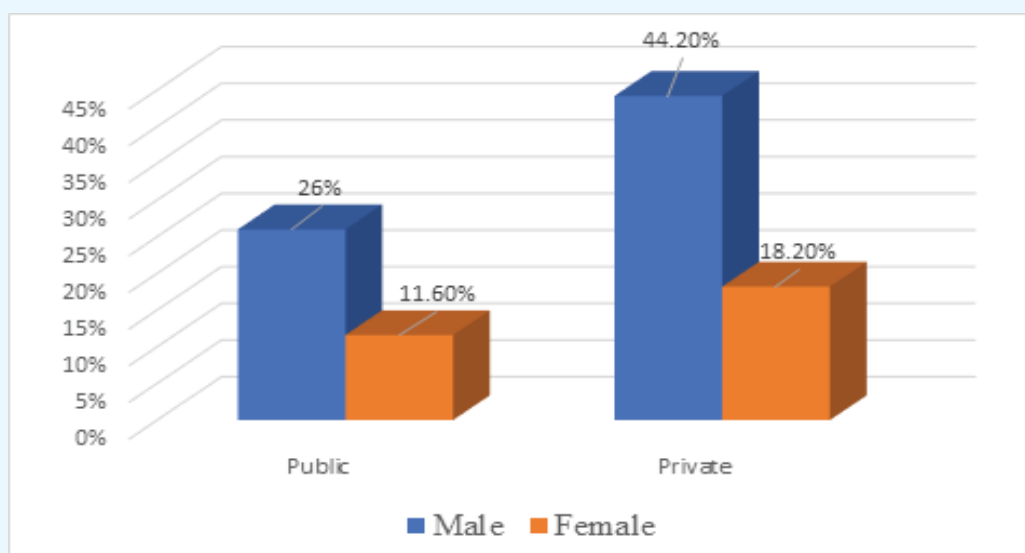
2.2.1 Academic Staff by Academic Rank

Statistics on academic staff were examined by rank as categorised by the HEA Classification of Academic Ranks and General Promotion Criteria. These ranks are Professor, Associate Professor, Senior Lecturer, and Lecturer.

Of the total number of academic staff, there were 321 professors in 2022, making up 5.7 per cent of the entire academic personnel. This demonstrates that, from the 5 per cent recorded in 2021, the number of professors in Zambian universities has increased by 0.7 per cent. According to Table 2.1, of the total number of Professors employed by universities, 43 (13.4%) were employed by public universities while 278 (86.6%) were employed by private universities.

Table 2.1: Number Of Academic Staff by Rank and Gender in Universities in Zambia

University type	Rank	Male	Female	Total
Public	Professor	41	2	43
	Associate Professor	62	5	67
	Senior Lecturer	170	46	216
	Lecturer	1,179	597	1,776
Sub-total		**1,452**	**650**	**2,102**
Private	Professor	223	55	278
	Associate Professor	114	37	151
	Senior Lecturer	542	179	721
	Lecturer	1,595	750	2,345
Sub-total		**2,474**	**1,021**	**3,495**
Grand Total		**3,926**	**1671**	**5,597**

There were 218 academic staff at the Associate Professorial level in universities in 2022, representing 4 per cent of the total academic workforce. Out of this total, 67 Associate Professors worked at public universities, while 151 worked in private universities, making up 41 per cent and 59 per cent, respectively. There has been no significant change in the number of academic staff holding the level of Associate Professor from what was stated in the *2021 State of Higher Education in Zambia Report*. In both public and private universities, the proportion of Associate Professors to the total academic staff has remained constant at 4 per cent, which is comparable to what was reported in the 2021 Report.

In both public and private universities, the Senior Lecturer rank had the second-highest proportion of academic staff. At this rank, there were 937 Senior Lecturers in total, spread between public and private

universities. This number amounts to 17 per cent of the total number of academic staff in universities. Public universities had 216 Senior Lecturers out of this total, whilst private universities had 721 Senior Lecturers. This amounts to 23 per cent and 77.7 per cent, respectively, of Senior Lecturers at public and private universities. From the share of 14.2 per cent that was recorded in 2021, the number of senior lecturers rose by 2.8 per cent.

As presented in Table 2.1, the rank of Lecturer had the greatest concentration of academic staff in both public and private universities. At this rank, there were 4,121 academic staff, representing 73.6 per cent of all academic staff at both public and private universities. Public universities had 1,776 of Lecturers, while private universities had 2,345. This amounts to 43 per cent and 57 per cent, respectively, of academic staff at the rank of Lecturer in public and private universities.

2.2.2 Academic Staff by Level of Qualification and Gender

This section disaggregates statistics on academic staff by level of qualification. Statistics shown in Table 2.2 show that Master's degree holders make up the bulk of the academic staff in universities in Zambia, while those with doctoral degrees make up the minority. In total, there were 1,453 academic staff with Doctoral degrees in 2022, representing 26 per cent of the total academic workforce. In terms of gender, there were only 57 (18%) female academic staff with Doctoral qualifications compared to 262 (82%) males with the same qualifications.

Table 2.2: Distribution of Academic Staff by Qualifications and Gender

	Level of Qualification	Male	Female	Total	%Total
Public Universities	Doctoral	320	65	385	6.9
	Master's	1,080	546	1,626	29
	Bachelor's	43	37	80	1.4
	Diploma	10	2	12	0.2
Sub-total		**1453**	**650**	**2102**	**37.5**
Private Universities	Doctoral	835	233	1,068	19.1
	Master's	1,341	622	1,963	35
	Bachelor's	273	142	415	7.4
	Diploma	26	24	50	1
Sub-total		**2,475**	**1,021**	**3,495**	**62.5**
Grand Total		**3,928**	**1,669**	**5,597**	**100**

From Table 2.2. it is evident that the bulk of their academic staff in universities have Master's degrees as their highest level of qualification. There were 3,589 academic staff with Master's degrees in total. The majority of academic staff at this level were in private universities, which had 1,963 (55%) of academic staff with Master's degrees.

At Bachelor's level, there were only 80 academic staff in public institutions, and 415 in private ones, out of a total of 495 academic staff with Bachelor's degrees in universities. This amounts to 16.2% and 83.8 per cent of academic staff in public and private universities, respectively, having Bachelor's degrees. Since fewer public universities offer Diploma and Certificate programmes, the higher proportion of academic staff with Bachelor's degrees in private universities is explained by the availability of more of these programmes there. The same is observed at Diploma level where there were 10 academic staff in public universities and 36 in private ones.

In terms of gender, Tables 2.1, and 2.2, which break down academic staff by gender, show that there are more male academic staff members than female academic staff members. For instance, Table 2.1 demonstrates that there were more males in all academic positions at universities. The gap between male and female staff was highest at the professorial position, where females accounted for only 5 per cent of staff.

At the level of a Lecturer, nearly half of the staff were females (41.3%). Thus, there were 1,021 females and 2,475 males in universities. This represents the highest proportion of female academic staff in the four ranks.

2.2.3 Academic Staff by Field of Specialisation

Table 2.3 breaks down the number of academic staff by broad academic field. As seen in Table 2.3, there were 1,191 academic staff members in the Health and Welfare sector, accounting for 21.2 per cent of all academic staff members in both public and private universities. With 1,129, or 20.1 per cent of all academic staff in both public and private universities, the field of education had the second-highest number of academic employees.

The field of education followed by the fields of Business, Administration, and Law, which together had 1,118 academic personnel, or 17.3 per cent of all academic employees. At 781 (13.9%) of the total academic staff, the Arts and Humanities had the fourth-highest number of academic personnel. Three Hundred and Thirty-Five (335) academic staff members were from the fields of engineering, manufacturing and construction accounting for 5.9 per cent of the total academic staff. A total 261(4.6%) academic staff members were in the fields of natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics, while 292 (5.2%) academic staff worked in the field of social sciences. Lastly, 226 (4%) academic staff of the total number of academic staff, were employed in the fields of agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and veterinary medicine.

2.3 Student Statistics

2.3.1 Student Population in Universities

The total number of students in 2022 was 156,044 as compared to 126,739 in 2021. This represents an 11.1 per cent increase in the student population. Table 2.4 provides statistics on student population by gender and type of HEI.

Table 2.4: Student Population in Universities-2022

Type of University	Male	Female	Total	%Male	%Female	%Total
Public	38,628	32,352	70,980	24.8	20.8	45.6
Private	46,011	39,053	85,064	29.4	25	54.4
TOTAL	**84,639**	**71,405**	**156,044**	**54.2**	**45.8**	**100**

There are a number of reasons that explain the positive growth in the number of students recorded in 2022. The introduction of university colleges and the recovery from COVID-19 were among the key factors that contributed to the increase in the number of students.

Another important feature to note from Table 2.4 is that although there are only 10 public universities that participated in the survey, they account for 46 per cent of the total student population. The rest (54%) were from the more than 50 private universities. This suggests that public universities, in general, continue to have higher numbers of students than public universities.

2.3.2 Student Population by Level of Study and Gender

This section provides statistics on students by level of study. The five levels of study considered in the survey were the Doctoral degree level, Master's degree, Postgraduate Diploma, Bachelor's degree, Diploma, and Certificate level. These statistics are further presented by gender as shown in Table 2.5.

Table 2.5: Number of Students by Level of Study and Gender

Level of qualification	Public		Private		Sub-Total		Total	% Total
	Male	*Female*	*Male*	*Female*	*Male*	*Female*		
Certificate	69	40	956	875	1,025	915	1,940	1.2
Diploma	1,763	2,463	6,089	6,244	7,852	8,707	16,559	10.6
Bachelor's	34,225	27,881	29,870	24,715	64,095	52,596	116,691	74.8
PG Diploma	96	66	749	602	845	668	1,513	1
Master's	2,335	1,813	7,536	6,204	9,871	8,017	17,888	11.5
Doctoral	140	89	811	413	951	502	1,453	0.9
Total	**38,628**	**32,352**	**46,011**	**39,053**	**84,639**	**71,405**	**156,044**	**100**

Table 2.5 shows that more students were enrolled at the Bachelor's level, which had a total of 116,691 students (74.8%) of all the students registered in 2022. Public universities, which accounted for 62,106 (53%) of all students enrolled at the bachelor's level, had the greatest proportion of students enrolled at this level. The second-highest level, the Master's degree, had 17,888 (11.4%) students and was followed by the Diploma level with 16,559 (10.6%) students.

Table 2.5 also shows that there were more male students than female students across all the six levels of study. Table 2,5 also reveals a reduction in the share of female enrolment as one moves towards higher degree levels. For example, from 45 per cent at the bachelor's degree level, the number of female students drops to 34 per cent at the doctoral level. This data make it clear that deliberate policy changes are needed to support female students' progression to postgraduate study levels.

