

## **Civic Competences: What does an Outcomes Based Curriculum mean for a Civic Education Teacher in Zambia?**

Chivunda Kaumba, Yvonne Malambo Kabombwe and Christine Mwanza  
The University of Zambia  
School of Education (Great East Road Campus)  
Department of Language and Social Sciences Education,  
P.O Box 32379,  
Lusaka. ZAMBIA

\* Corresponding Author: [yvonnekmalambo@gmail.com](mailto:yvonnekmalambo@gmail.com) Mobile Phone No. +260 979370491

### **Abstract**

Based on a review of literature, this paper addressed the question of teaching Civic Education using an Outcomes Based curriculum in secondary schools. The authors argued that Civic Education teachers should be knowledgeable of the competences which learners should acquire in order for them to teach and implement an outcomes based curriculum effectively. A huge responsibility is placed on the teachers to have a thorough understanding of the key concepts and terminologies of the outcomes based curriculum. In addition to understanding the outcomes based curriculum, teachers are required interpret the curriculum correctly in the classroom so that they can foster civic competences among learners. Thus, the teacher is the principle agent in the implementation of the outcomes based curriculum. This paper also provided insights on the significance of civic education as a subject, a thorough explanation of what an outcomes based curriculum entails as well as examples of civic competences with reference to the Junior Secondary and Senior Secondary Civic Education syllabi. The paper concluded that outcomes based curriculum may not be implemented successfully if the teacher's knowledge of the curriculum design is limited.

**Keywords:** Civic Education, Civics, Civic Competences, Outcomes Based Curriculum and Teachers

### **1.0 Introduction**

Over the past several decades, educators have made it a priority to promote a civically literate society that helps to foster democracy and a growing economy (Torney-Purta, Cabrera, Roohr, Liu and Rios, 2015). This has brought about many debates around the relevance of civic education as a curriculum subject with some scholars stressing that civic education must be the heart and the soul of the curriculum (Pratte, 1988). In addition, Muleya (2019) explained that civic education is deemed as an important part of the development of citizenship in the current and future generations; as such, civic education is now part of Zambia's education policy. It is with no doubt therefore that the improvement of civic education can promote the civic participation within the society (Jurs, 2014). In trying to provide more emphasis on the significance of civic education as a subject, The United Nations Organization recommends providing access to good quality formal and informal education that recognizes civic education as an important aspect of education (UNESCO, 2011). It

can be noted therefore, that education has been identified as one of the drivers for civic competences. Education can influence the levels of civic competence in a number of ways: through the curriculum subject of civic education, the methods used to teach the subject, the methods utilized across the whole school and the school ethos. The learning of civic competences takes place in a much broader environment than the school, and parents, friends, the media and civil society all play an important role. From early childhood onwards, political socialization, including identification and transmission of values, has been considered an important element in the development of civic competences (Lauglo and Oia 2008, Kahne and Sporte 2008, Delli Carpini and Keeter 1996).

Participation wishes and participation behavior can be partly considered to be a result of knowledge about the importance of civic engagement which could lead to positive results only if it is driven by correct interpretation of political issues in schools (Maiello, Oser, and Biedermann 2003). Appropriateness of political judgment implies that people understand politics to a certain extent. This means that people must obtain basic civic knowledge and enough civic skills to correctly understand political information in order to work out suitable political judgments and, consequently, positively contribute to decisions on public issues. Civic education and participation forms and maintains the society as it is the only way a civic society can develop (Sherrod, 2007). It helps citizens to understand and defend their rights and responsibilities. Civic Education also forms an opinion of the individual and directly promotes civic action taking (Galston, 2004). Civic Education is an important component of education that encourages citizens to participate in the lives of democratic societies to exercise their rights and release their responsibilities with the necessary knowledge and skills (Harmanto, Listyaningsih & Wijaya, 2018).

Maiello, Oser, and Biedermann (2003) emphasized that through civic education, important information is presented to citizens and it should be unbiased to guarantee accuracy of judgment. Hoskins, Saisana, & Villalba (2012) contend that in the domain of active citizenship and through the use of information and communication technology (ICT), young people have had the upper-hand. When young people are motivated to be active citizens, their use of social media can be mobilized to great effect bringing large numbers of youth to demonstrate on the streets. M'kuluma and Mwiinga (2006) have argued that interactive technologies have become a major component of the educational process in the 21<sup>st</sup> century. This implies that educators are utilising different educational technologies to make learning accessible flexible, enjoyable and more interactive.

### **1.1 Outcomes Based Education Exemplified.**

The 2013 revised curriculum is one of the most significant education reforms that occurred in the Zambian Education system that will go down in history as a landmark to the improvement of education goals. The Zambian education system adopted a school curriculum that is Outcomes Based Education (OBE) also known as competency based curriculum (Zambia Curriculum Framework, 2013). An Outcomes Based curriculum is a kind of curriculum that focuses on learners achievements. Willis and Kissane (1995) argued that an education system which adopts an outcome-based philosophy simply means, in effect, that the system believes there are certain things that all students should learn as a result of attending its school(s), that it is prepared to say publicly what these things are, and that it is prepared to stand accountable in terms of them. In other words OBE is based on the premise that decisions about what and how to teach should be driven by the outcomes we need learners to exhibit at the end of their educational experience (Willis and Kissane, 1995).

Manno (1994) described OBE as “the knowledge, competence, and orientations deemed critical for assuring success.” The idea of success should be measured in terms of things that learners could demonstrate after their educational experiences (Killen, 2009). A learner learning by experience is the highest order in achieving civic competences and meeting the goals of an OBE curriculum. Implementing such a curriculum requires teachers well trained to demonstrate and implement methods that invoke reflections, including fostering authentic forms of Assessments (i.e. writing papers to demonstrate mastery of English, solving real world problems in math class, demonstrating respect for divergent views in a civic education class). Brooksfied (2017) has identified two forms of making learners become reflective in the classroom. The author argues that the first step is to recognize that teachers are lenses through which learners tend to appreciate certain traits, confirm and disconfirm assumption about education. And the second is observed in the assessment learners undergo and the experiences presented to them. It is in this vein that UNICEF (2017) has argued that abstract learning alone is not enough; one must learn to know, learn to be, learn to do and learn to live together.

However, research that has been conducted in Africa by a number scholars in countries such as South Africa, Tanzania and Zambia indicates that most teachers did not know what a competency