2.3.3 Student Population by Gender

In terms of the student population by gender, Table 2.5 shows that out of 156,044 students who were registered in different universities, 84,639 students were male and 71,405 were female. This amounts to 54 per cent and 48 per cent of male and female students, respectively. Figure 2.2 illustrates the population differences between the male and female students.
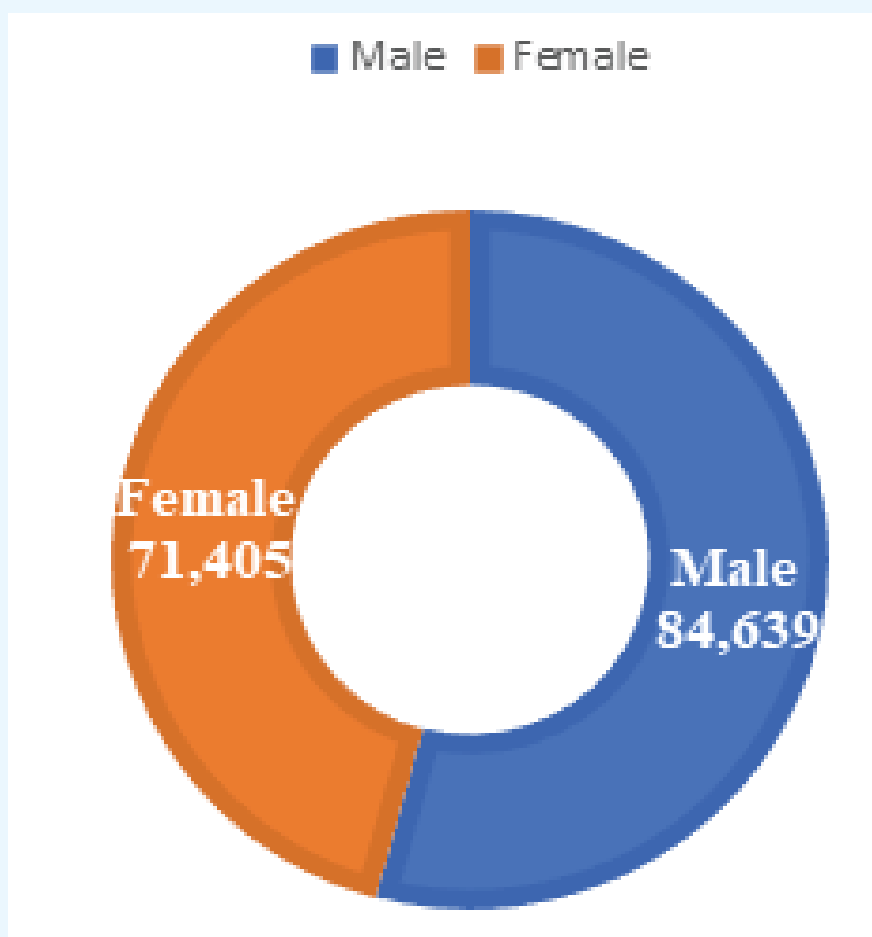
Figure 2.2: Distribution of Male and Female Students in Universities in Zambia-2022

Further, gender discrepancies are seen at the various academic levels where male students predominate. Table 2.5 shows that out of all the students enrolled at the Bachelor's level, 64,095 (55%) were male and 52,596 (45%) were female. At the Master's and Doctoral degree levels, comparable differences are seen. For instance, there were 951 male students pursuing Doctoral degrees, compared to 502 female students. This equates to 65 per cent of male and 35 per cent of female in Doctoral programmes, respectively. The Figure shows the importance of putting in place deliberate policies and programmes that attract more female students to enrol in various learning programmes at various levels.

2.3.4 Student Population by Academic Field

Table 2.6 provides student statistics by academic field of study. From the Table, it is evident that the academic field of 'health and welfare' had the most students overall in 2022. With 49,209 students, this field represented 31.5 per cent of all university students.

Table 2.6: Students by Academic Programme

Academic field	Cert.		Dip.		Bachelor's		PG-Dip.		Master's		Doctoral		Sub-total		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Agriculture, Forestry, Fisheries and Veterinary Medicine	60	50	136	95	3,299	2,664	0	0	162	81	9	7	3,666	2,897	6,563
Arts and Humanities	48	55	272	39	2,755	1,083	0	0	250	128	10	7	3,335	1,312	4,647
Business, Administration and Law	158	160	459	286	13,597	12,763	173	136	5,406	4,025	326	156	20,119	17,526	37,645
Education	369	392	1,100	703	6,601	5,690	516	387	1,176	1,230	419	213	10,181	8,615	18,796
Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction	107	24	295	135	7,254	1,936	19	13	263	117	26	12	7,964	2,237	10,201
Health and Welfare	102	139	5,075	7,012	16,462	17,740	52	89	1,174	1,289	40	35	22,905	26,304	49,209
Information and Communication Technology	43	8	126	148	4,510	1,324	32	10	422	141	23	11	5,156	1,642	6,798
Natural Sciences, Mathematics and Statistics	0	0	75	91	4,076	3,008	8	7	223	136	17	18	4,399	3,260	7,659
Services and Hospitality	104	40	189	84	360	695	18	13	38	25	4	1	713	858	1,571
Social Sciences	34	47	125	114	5,181	5,693	27	13	757	845	77	42	6,201	6,754	12,955
TOTAL	1,025	915	7,852	8,707	64,095	52,596	845	668	9,871	8,017	951	502	84,639	71,405	156,044

Besides 'health and welfare' Table 2.6 shows that 'business, administration and law' were the second most popular fields of study in 2022 with 37,645 students. This was followed by the field of education with 12 percent of the student population. This represented a 49 per cent increase in the number of students in the field per cent education increase from 12, 646 in 2021 to 18,796 in 2022.

A total of 10,201 students were enrolled in the STEM fields of engineering, manufacturing, and construction while 7,659 were enrolled in natural sciences, mathematics, and statistics. These figures correspond to 4.9 per cent and 6.5 per cent of all university students in universities, respectively. Additionally, there were 6,798 (4.3%) and 6,563 (4.2%) students, or and of all university students in Zambia studying in the field of information and communication technology; and agriculture, forestry, fisheries, and veterinary medicine, respectively. In total the STEM fields account for 20 per cent (31,221) of all students. Further, of the 31,221 students in the STEM fields 32 per cent were female. This also shows that only 14 per cent of all female students were in the STEM fields. It is clear that fewer Zambians continue to pursue careers in STEM fields than in other fields. These low figures highlight the urgent need to identify intentional means of raising STEM enrolment rates in accordance with national aspirations as espoused in policy and planning documents such as the *Higher Education Policy of* 2019 and the *Eighth National Development Plan*.

2.4 Statistics on Graduation in Universities in Zambia

In 2022, a total number of 21,198 students graduated from both public and private universities in Zambia. Out of the total number of students who graduated in 2022, 10,548 were males and 10,650 were females. This represents 49.8 per cent and 50.2 per cent of male and female graduates in 2022, respectively.

As shown in Table 2.7, the majority of graduates were at the Bachelor's degree level where a total of 13,575 graduated from different academic fields. This figure represents 64 per cent of the total number of graduates in 2022.

Table 2.7: Graduations by Level of Qualification and Academic Field

Academic field	Cert.		Dip.		Bachelor's		PG-Dip.		Master's		Doctoral		Sub-total		Total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F	
Agriculture, Forestry, Fisheries and Veterinary Medicine	35	35	66	49	177	136	0	0	5	3	0	0	283	223	506
Arts and Humanities	25	20	15	22	852	829	0	0	47	32	0	0	939	903	1,842
Business, Administration and Law	4	17	37	49	1,354	1,341	25	10	921	705	20	11	2,361	2,133	4,494
Education	29	14	184	200	1,979	1,391	82	67	109	106	1	1	2,384	1,779	4,163
Engineering, Manufacturing and Construction	0	0	0	0	75	15	0	0	15	8	0	0	90	23	113
Health and Welfare	75	170	1,111	1,704	1,483	1,558	0	0	481	410	1	2	3,151	3,844	6,995
Information and Communication Technology	0	0	28	5	289	77	0	21	40	13	0	0	357	116	473
Natural Sciences, Mathematics and Statistics	0	0	0	0	255	879	0	0	2	0	0	0	257	879	1,136
Services and Hospitality	0	0	0	0	4	10	0	0	0	1	0	0	4	11	15
Social Sciences	181	53	26	10	381	490	0	0	124	183	10	3	722	739	1,461
TOTAL	349	309	1,467	2,039	6,849	6,726	107	98	1,744	1,461	32	17	10,548	10,650	21,198

As shown in Table 2.7, the Master's level had the second-highest number of graduates, while the Doctoral level had the fewest. The data also shows that the three fields with the most graduates were Business, Administration, and Law (4,494), Health and Welfare (6,995 graduates), and Education (4,163 graduates). Together, these fields produced 73.8 per cent of all graduates in 2022.

Table 2.7 also shows that STEM fields have continued to yield fewer graduates than other academic fields, which is consistent with 2021 and 2020 trends. Table 2.7, for instance, shows that only 113 and 473 students, respectively, received degrees in Engineering, Manufacturing, and Construction and Information and Communication Technology from institutions.

2.5 Conclusion

This chapter demonstrates how both public and private universities continue to support Zambia's policy objective of expanding access to higher education. This is shown by the rising student population in 2022. On the other side, the chapter has also shown that there are still gender gaps in the student population at different levels of study, especially at higher levels, where the number of female students is much lower than that of their male counterparts. The chapter also demonstrates that STEM areas continue to have lower student and academic staff populations than other fields, despite being recognised as crucial to national growth. To solve these concerns, thoughtful policy actions will be required.

PRINCIPLES AND MODELS OF CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT FOR HIGHER EDUCATION

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3.1 Introduction

Hyper-globalisation, demographic change, the climate crisis, and the technological revolution plus changes accruing from the COVID-19 pandemic are all dramatically reshaping the world of work and how and where humans live. In addition to the adage that people will work in jobs that we do not even know about now, the workforce itself will become more diverse, with a greater range of ages. Given these realities, the approach to developing the curriculum of higher education institutions is and should be a prime concern for all stakeholders, especially for educators, policy-makers, the government, parents and the society at large.

Higher education institutions (HEIs) are a fertile learning and preparation environment. Therefore, curricular should be geared towards the advancement and refinement of students' employability, professionalism and life skills (Miller and Seller, 1985). Educational institutions and employers alike, are of the view that education should help students acquire relevant competencies (Bounds, 2009). Consequently, designing appropriate curriculum is vital for providing such knowledge, skills, values and attitudes.

Moreover, there is a growing need for higher education institutions to respond to the changing environment in a positive, learner-centred and sustainable manner through quality curriculum. For example, the competence-based curriculum produces graduates who are better prepared for their future management tasks. Students who have learned to adapt to change and to adapt their abilities to a variety of contexts and situations, develop competencies for a turbulent world (Pacheco, 2000, cited in Bounds, 2009).

Interestingly, the theory and practice of curriculum development in educational institutions have remained and continue to be intensely debated themes in academia. This is mainly because there are different definitions and interpretations of the term curriculum in addition to variations in approaches to curriculum design. Most importantly, the terms 'curriculum' and 'education' although defined and interpreted in many ways in theory, are nonetheless, interrelated and inseparable in practice (Mulenga, 2018). Therefore, designing an appropriate curriculum is considered as a foundation stone for high quality programmes and services, regardless of the type of educational programmes and institution.

Although it is well-acknowledged that a curriculum is critical in providing high quality educational programmes and services; there are gaps between how a curriculum is developed or is supposed to be developed in theory. Analysis of some of the theoretical and practical approaches to curriculum development for higher education is imperative.

3.2 Theory and Approaches of Higher Education Curriculum Designing

Darling-Hammond (1992) observed that public dissatisfaction with graduate performance in places of work has indirectly pointed to dissatisfaction with higher education curriculum. Institutions of higher learning have been variously criticised as ineffective in preparing graduates for their work, unresponsive to new demands and remote from practice (Chabatama, 2012, Manchishi and Masaiti, 2011, Mulenga and Luangala, 2015, and Banja, 2012a). Darling-Hammond (2000) reported that in more than 40 states, policy makers have enacted alternate routes to teacher certification. He adds that this was to create pathways into teaching other than those provided by traditional 4-year undergraduate teacher education programmes since the traditional way does not seem to produce the required product.

Voices of dissatisfaction have been raised from different professions as well (Goodlad, 1990; Strauss and Sawyer, 1986; and Banja 2012b). These voices, however, have urged the redesigning of higher education curricula so as to strengthen its knowledge and skill base, connections to both practice and theory, and

its capacity to support the development and production of relevant graduates. Proposals at the far ends of this continuum stand in stark contrast to one another. These are: the content–based and competency–based curriculum and the general curriculum versus the professional curriculum. One may want to find out which one of these approaches can guide the designing of quality higher education curriculum. There is a growing body of empirical evidence on the outcomes of different approaches to higher education curriculum designing. Let us then review the two pairs of education curriculum theoretical approaches and curriculum design types.

3.2.1 Content-Based versus Competency-Based Higher Education Curriculum Theoretical Approaches

Central to any discussion or study of higher education, student preparation is a judgment about what it is that students must be prepared to be and do upon graduation. Thus, the curriculum content of any tertiary programme is one of the criteria used to judge the quality of the programme and eventually, its products. Therefore, the content must be carefully designed to incorporate all the elements that will contribute to positive outcomes (Roofe and Miller, 2013). This view is supported by researchers who follow an outcomes-based approach to education (Biggs, 2001, Ben-Peretz, 2001, Cochran-Smith, 2005) and those who judge education quality in terms of its outcomes (Harvey, 2006).

This approach is also based on the premise that if the curriculum was designed to achieve clearly defined outcomes, then it would increase the likelihood of students' successful performance in their future responsibilities. A review of the literature on quality higher education indicated that there is a core body of knowledge and skills with which a student in a tertiary institution must be equipped in order to provide them with the appropriate knowledge, skills, values and attitudes for effective performance in their particular fields of specialisation (Darling-Hammond and Baratz-Snowden, 2005; Darling-Hammond et al., 2005; Ryan and Cooper, 2007).

A question may arise as to how the relevant competencies should be arrived at. Curriculum development theory for higher education proposes two approaches. These are the content-based and the competency-based curriculum design approaches. Zeichner (2010) explained that the old paradigm of university-based or college-based education, where academic knowledge is viewed as the authoritative source of knowledge, was based on the content-based approach to programme design. Chishimba (2001) described a content-based education curriculum as one that follows a common curriculum, which is based on the traditionally accepted subject divisions, which do not take into account the link that exists between theory and practice. More often than not, each course outline or syllabus is designed independently of the others, thereby risking a considerable amount of overlap and repetition. Thus, the fundamental integration that is required in order to give direction and meaning to the diverse components is not achieved.

Higher education courses in the content-based approach, as Shulman (1987) explained, are developed without having in mind the future needs for which the student is being prepared. Therefore, such programmes tend to be very academic, scholarly, irrelevant and remote from practice and industry. Consequently, content-based higher education curriculum creates a gap between theory and practice. This is the gap that Darling-Hammond and Bransford (2005), Hammerness (2006), Korthagen *et al.,* (2001) and Niemi and Jakku-Sihoven (2006) have all identified between theory and practice as the core problem for teacher education for instance.

The lack of connection between school-based practical experience and the academic content in teacher education programmes is believed to be the main reason why graduating teachers are not adequately prepared for teaching their subject areas in schools. The same can be said of different fields of specialisation at tertiary level of education. On the other hand, Bowles (2012) described the competency-based teacher education (CBTE) curriculum designing as one in which there are specific competencies to be acquired, with explicit corresponding criteria for assessing these competencies.

Chishimba (2001) further explained that the competency-based education programme development ensures that the competencies to be learned and demonstrated by students are specified in advance. It also ensures that the criteria to be used in making this determination are indicated. What Bowles (2012) and Chishimba (2001) are explaining is achieved through a process of job analysis which must be done prior to curriculum design. Job analysis, or situational analysis as some scholars call it, helps to ensure that all knowledge and skills in the CBTE curriculum are based on what is prevailing in the immediate and future responsibilities of the student.

Eventually, whatever, students will study following the CBTE will be similar, in respect of all situational factors, to what they will be expected to do in their subsequent industry. In this connection, Haberman and Stinnett (1973) stated that many educational administrators and curriculum scholars feel that the graduate of the content-based curriculum is not adequately prepared for the job and future demands, while the graduate of CBTE is more likely to acquire the relevant competencies. Therefore, the competency-based curriculum is a vehicle that can provide clearly discernible results, which give a definite response to the public's demand for accountability in education as explained by Frazier (1999).

Thus, the rationale for the competency-based curriculum design, forces curriculum developers to take a hard look at what their curriculum is designed to accomplish and to review carefully the way they go about accomplishing it. This makes the higher education curriculum 'fit for the purpose' which is a definition of quality higher education curriculum as defined by Biggs (2001). 'Fit for the purpose', is what Ball, Thames and Phelps (2008) also meant when they stated that there is a special domain of higher education knowledge and skills, for each discipline, which is key to each particular profession. By conducting job analysis, higher education curriculum developers are likely to identify the relevant knowledge, skills, values and attitudes. More theories on curriculum design models shed light on the broader categories of curriculum design; these are the top-down and the bottom-up categories of curriculum design models. Let us look at each category and see how they inform the procedures of curriculum designing in general and then narrow down to higher education curriculum designing.

3.4   Theoretical Models of Curriculum Designing

Models set the theoretical structure with which to understand curriculum elements and show certain principles and procedures (Oliva, 2009). Curriculum models are the theoretical frameworks for explanations of the different phases in curriculum development (Hill and Allan, 2004 and Henson, 2006). Oliva (2009) further explained that the purposes of a model are to guide curriculum designers in selecting and organising curriculum elements so as to facilitate the conceptualisation of their relationships. Thus, curriculum models are tools for thinking about curriculum designing. The different curriculum models describe the processes or steps involved in curriculum planning by curriculum experts (see Tables 3.1 and 3.2).

The different curriculum models also depict the procedure of how the curriculum planner is likely to design the curriculum as it relates to the specific purposes of education. There is no agreement among various authors on curriculum designing regarding the specific curriculum elements that each model should have. However, most of the literature reviewed suggests that there are common curriculum elements needed to produce a curriculum (Wiles and Bondi, 2007; Wiles, 2009). Ordinarily, these elements are: aims, goals and objectives (curriculum intent), subject matter or content, learning activities or strategies and evaluation.

An analysis of the different curriculum models reveals two major approaches to the designing of the curriculum: *top-down* and *bottom-up*. The top-down approach uses the deductive approach, while the bottom up uses the inductive approach to curriculum development.

The deductive approach to curriculum development starts with the general design or the global aspects of the curriculum before working down to the specifics. Curriculum developers using the top-down approach usually start the curriculum development process by determining what knowledge and skills should be learnt followed by the designing of the curriculum without considering the needs of the learners first.

The curriculum development is initiated by curriculum developers; usually those in authority then take it down to the implementers of the curriculum. The approach is often linear and prescriptive. The curriculum developers begin by a statement of aims or the philosophy of what they want students to learn and then design the content of the curriculum without finding out the needs of the targeted learner.

Although the *top-down* approach to curriculum designing is logical and systematic, one notable weakness is that it is not likely to provide guidance for designing an effective professional curriculum since it does not start with an analysis of the job. Regarding higher education, therefore, the top-down approach is not likely to produce an effective curriculum since it does not consider the sources of its objectives, which is the situational analysis or job description of prospective students. Table 3.1 presents examples of *top-down* curriculum models.

Table 3.1: Summary Table of Top-down Curriculum Development Models

Proponent	Curriculum Model	Steps / Phases / Elements
Tyler (1949)	Objectives / Classical / Rational	1. Starting objectives 2. Selecting learning experiences 3. Organising learning experiences 4. Evaluation
Robinson and White (1985)	Robinson Model	1. Developing goal statements 2. Developing defensible sets of objectives 3. Developing descriptions of growth (growth Developing goal statements 4. Developing defensible sets of objectives 5. Developing descriptions of growth (growth schemes) 6. Developing instructional objectives 7. Sequencing objectives 8. Devising growth schemes related to instruction and assessment methods 9. Developing written curriculum materials
Oliva (1992)	Oliva's Model (Deductive, linear, and prescriptive approach)	1. Statement of aims and philosophy of education 2. Specification of needs (students, particular community and subject) 3. Specification of curriculum goals 4. Specification of curriculum objectives 5. Organisation and implementation of curriculum 6. Specification of instructional goals 7. Specification of instructional objectives 8. Selection of strategies 9. Selection of evaluation techniques 10. Implementation of strategies 11. Evaluation of instruction 12. Evaluation of curriculum
Stenhouse (1975)	Stenhouse's Model	1. Selection of content 2. Selection of methods 3. Selection of evaluation procedures
Saylor, Alexander and Lewis (1981)	Saylor, Alexander and Lewis Model	1. Goals and objectives 2. Curriculum planning 3. Curriculum implementation 4. Curriculum evaluation
Wheeler (1967)	Wheeler's Model	1. Selection of aims, goals and objectives 2. Selection of learning experiences 3. Selection of content 4. Organisation and integration of learning experiences and content 5. Evaluation

The *bottom-up* approach begins with curriculum designing from the grassroots. This is done by consulting specific industry, associations, graduates from the programme and an analysis of the job for which the curriculum is being designed. It is inductive in approach, starting with curriculum planning and development with specifics that include needs and situation analysis of the industry concerned, which provide a strong foundation for the curriculum (Taba, 1962). The strong involvement of grassroots sources such as the active involvement of the industry and former graduates in curriculum development is essential in curriculum designing since decision-making regarding curriculum designing should be directed by the needs of the direct beneficiaries of a particular curriculum. The notable weakness of the *bottom-up* approach is the time consumed for needs or situation analysis or of the job description for which the curriculum is to be designed.

Table 3.2 presents examples of *bottom-up* curriculum models.

Table 3.2: Summary Table of Bottom-up Curriculum Development Models

Proponent	Curriculum Model	Steps / Phases / Elements
Taba (1962)	Taba's Inverted Model (Sequential, logical, scientific, classical, means-end model)	1. Diagnosis of needs 2. Formulation of objectives 3. Selection of content 4. Organisation of content 5. Selection of learning experiences 6. Organisation of learning experiences 7. Determination of what to evaluate and ways and means of doing it
Audrey and Howard Nichols (1978)	Cyclical Model	1. Situation analysis 2. Selection of objectives 3. Selection and organisation of content 4. Selction and organisation of methods 5. Evaluation
Malcolm Skilbeck (1976)	Dynamic/Interactive Model	1. Situation analysis 2. Goal formulation 3. Program building 4. Interpretation and implementation 5. Monitoring, feedback, assessment, reconstruction
Robert Gagne (1979)	Gagne's Instructional Design System	1. Needs analysis 2. Analysis of goals and objectives 3. Analysis of alternate ways to meet needs 4. Designing instructional components 5. Analysis of resource and constraints 6. Constraint-removal actions 7. Selecting or developing materials 8. Designing student-performance assessment 9. Field testing and formative evaluation 10. Adjustments, revisions, and further evaluation 11. Summative evaluation of systems 12. Operational installation
Weinstein and Fantini (1970)	Weinstein and Fantini Model	1. Identifying the learners needs 2. Ascertaining the learner's concerns 3. Diagnosing the reasons for the learner's concerns 4. Developing a set of desired outcomes aimed at meeting the learner's concerns 5. Developing a theme to organise the lesson 6. Selecting content vehicles to achieve the desired outcomes 7. Developing the teaching strategies that are appropriate to learning skills, content vehicles, organising ideas and outcomes 8. Evaluating the effect of the curriculum
Biggs (1999)	Curriculum Alignment Model	1. Analysis of leaner's needs for the programme 2. Content and learning activities designed to meet learning and programme outcomes 3. Assessment methods designed to meet learning outcomes

3.5   Curriculum Design Models Supporting Higher Education Curriculum

All curricula planning and designing should be based on a well-defined aim of education and model for curriculum design (Kelly, 2004, 2009). The general focus of any higher education programme is to help students acquire appropriate and desirable knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that will prepare graduates of a particular programme to effectively function in their future and immediate responsibilities. In order to achieve this, there is need to design a curriculum that is aligned to the immediate and long term demands of

a particular field of study. From the two model approaches that several scholars have put forward as shown in Tables 3.1 and 3.2, the bottom-up model seems quite appropriate to the designing of higher education curriculum since the model begins with the identification of the needs of the discipline and industry for a particular curriculum. Of particular interest among the entire bottom-up models is the curriculum alignment model that was proposed by Biggs (1999) which is one of the most influential models in higher education. The basic premise of the model as Biggs (2003) explained is that a curriculum is designed so that the content, learning activities and assessment tasks are aligned to the learning outcomes that are intended in the programme based on the future responsibilities of learners. Knight (2001) explained that this will help the curriculum designer to have a clear idea of what students should be able to do at the end of the course in relation to their anticipated responsibilities in society. However, we know that students will inevitably tend to look at assessment, as far as they are able, to optimise their assessment performance. Blumberg (2009) explained that the assessment should test the learning outcomes that students are to achieve, that, by being strategic optimisers of their assessment performance, they will actually be working to achieve the intended learning outcomes, which are in tune with the future job description. Thus, by so doing, a curriculum designed along the principles of curriculum alignment will help students to take responsibility of their own learning. The advantage with the curriculum alignment model is that it encourages clarity in the designing of the curriculum and transparency in the links between learning and assessment. Thus, it facilitates deep learning as the activities are designed for the intended purpose and should, therefore, improve the quality of learning and graduates in the profession (Biggs, 1999, 2003; Blumberg, 2009 and Knight 2001). The ideas explained here can be summarised in Figure 3.1 below.
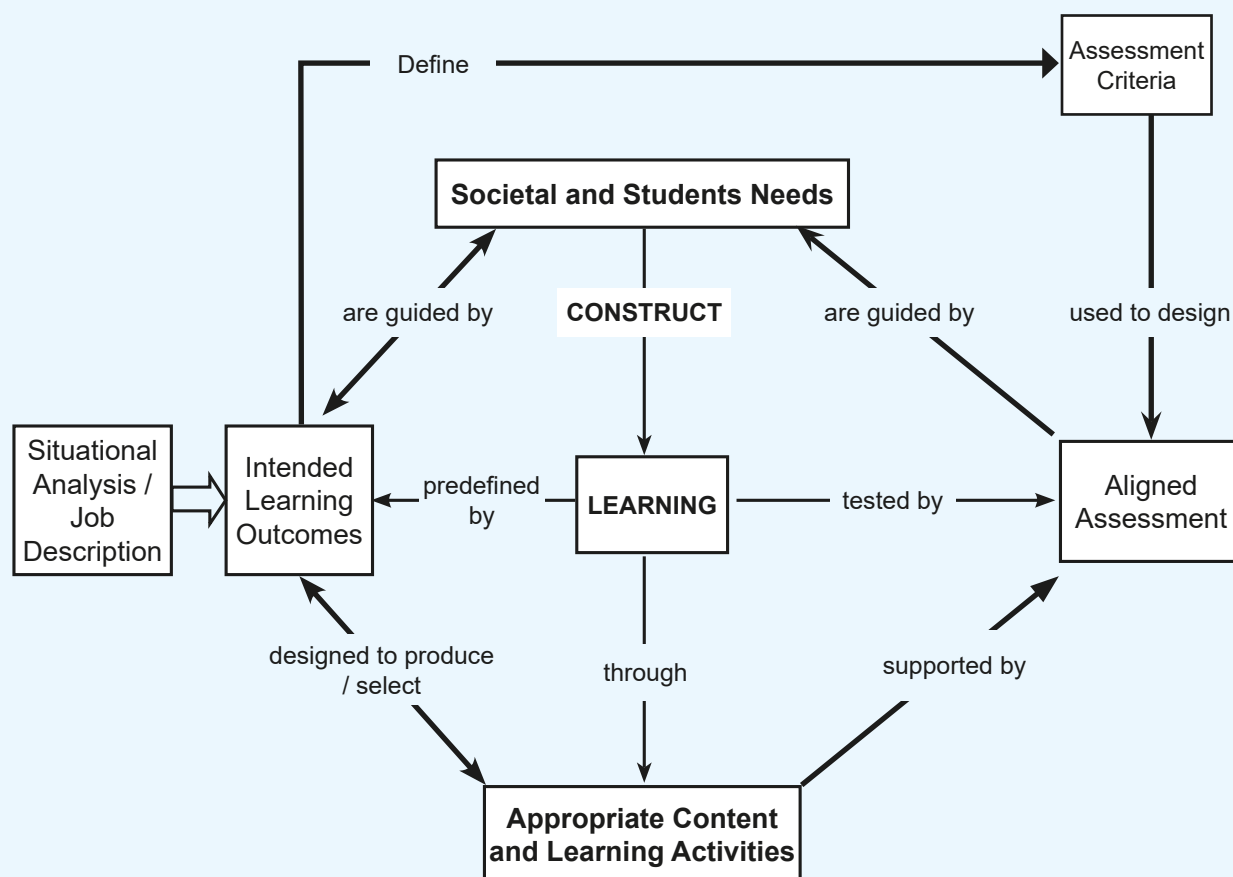
Source: Biggs (1999)

Figure 3.1: Curriculum Design Alignment Model

Designing a curriculum that is aligned to the intended learning outcomes is one thing while implementing it as designed is another. It is for this reason that the model in Figure 3.1 clearly indicates that learning should be predefined by the intended learning outcomes and through appropriate content and learning activities. In the case of higher education curriculum, educators (lecturers) should implement the curriculum in a way that will lead to the achievement of intended learning outcomes that have been preset according to

the job description. Curriculum theory further divides higher education curriculum into professional and general curricular. Let us see how these two types of curricula also inform this discussion.

3.6 Professional Curriculum in the Light of Job Analysis

Although universities and colleges enjoy a considerable amount of academic freedom, curriculum designing and review at higher education institutions should be based on a clear distinction that exists between a general education curriculum and a professional education curriculum. Higher education is a public good and should, therefore, be accountable and responsive to the needs of the society in terms of the relevance and quality of programmes and eventually the graduates that are produced.

A general education curriculum is one in which the knowledge and skills that a learner acquires prepare them for general conceptualisation of the discipline whereas a professional education curriculum, as Bobbitt (1924) and Jones (1999) put it, is designed according to the job analysis or description of the profession. Thus, a student who is on the programme that is designed according to the principles of a general curriculum will study with a general view that he or she will venture in any related field of work upon graduation. However, the designing of a professional education curriculum, to which most higher education programmes belong, requires that the curriculum developer first identifies the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes that a particular profession demands from the graduate.

Principles of curriculum design for a professional education curriculum requires that the preliminary step in curriculum designing should be job analysis/description, which scholars such as Print (2007), Taba (1962), Biggs (1999) and others behind the bottom-up curriculum design models refer to as situational analysis. Jones (1999), Charters (2008) and Bobbitt (1924) all recommended that when designing a professional education curriculum, job analysis should commence the process before the subsequent stages of formulation of objectives, selection and organisation of content, selection and organisation of learning activities and evaluation procedures are done. It is important for job analysis to precede all the other stages of curriculum designing in a professional education curriculum design process because it will enable the curriculum designer to capture the needed competencies for the student's future responsibilities in the labour market for which the programme is designed (Jones, 1999).

The majority, if not all higher education curricula, are professional education curricula in the sense that the future required competencies are clearly stipulated as reflected in the particular industry requirements. In summary, the theoretical perspectives of curriculum designing for a professional education curriculum are all pointing to the fact that curriculum designing for most higher education programmes should be anchored on the purpose of the programme, which is usually well-defined by job description so as to capture the relevant knowledge, skills, values and attitudes as reflected in the particular immediate and future industry. The theoretical perspectives of higher education curriculum design as explained in the preceding sections are summarised in Figure 3.2 that follows here below:
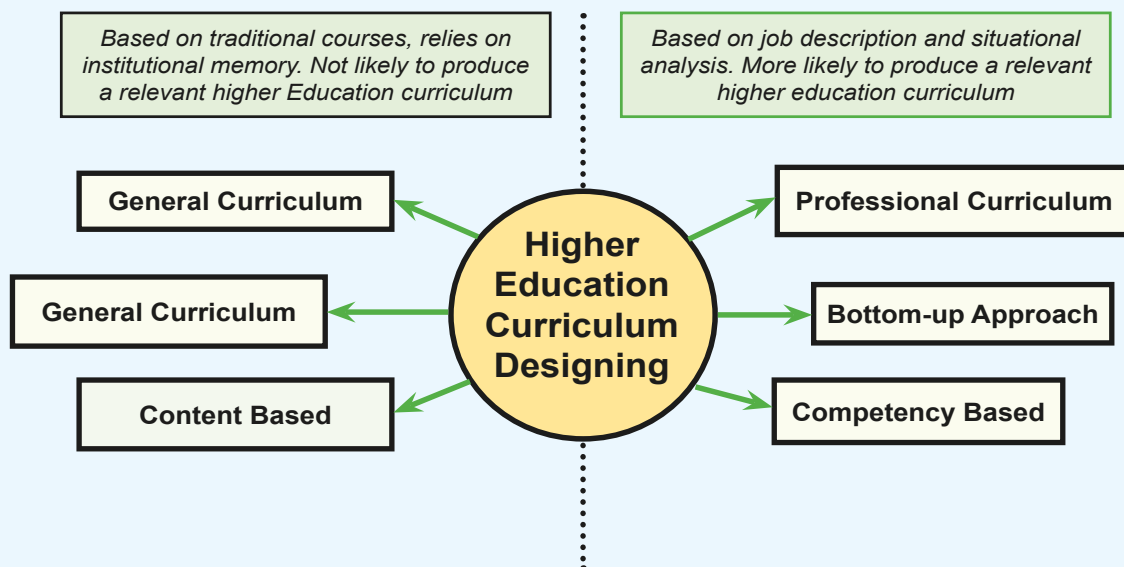

Figure 3.2: Summary of the Theoretical Perspectives of Higher Education Curriculum Designing

3.7 Conclusion

In almost all parts of the world, graduates from higher education or tertiary institutions directly take up positions of responsibility and decision-making that influence the economies of their nations. Given the underdevelopment of most countries in Africa, the demand for relevant higher education cannot be overemphasised. On the other hand, however, African institutions of higher learning have been faced with many challenges arising from increased student enrolment, liberalisation of education systems, poor funding, brain drain of its academic staff and the need to catch up with modern technology as elaborated by scholars such as Wiles and Bondi (2007), and Masaiti and Simuyaba (2018). As a result of all these pressures, higher education is challenged to maintain quality in curriculum development and implementation. Thus, to ensure that education programmes in these institutions meet local and international standards, quality assurance through the development of appropriate curricular is a driver for institutions to achieve excellence if the graduates have to remain relevant to their societies.

Moreover, curriculum development for higher education sits at the intersection of the national and the university or college policy, educational research and academic practice (Mulenga, 2020). For instance, institutional policy can be challenging and sometimes, an impediment to quality education because of the traditional cultures of university education. Although university traditions tend to take long to change, when it comes to curriculum development, it is vital to move with the changing times or else institutions may risk offering outdated and irrelevant programmes. It is for this reason that following the correct way of developing a curriculum for higher education is crucial as it has been explained in this paper. All curricular for higher education must be fit for the purpose for which students are being prepared. The competency-based curriculum, the bottom-up curriculum approach and the principles of a professional curriculum tend to provide an appropriate road map for developing a curriculum that best respond, to the challenges of a fast-changing world.

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CHAPTER FOUR

ASSURING QUALITY IN CURRICULUM DEVELOPMENT AND REVIEW: PROPOSING VIABLE GUIDELINES FOR HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

By

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4.1 Introduction

Curriculum development is a complex process that requires a combination of factors to be considered for it to be successful. Universities are constantly seeking ways to develop and implement curricula that meet the needs of students and society. Fung (2017), highlighted the need for higher education curricula to be connected to the networks of knowledge, social institutions, persons, learning, the natural environment and culture. Annala *et al.* (2016), note that a good curriculum is able to tackle issues that have solutions embedded in knowledge and educational activities and practices. Examples of such issues include climate change and technological innovations.

Annala *et al.* (2016), further argue that areas of knowledge, skills and approaches need to be relevant for both professional work and lifelong learning. This makes it necessary to focus on employment attributes and career pathways in the development of curricula. This is also emphasised in the Zambia Standards and Guidelines for Quality Assurance in Higher Education (ZSG-QA) (HEA, 2021). The ZSG-QA Guideline 3.1.1 highlights what a higher education must follow in packaging learning programmes that meet aspirations and needs of learners and society locally, regionally, and internationally. Through a quality curriculum, students should develop capabilities and competencies that lead to meaningful and productive lives (Stabback, 2016). In addition, a good curriculum should respond to national and international development goals such as the eighth national development plan and the sustainable development goals. This requires that the curriculum incorporates emerging issues such as climate change and sustainability.

4.2 Factors Affecting the Quality of Curriculum Development

Smidt (2015), suggests that quality assurance is multi-dimensional and contextual and thus, often, quality assurance frameworks fail to address all aspects of quality. This is complicated further by emerging and intersecting issues impacting on all aspects of society with a bearing on the quality of education. These emerging issues include global pandemics such as COVID-19, emerging technologies and the applications of artificial intelligence, such as the emergence of ChatGPT.

The complexity of issues in society today poses a challenge in curriculum development. For example, past models would have followed an objective and linear approach to curriculum development, which may not be viable today. Examples of such models are Tyler's model and the Wheeler model (Urevbu, 1985). Tyler's model posed four areas concerning curriculum development namely; education purposes, educational experiences, how the experiences must be organised, and evaluation. Wheeler (1971) provides a cyclical model, which is basically an adaptation of Tyler's linear model. Today, there is a need to be responsive to societal needs locally and globally, and to the electronic curriculum made possible by the internet, ICTs, and artificial intelligence.

Besides the impact of these technologies, several other factors affect the process and quality of curriculum development and quality assurance in universities. These factors include stakeholder involvement and resource availability. Stakeholders include students, faculty, administrators, and employers. Their involvement ensures that the curriculum is tailored to meet the needs of both the students and the society, and that the curriculum aligns with the mission and values of the university (Wong and McNamara, 2015). On the other hand, the availability of resources significantly impacts the process and quality of curriculum development. As such Gómez and Flores (2018) pointed out that the allocation of adequate resources is crucial for the success of curriculum development.

4.3 Translating Critical Factors into Practical Guidelines for Quality Assurance

Curriculum development is a complex process. As seen above, there are many issues that must be considered and addressed in curriculum development. Today, the curriculum developed must meet external accreditation standards at national and international levels. Therefore, quality assuring the curriculum development and review process is critical. A well-developed curriculum is essential to optimize student learning experiences, learning outcomes, and improved employability. As such, the guidelines proposed here entail serious collaboration and engagement of staff in Schools and Units. Figure 4.1 summarises curriculum review process steps, which must begin at the departmental level.

Step 1. Departmental Board Level

The Departmental Board must convene and appoint a Curriculum Review Committee (CRC) (e.g., 3 or 4 members), compromising the head of department (HoD), programme coordinator and any lecturer(s) nominated by the HoD depending on the size of the department. Further, lecturers with expertise may be coopted from other departments within the School or in other Schools; cross-departmental teaching is allowed. Curriculum reviews must be evidence-based. Therefore, the CRC will prepare a draft revised curriculum and its report taking into account inputs from relevant stakeholders but not limited to the following:

   (a) Views of alumni or former students;
   (b) Views of current students and their evaluation of courses;
   (c) Views of prospective employers or industry experts;
   (d) Labour market expectations of graduate attributes; and
   (e) Professional Bodies and related government departments.

The Departmental Board will re-convene to review the CRC report and to scrutinise the draft revised curriculum. A curriculum review workshop may be convened to receive inputs of stakeholders (alumni, employers, and experts) on the revised curriculum. When the Departmental Board is satisfied, the revised curriculum (on HEA template), the review report, and the board minutes are forwarded to the dean/director for consideration by the Board of Studies.

Step 2. Board of Studies Level

The Dean/Director upon receiving the revised curriculum, the review report, and the Departmental Board Minutes will convene the Board of Studies for consideration and recommendation. The Board of Studies comprises the Dean or Director and all lecturers in the particular School/Unit. Deans and Directors of other Schools/Units are invited and expected to be represented.

Step 3. Academic Development Committee

With approval of the Board of Studies, the Dean/Director will present the revised curriculum and the Board's recommendations to the Academic Development Committee of Senate (ADC). If recommending for approval, ADC will present its report to Senate for final endorsement.

Step 4. Accreditation by Higher Education Authority

After programmes are approved by Senate, an application is lodged for accreditation by the Higher Education Authority (HEA). The HEA applies criteria to assess the learning programmes for accreditation. For example, the criteria focus on programme scope and curriculum structure including the following: rationale, aims and objectives of the programme; programme learning outcomes; level of qualification and articulation in the Zambia Qualifications Framework (ZQF); and teaching and learning plan demonstrating conformity to the notional hours and credits stipulated for each course, programme, and ZQF level. The HEA will provide feedback on the evaluation process.

Step 5. Registration by Zambia Qualifications Authority

Once accredited, the HEA will recommend the programme for registration with the Zambia Qualifications Authority (ZAQA). It is important to note that in the curriculum review process, departments and schools

must take cognisance of the level descriptors and the employability attributes in the Zambia Qualifications Framework (ZQF). A level descriptor defines for each level (i.e., certificate, diploma, degree) the following:

  (a) Knowledge (What a qualification holder knows and understands),
  (b) Skill (What a qualification holder can do), and
  (c) Competence (Application of knowledge, skills and values).

Figure 4.1. Steps in the Curriculum Review or Development, Approval, Accreditation and Registration Process (CBU CAD, 2022)

4.4 Reflections on the Guidelines

Quality assurance in the development and review of higher education curricula is essential as it, among other benefits, improves the learning experiences of the students while meeting the needs of other stakeholders such as the industry and the government. It is, therefore, important that the views and needs of these stakeholders are integrated in these processes. For this reason, these guidelines point to the importance of collaboration and participation in the review or development of the curriculum. This participation becomes a source of capacity building and cross-fertilisation of experiences. This creates too, among staff, a sense of collegiality and an awareness of the scope of learning programmes and their constituent courses. The suggested approach will provide a better appreciation of the curriculum, regulations and standards needed for effective teaching, learning, and assessment.

4.5 Conclusion

The guidelines suggested are premised on the need to strengthen governance processes for curriculum development and review. Without following a recognised structure, it is difficult to develop a quality curriculum. Lacking in participatory development, the implementation will not be effective.

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CHAPTER FIVE

QUALITY ASSURANCE IN VARIOUS DELIVERY MODES OF HIGHER EDUCATION: INNOVATION THROUGH INTEGRATION OF STUDENT EVALUATION OF COURSES AND TEACHING (SECAT) WITH THE STUDENT PORTAL AT THE COPPERBELT UNIVERSITY, ZAMBIA

By

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5.1 Introduction

Quality assurance is a process that validates the quality of educational services, including teaching and learning being offered. In the context of higher education, quality assurance is essential to guarantee that the courses offered are of high quality, relevant, and meet the learning needs of students (Ramsden, 2018). Student evaluation of courses and teaching is commonly used in quality assurance in higher education (Carless and Boud, 2018).

Regardless of delivery mode, it is important to get feedback on the performance of courses and students in these courses are best placed to provide it. It is important to avail instruments that can be delivered face-to-face and online from anywhere. Reaching all students to evaluate all their courses is often a challenge. Another challenge is the laborious process associated with data entry for analysis of paper-based course evaluations. For example, the Copperbelt University has more than 10,000 registered students; it would be a formidable task to analyse questionnaires manually. This is where online administration of course evaluations by students can be advantageous. Online platforms can be designed to be accessible by all students and to provide results in real time. This paper is a case study of Student Evaluation of Courses and Teaching (SECAT) integrated into the Copperbelt University student portal called OPUS.

5.2 Student Engagement and Feedback

According to Cheng *et al.* (2019), in student evaluation of courses and teaching, students provide feedback on their learning experiences. SECAT instruments are typically standardised questionnaires administered to students at the end of a course or module (Mudd *et al.,* 2018). The questionnaire items explore perceptions on the quality of teaching, the relevance of the course content, the effectiveness of the assessment methods, and the overall learning experience (McInnis and James, 2018). Thus, SECAT can provide valuable feedback to instructors, allowing them to improve the quality of their teaching and course design (Mudd *et al.,* 2018). It provides institutions with valuable information about the quality of their courses and teaching, which can be used to identify areas for improvement and make strategic decisions about course design and development (Weimer, 2018). It also provides students with a voice, allowing them to provide feedback on their learning experiences and ensuring that their needs are considered (McInnis and James, 2018).

Students are good sources of information for course improvements. Usually, when they express satisfaction with a course, it suggests that they perceive it as relevant to meet their future goals. Overall, most students anticipate courses in which they learn to prepare them for successful transition to sustainable futures. The students also feel a sense of recognition when they provide feedback on their course experiences. Therefore, the Copperbelt University introduced SECAT as one way of getting valuable information needed for quality assurance and professional development of lecturers.

5.3 Research on SECAT and Quality Assurance

Student feedback plays a major role in quality assurance in higher education. A number of studies have explored issues around student feedback on the quality of teaching and learning received with mixed results.

Abedin *et al.* (2014), conducted a comparative study of students' and lecturers' views on the student evaluation process using the Student Feedback Online (SuFO) implemented at Universiti Teknologi Mara (UiTM) in Malaysia. The results showed that both lecturers and students agreed that SuFO is an important

and useful tool in improving teaching and learning whether negative feedback was received from students or not. However, more lecturers than students were of the view that this evaluation process was effective. A study by Sanchez *et al.,* (2020) analysed the relationship between student evaluation of teaching and academic achievement in higher education at National Polytechnic School in Ecuador. Both the student variability within sections and the variability between sections with different lecturers were taken into account. Taken together, the results revealed that the relationship between student evaluation of teaching and academic achievement was weak, once the effect of previous academic achievement was controlled. Constantinou and WijnenMeijer (2022) noted the need to triangulate the evaluation methods to fully assess the quality of courses and teaching. On the other hand, student evaluations can reveal their authentic experiences. For example, Al Nasser (2018) examined student evaluations at Andrews University in Michigan, the United States of America (USA). The results showed that higher ratings were given to courses with lecturers that were always available and helpful. In Malawi (Chikazinga, 2018) and in Zambia (Banda, 2009), it was found that lecturers had a positive perception towards student evaluations for formative purposes.

In Ghana, Quansah (2020) assessed the reliability of students' evaluation of teaching. It was found that such data had low reliability as there was little consistency in the ratings of students regarding teaching effectiveness. The study recommended the need for students' sensitisation and awareness if they are to provide an accurate evaluation of their lecturers' quality of teaching.

In Zimbabwe, Viriri and Chufama (2021) at Chinhoyi University of Technology found that student evaluations had no significant impact in terms of improvement in teaching and learning. The evaluations were subjective, unreliable and biased. It was also showed that students lacked adequate time to complete the evaluations due to other academic commitments and adequate knowledge to evaluate teaching by lecturers. The use of multiple methods of evaluating lecturers' teaching was thus, recommended.

Overall, the studies show the positives associated with student evaluations of courses and teaching but that there was need to use the results for formative purposes. Further, it was important to triangulate the results of student evaluations with other methods to get a more valid picture of the quality of teaching. Given the importance of the evaluations, the studies also draw attention to the need to orient and sensitise students on the importance of authentic and objective assessments.

5.4   Case Study-SECAT in University Setting

The SECAT at the Copperbelt University was developed and programmed for integration with the student portal, OPUS.

5.5   Development of SECAT

The SECAT was developed by the Centre for Academic Development (CAD) through a consultative process. First, all student evaluation instruments used by the University before 2017 were compiled and analysed to assess how widely they were used and their possible adoption. Different Schools adopted different instruments and did not consistently evaluate courses. The instruments were also considered bulky and time-consuming to administer and analyse. It was observed that only individual lecturers used the results of what students said about their courses. Generally, student evaluation of courses was not popular among academics. There was need for a simpler instrument and sensitisation of staff on student evaluation of teaching. In this regard, a series of workshops were held to develop the instrument and sensitise staff.

The workshops provided an opportunity to rationalise the SECAT and to provide feedback on a simplified and consolidated instrument. The resultant SECAT instrument comprised twenty statements in two sections, each with ten items. In one section, students evaluate the course and in the other, they evaluate the teaching. For each statement, students indicate the level of agreement on Likert scale where a score of *1 indicates 'strongly disagree', a score of 5 ' strongly agree', and a score of 3 indicates a 'neutral' position.*

The paper version of the CBU SECAT is in *Annex 1*. It carries simple statements to characterise the course and simple statements to depict the experiences in learning the course. Students were also asked to comment or suggest on how best the course or the teaching could be improved.

In order to gain acceptability by the wider community of CBU at the academic and management levels; the SECAT instrument was subjected to scrutiny during the workshop held for HoDs and Deans from all the Schools of the Copperbelt University. Each statement in the instrument was scrutinised to remove any ambiguity. Further, the instrument was tabled by the Academic Development Committee and the Senate, where it was validated and adopted as the only instrument to be used by all students of the Copperbelt University at the end of each academic year. The students were not directly involved in the development of the instrument. However, they were sensitised on their role as key stakeholders and end users of SECAT and they showed favourable response.

5.5.1 Integration of SECAT into the OPUS

While the instrument was accepted, the laborious process associated with data entry for analysis of paper-based course evaluations remained a challenge. The Centre for Academic Development elicited the support of the Directorate of Information and Communication Technologies and the School of Information and Communication Technologies who agreed to lead a project of programming the SECAT for electronic administration through the online portal, OPUS. The instrument became an e-SECAT. On OPUS all registered students could access and evaluate their courses. Evaluation reports are generated in real time. Lecturers can access the evaluation reports for courses to which they are assigned. Heads of departments can access SECAT reports for all courses under their supervision. Deans and directors can access all SECAT reports in their Unit. This allows for Departmental and School Boards of Studies to have students' perspectives and feedback on the performance of their courses. Annex 2 summarises the guidelines for students and the other for staff.

5.6 Rationale and Benefits of e-SECAT

The SECAT evaluation reports are open at the end of the course and filled before an examination registration slip is printed. This ensures that all registered students can evaluate all their courses before they take examinations. Only aggregated reports are generated ensuring anonymity. It is expected that the reports will be authentic and cannot be linked back to individual students. Higher Education Authority (HEA) guides that student feedback on course and learning programmes is an important aspect of quality assurance and thus, SECAT reports can assist in decisions and interventions regarding course performance. It is also worth noting that at the learning programme level SECAT is formative and thus, course evaluations can be a source of learning for subsequent course improvements.

The above benefits outweigh the challenges associated with SECAT. For example, SECAT is often seen as a form of summative assessment, rather than formative assessment (Tarrant et al., 2019). This means that the feedback provided by students is often not used to improve the course or teaching, but rather to evaluate the performance of the instructor. This can create a culture of blame and undermine the effectiveness of SECAT as a quality assurance tool (Bressler and Bressler, 2019). As noted above, SECAT reports can assist in decisions and interventions regarding course performance in the future.

Another limitation of SECAT is that it can be influenced by a range of factors, including student motivation, instructor personality, and the nature of the course content (McInnis and James, 2018). For example, students may be more likely to provide positive feedback if they like the instructor, even if the quality of teaching is poor. Similarly, students may be more likely to provide negative feedback if they find the course content difficult or uninteresting, even if the quality of teaching is high (Tarrant, Ware and Mohammed, 2019). This is one concern that CAD must research and provide insights on. Anecdotal evidence suggests that students have positive career outlooks resulting from their courses and reasonably assess courses.

5.7 Further Adaptation and Development of SECAT

There are opportunities for the further adaptation and development of the SECAT and utilisation of its data. For example, the current version was developed as a generic tool not taking into account the different delivery modes. Therefore, it will be essential to further develop the items of SECAT to be able to capture student experiences and perceptions with different modes. This differentiation is necessary given the

transition to blended modes of teaching and learning in the post-COVID-19 era. For example, it will be essential to incorporate information on their experiences with online learning management systems.

Secondly, there is need to ensure that the report structure functions as desired and that monitoring and evaluation results feed into the quality assurance processes. In the version of SECAT described here, the reports generated are accessible to the heads of departments who are expected to have oversight on quality of course delivery. Guidelines are needed on how to deal with the situation found in the reports, for example, courses that are negatively evaluated. It is also important for the quality assurance directorate to use these reports to profile the trend obtaining across programmes and use it for continuous professional development of staff. Further, this can be part of institutional research reporting or serve as an important stakeholder input into the curriculum review processes.

5.8 Conclusion

Student evaluation of courses and teaching is an important, if not indispensable aspect of quality assurance. This case study has shown how, by integrating the SECAT instrument in the learning management system, all students can evaluate their courses. The reporting mechanism assures confidentiality and the reports are only accessible to those with defined credentials. As part of institutional research, it is imperative to explore and track the impact of the evaluations on course improvement and programme quality. It is also necessary to gather insights into the pedagogical changes that lecturers undertake, catalysed by the feedback in the SECAT reports.

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CHAPTER SIX

STATUS OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES IN HIGHER
EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

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6.1   Introduction

Zambia is a landlocked country at the heart of Central Africa, with 73 ethnic groupings, each one speaking its own language or dialect. Besides the 73 languages, English assumes the status of official language, taking advantage of its position as the colonial language, which has been used since the coming of the missionaries in the late 19th century.

Being the official language, English is widely used in all official business such as administration, health and education. In this way, it fulfils the status of a second language, which entails that it is the language of instruction in schools and language of the media, among others, just as French and Portuguese are in the case of the Democratic Republic of Congo and Mozambique, respectively.

Notwithstanding the status of English as the country's official language, there exist, among the 73 indigenous languages, seven languages which have been identified to operate alongside English as official languages at regional level. These are Chinyanja for Eastern and Lusaka Provinces, Silozi for Western Province, Chitonga for Southern and parts of Central Province and KiKaonde, Lunda and Luvale for North-Western Province. In the rest of the provinces namely; Northern, Muchinga, Luapula, Central and Copperbelt, it is Icibemba that is used as a tool of communication.

In an additive scenario to this language situation, the country has had the presence of foreign languages since the 1950s. A foreign language is a language other than the official language, coming from a foreign country and is taught in schools, not necessarily for communication, but just as a subject. This is the case of French in Zambia and English in the Democratic Republic of Congo. In these two cases, the official language has the status of second language as is English in Zambia, while French assumes the position of foreign language. In the Democratic Republic of Congo, the opposite is the case, with French being the second language and English being a foreign language.

The concept of foreign language in Zambia began with the teaching of Latin in the 1950s but it was overtaken by the teaching of French in 1963 following a resolution at the Addis Ababa Conference of 1963, where it was agreed that French be taught in English-speaking countries and English be taught in French-speaking countries. This was in the spirit of cooperation and cultural exchange.

From this date until 2013, French was the only foreign language taught in schools as a foreign language. Following the review of the curriculum in 2013, two more foreign languages were coopted into the school curriculum, vis-a-vis Portuguese and Chinese.

The study was guided by two research questions, which were inevitable in this undertaking. Firstly, which institutions train teachers of French, Portuguese and Chinese in Zambia? This question could not be avoided because, if foreign languages were being taught in secondary schools, there was need to know where the teachers of these languages were being trained. Secondly, which non-teacher-training institutions have integrated the teaching of foreign languages into their curriculum in view of globalisation?

6.2   Literature Review

6.2.1   Learning of Foreign Languages

Globalisation and technology have contributed to the world becoming more interdependent and this has allowed close contact among peoples of the world. As diplomatic ties and cooperation among countries continue to grow, so does the need to learn foreign languages. The significance of foreign languages has

compelled many universities and colleges to include foreign languages in their curriculum. In many parts of the world, there has been tremendous growth in the numbers of multilingual students partly due to student mobility, a scenario that has called for a shift in the curriculum to enhance the teaching of foreign languages, which have been introduced in national curricula (Oksana, 2020).

Foreign language study is all about learning how to communicate and connect with others –an incredibly important life skill that can only be cultivated by interacting with people and through formal organised lessons. Unlike native languages, which are learnt naturally, foreign languages are acquired through a conscious effort made by the learner (Obodoeze, 2009). In many African countries, foreign languages are taught at secondary school and tertiary levels. In some private schools, they are also taught at primary school levels.

It can be argued that teaching and learning of foreign languages is increasingly becoming a priority for higher education institutions. According to Karaman (2012), learning a foreign language increases global understanding, employment potential, develops life skills, and strengthens diplomatic relations world over. In the same vein, Machinyise (2010) notes that the importance and benefits associated with learning of the French language has been the driving force behind the increase in the introduction of French, in most private schools in Zambia. According to Habimana (2012), the major reason why youths learn foreign language is linked to networking. Further, Habimana (2012; 18) adds that 'students use the foreign language to communicate with speakers of that language, both at home and around the world, to improve their own communication skills and to enhance their view of themselves as citizens of the world.'

It is worth noting that the teaching of French in Zambia has had a number of challenges and factors that act as barriers to its execution. Learners encounter social challenges and teachers or lecturers face factors that may affect the teaching process itself. The challenges that learners face are associated with the effects caused by their native languages. This is because mother tongues affect all foreign language skills, especially in pronunciation learning (Karaman, 2013). In the same vein, Obodoeze (2009) reports that dominant official languages tend to have significant bearing on the teaching and learning of foreign languages. The overbearing influence of an official language is often pervasive and can lead to a decline in foreign language learning (Obodoeze, 2009).

Machinyise (2010), in his study of factors contributing to the decline in the teaching of French in Zambian secondary schools, reveals that lack of trained teachers of French is the major challenge Zambia is faced with. He explains that many schools had since closed their French sections due to the non-availability of qualified teachers of French. He further made strong recommendations to the French Government to resume their programme of sending students and teachers of French-to-French speaking countries for linguistic exposure as it was in the past. Bangnia (2020) underscores the importance of trained French teachers in teaching a foreign language like French and stressed that teachers are a critical education resource in every country.

6.2.2 Importance of Foreign Language Education

Foreign languages are no longer studied as an end in themselves but as a gateway to the competitive global labour market, where language skills are an important factor if they are related to the needs of employment and the labour market. As postulated by Vareckova and Pavelkova (2018), knowledge of foreign languages is a valuable asset to a graduate who wishes to go for further training in other places where the target languages are used as languages of instruction or who wishes to penetrate the international arena through employment.

Stavytska (2017), emphasises the fact that there are many benefits, which come with the internationalisation of education through the introduction of foreign languages. In his view, the presence of foreign languages in a higher education institution is likely to attract foreign students to the institution and this inevitably contributes to revenue at national level. In essence, as the curriculum becomes internationalised, students in the sub-region and in other parts of the world have a wider choice of institutions to attend.

Some scholars have proved that knowledge of foreign languages gives learners an upper hand in cognitive development (Marian and Shook, 2012) and also boosts self-confidence of the foreign language speaker (Gupta, 2023). Apart from this, foreign languages remove cultural barriers among people and makes us appreciate and respect other people's culture (Lin, 2019).

6.2.4 Teaching of Foreign Languages in the Zambian Higher Education Perspective

The teaching of foreign languages in the context of Higher Education in Zambia is one domain where very little research has been undertaken. Apart from the traditional public universities that train teachers of French as a foreign language, a negligible number of institutions are known to offer foreign language programmes.

Notwithstanding the fact that Zambian students have knowledge of English, which is seen as a universal language (Stavytska (2017), and given that students of today are global citizens in search of any opportunities away from home, it is important to reflect on the need to gain foreign experience through international programmes that are taking place in areas where English is not a dominant language. This makes foreign language proficiency an immediate need.

In Zambia, French so far seems to be the dominant foreign language currently taught in public colleges and universities. Chishiba (2021) points out that there are a very limited number of institutions that train teachers of French in Zambia. These are the Kwame Nkrumah University in Kabwe, the University of Zambia and the David Livingstone College of Education in Livingstone. However, Chishiba (2012) also pointed out that there are two major higher learning institutions that teach French to non-teacher trainees in Zambia. These are Copperbelt University and National Institute of Public Administration (NIPA).

6.3 Methodology

6.3.1 Participants

The study was carried out to investigate the status of teaching of foreign languages in higher learning institutions in Zambia. The study was predominantly qualitative in nature. Twelve institutions of learning were purposively selected and a single questionnaire was administered to each of them between February and March 2023. The institutions that were purposively selected are those that were traditionally known to offer at least, one foreign language for teaching purposes and the rest were randomly selected.

5.3.2 Procedure

As a way of collecting data, only one questionnaire was administered to each institution. The questionnaire had two parts: Part A was answered only by institutions, which offered teacher training and Part B targeted institutions, which did not train teachers. In either part, the questionnaire basically consisted of four sections: (i) type of institution (ii) type of institutional curriculum (iii) foreign language(s) included in the curriculum (iv) reasons for teaching/not teaching these foreign languages. The questionnaires were emailed to the target institutions and responses were returned within three to six days. Only nine of the twelve questionnaires that were distributed were returned. For the purposes of anonymity, the questionnaires were coded HEI 1 to HEI 9, where HEI stands for Higher Education Institution. Table 6.1 presents a summary of the findings.

6.4   Results and Discussion

6.4.1 Presentation of Findings

Table 6.1. Summary of the Findings

Institution	HEI1	HEI2	HEI3	HEI4	HEI5	HEI6	HEI7	HEI8	HEI9
(i) Teacher Training	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
(ii) No Teacher Training								✓	✓
(iii) Foreign Languages	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	
(iv) Foreign Languages Involved :									
- French	✓		✓	✓	✓	✓		✓	
- Portuguese									
- Chinese					✓		✓		
(v) Purpose of Foreign Languages									
- As teaching subject	✓	✓	✓		✓	✓		✓	
- As non-teaching subject	✓		✓		✓		✓		
- Communication			✓	✓			✓		
- Culture				✓			✓		
- Career development	✓								
- Economic							✓		
- Immigration									
- Cognitive development									
- Internationalisation				✓	✓				
- Personal interest	✓								
(vi) Plans to Introduce Teacher Training									
(vii) Reasons for not Teaching Foreign Languages									
- Irrelevant									
- Not beneficial									✓
- Costly									

An analysis of the responses shows that seven of the nine institutions offered a curriculum, which integrated the training of teachers regardless of subject areas. At this stage, analysis reveals that only HEI 4 and HEI 9 did not embrace training of teachers, although the former still offered French language not for teaching but for other purposes, whereas the latter did not offer any foreign language at all.

As regards teaching of foreign languages, with an exception of HEI 9, all the institutions from HEI 1 to HEI 8 had a curriculum, which comprised foreign language teaching, with six (HEI 1, HEI 3, HEI 4, HEI 5, HEI 6 and HEI 8) opting for the teaching of French and one (HEI 7) for the teaching of Chinese. It is worth noting, according to the analysis, that Chinese was offered by HEI 5 as well, in addition to French.

It can also be observed that HEI 2, according to data collected, did not specify which foreign language it embraced in its curriculum although there was an indication that the language offered was used for teaching purposes. Likewise, HEI 1, HEI 3, HEI 5, HEI 6, HEI 8, the other institutions in the teacher training category, acknowledged the foreign languages were taught as teaching subjects whereas some institutions had foreign languages as non-teaching subjects.

Institutions that offered foreign languages as non-teaching subjects were asked to give reasons for the inclusion of the languages in their curriculum. Reasons given included career development and personal interest (HEI 1), internationalisation (HEI 3 and HEI 5) and for economic reasons (HEI 7). In a similar vein, the only one institution that did not offer the languages (HEI 9) acknowledged that they did not find these languages beneficial in any way.

No institution mentioned Portuguese as a foreign language in their curriculum. However, one institution indicated that it intended to introduce Swahili in its curriculum so that it is taught as a foreign language for general purposes such as commerce and diplomacy. The respondent justified this proposal based on the fact that Zambia is home to many refugees from neighbouring countries who are not fluent in either English or French. Therefore, Swahili would play a very crucial and significant role in interacting with these foreign nationals.

6.4.2 Discussion of Findings

As discussed in the introduction section, the aim of this study was to establish whether higher learning institutions teach foreign languages and to establish which ones offer these foreign languages to their students. The findings revealed that among the three foreign languages, which have been selected to be taught in Zambia, French is the most preferred language by most higher learning institutions followed by Chinese, which is taught, by one institution only.

The study also shows that seven of the nine institutions offer French to teacher trainees. In addition, four institutions were found to offer French and Chinese to non-trainee teachers. In these four institutions, French was taken by students studying the Bachelor of International Relations and Diplomacy. This shows that the communicative competence acquired from this training is meant for use in diplomatic and international relations.

The study has also revealed that although the 2013 revised education curriculum framework gives guidance that French, Chinese and Portuguese should be taught as foreign languages, only French is offered to trainee teachers in selected higher learning. With the prevailing state of affairs, one is tempted to ask where the teacher to teach Chinese and Portuguese will come from. It is an undeniable fact that this policy on foreign language has not received the attention it deserves and its implementation is still a pipe dream.

6.5 Conclusion and Recommendations

6.5.1 Conclusion

The study has shown that the foreign language policy that was put in place by the government in 2013 seems to have no corresponding policy in institutions of higher education in Zambia. As can be seen from the discussion, the higher learning institutions that are offering foreign languages are still in the traditional setup where French was the sole foreign language offered since the abolition of Latin. However, an effort has been made by two institutions to introduce Chinese but there has been no mention of Portuguese in the entire study despite the large following of the language at global level.

It is time that the higher education sector embarked on a serious review of their curriculum in favour of language teaching and learning. It is equally time for Zambian students to begin to interrogate their curriculum if it does not embrace foreign languages given that we are in a globalised society where we need every available tool such as language for survival.

For these and other reasons, the vast majority of Zambian scholars should move out of the comfort zone with huge qualifications weighing extremely heavily on only one international language called English. It would be helpful for them to enhance their relevance on the international scene by turning to multi-linguistic. However, this is only feasible if institutions of higher learning consider responding to potential challenges of their future graduates in the global economy by equipping them with knowledge of foreign languages before they leave the gates of their institutions. This will empower them with skills of employability, communication and intercultural competence, which can enable them operate in the tourism sector, pursue careers in international relations and operate in hotels and other hospitality facilities as employees or employers.

6.5.2 Recommendations

    (a) In light of the findings, we wish to recommend that higher education institutions integrate teaching of foreign languages in their curricula in order to add value to their programmes. The focus should not only be the programmes of study but also on components that will enable graduates to operate in any environment regardless of the language or culture.

(b) At policy level, authorities should put in place mechanisms that will help graduates acquire skills that will enable them to navigate the globalised world. We also make strong recommendations for the adoption and declaration of Swahili as one of the foreign languages to be taught in higher learning institutions to enable Zambians acquire communicative competence in a regional language with wider communication.

(c) More importantly, Zambia being a SADC member state, there is need for the country to have more than one foreign language in order for its citizens to have access to jobs in such regional bodies where knowledge of another foreign language such as Portuguese is an added advantage.

(d) This strategy should go hand-in-hand with sensitisation in respect of the need for higher education students to learn foreign languages to inculcate a culture of language learning in them.

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STATE OF HIGHER EDUCATION IN 2022

7.1   Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to examine the salient features of the state of higher education report in terms of their implications for policy and the development of higher education in Zambia. The chapter, thus, highlights main issues from the report that need attention. In particular, the chapter reflects on the growth of university education, distribution of students in academic programmes, gender matters and curricula.

7.2   Growth of University Education in Zambia

The first section of the state of higher education in Zambia has provided vital statistics pertaining to the growth of university education in Zambia. Among the important statistical dimensions considered in the report include variables such as staff numbers, student enrolment and graduation levels. In general, the university education sub-sector continues to grow with student numbers in 2022 surpassing those of 2021 by eleven per cent. In 2021, student numbers had dropped substantially due to COVID-induced disturbances. This increase, in this regard, represents a rebound for the education sector, which had experienced a significant disturbance during the COVID period.

Another notable feature of the report, is the slight drop in the number of private universities from 54 in 2022 to 52 universities in 2021. While the report attributes this drop to the de-registration of two universities, it is also important to note that following the amendment of the Higher Education Act in 2021, the Higher Education Authority no longer registers private universities outrightly. The Amendment Act No. 23 of 2021 requires that for an institution to be registered as a private university it, should first have existed as a higher education institution for at least, a period of 5 years. With this new law, it is expected that the number of private universities may remain statistic or indeed continue to plumate in the next few years.

7.3   Distribution of Students by Academic Programmes

The report shows that academic programmes in the fields of health sciences, business, administration and law continue to record higher numbers of students than the STEM fields. This has been the case since 2019 when the Authority published its maiden state of higher education report. It is important to note here that that science and technology is critical to the development of any society. Today, in particular, with the move towards a knowledge-based economy and the focus on innovation, developing a critical mass of graduates in STEM fields should be a priority of any education system. For Zambia, promotion of science and technology remains at the centre of the 2019 National Higher Education Policy. Evidently, however, investments in infrastructure and equipment to support the actualisation of policy aspirations remain low. This is particularly acute in private universities, which continue to have the least number of programmes in STEM fields.

7.4   Gender and Higher Education

The report highlights gender imbalances at both staff and student levels. At academic staff level, it is clear that females continue to be underrepresented, not only in terms of numbers of academic staff but also in terms of hierarchy or academic ranks. For example, the report shows that at the highest rank of professor, women only make up five per cent of staff at this level. Such statistics show that universities still have a very long way to go in terms of bridging the gender gap between male and female academic staff. An important point to note here is that while at student level, male students continue to outnumber their female counterparts, the country has been implementing affirmative policies aimed at increasing female student representation in higher education. For academic staff, no such policies exist. There remains, in this regard, the need to develop deliberate policies aimed at not only increasing the number of female lecturers in higher education, fostering their vertical mobility within academic ranks.

7.5   Curricula in Higher Education

Curricula is the core of any education system. In this regard, the quality of curricula in an education system has significant implications on student development and quality of graduates. In Zambia, the higher education sector is still wrestling with a number of problems and questions regarding the curricula in higher education, despite the fact that curriculum reviews and accreditation of learning programmes are ongoing processes. Some of these include whether the curricula follow current higher education trends, the importance of quality assurance in the development and implementation of curricula, the responsiveness of graduates to societal needs, and the strength of curriculum delivery approaches and assessment methods. To provide a comprehensive picture of the state of higher education curricula, these issues necessitate critical reflections and discussions on various aspects of the curriculum.

The papers in this report focused on three aspects of curricula. The first two examined principles and models that guide the development of quality curricula, while the third focused on the need to include students in the evaluation of the implementation of curricula. The last paper argued for the inclusion of foreign languages such as French in higher education curricula. There are a number of important points to note from these papers. Among them, is the idea that curriculum development needs to be based on a bottom-up rather than top-down approach. The limitations of a top-down approach lie in the fact that curriculum design tends to be prescriptive and often fails to take into consideration the needs and views of key stakeholders such as students and industry actors. The bottom-up approach mitigates this by taking into consideration the views and needs of the stakeholders.

Besides this, there is also a call for designing curricula that optimises student experience and facilitates development of employability skills. It is argued, in particular, that a competence-based curriculum design approach, focusing on intended learning outcomes would be most suitable to achieve this. Such an approach is in tandem with modern trends in curriculum development and Zambia is no exception to this trend. The Higher Education Authority, for example, emphasises the need to link curriculum to intended learning outcomes before a learning programme is accredited.

Another important point to note from these papers is the need to promote student evaluation of teaching and learning. Once a curriculum has been developed and is being implemented, it is critical that students who are the key stakeholders and beneficiaries of education are involved in the evaluation of teaching and learning.

This is essential for providing feedback to lecturers and continuous improvement of the teaching and learning process.

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Appendix I: Estimates of Student Population in Public Universities in Zambia

| SN | NAME OF UNIVERSITY | NUMBER OF STUDENTS | | TOTAL |
		M	F	
1.	Africa Research University	202	171	373
2.	African Christian University	28	15	43
3.	African Open University	82	14	96
4.	Ambassador International University	135	2	137
5.	Berea Theological University College	30	4	34
6.	Bethel University	115	80	195
7.	Blessings University of Excellence	231	292	523
8.	Brook Besor University	32	19	51
9.	Cavendish University	3,484	3,124	6,608
10.	Central African Baptist University	140	91	231
11.	Chalimbana University	1,480	1,684	3,164
12.	Chreso University	1,791	911	2,702
13.	City University of Science and Technology	340	819	1,159
14.	Copperbelt University	7,311	4,131	11,442
15..	Copperstone University	875	1,009	1,884
16..	DMI-St. Eugene University	1,190	1,001	2,191
17.	Eden University	4,042	3,267	7,309
18.	Evangelical University	35	45	80
19.	George Benson Christian University College	41	20	61
20.	Gideon Robert University	5,285	3,296	8,581
21.	Harvest University	57	36	93
22.	Information and Communications University	2,934	1,590	4,524
23.	Justo Mwale University	145	89	234
24.	Kapasa Makasa University	184	99	283
25.	Kenneth Kaunda Metropolitan University	55	29	84
26.	Kopaline University	321	102	423
27.	Kwame Nkrumah University	3,908	1,659	5,567
28.	Levy Mwanawasa Medical University	4001	5673	9674
29.	Livingstone International University of Tourism Excellence and Business Management	114	185	299
30.	Lusaka Apex Medical University	2,649	2,768	5,417
31.	Mansfield University	119	188	307
32.	Mukuba University	877	850	1727
33..	Mulungushi University	5,810	4,319	10,129
34.	Northrise University	640	528	1168
35.	Oak University	88	52	140
36.	Open Window University for the Creative Arts	60	23	83
37.	Paglory University	21	42	63
38.	Palabana University	97	90	187
39.	Rusangu University	1,509	1,531	3,040

40.	South Valley University	87	104	191
41.	St. Bonaventure University	287	-	287
42.	St. Dominic's Major Seminary	154	-	154
43.	Sunningdale University	189	220	409
44.	Supershine University	1,231	1,548	2,779
45.	Texila American University	550	487	1,037
46.	Trans-Africa Christian University	84	52	136
47.	Trinity University	89	215	304
48..	Unicaf University	5,800	4,526	10,326
49.	Unichos University College	117	119	236
50.	United Church of Zambia University	135	75	210
51.	University of Africa	449	481	930
52.	University of Edenberg	22	30	52
53.	University of Lusaka	5,267	6,251	11,518
54..	University of Zambia	14,960	13,847	28,807
55.	Victoria Falls University of Technology	77	83	160
56.	Zambia Catholic University	256	302	558
57.	Zambia University College of Technology	1549	498	2,047
58.	Zambian Open University	946	1,041	1,987
59.	Zambian Royal Medical University	272	378	650
60.	ZCAS University	1,660	1,300	2,960
	GRAND TOTAL	**84,639**	**71,405**	**156,044**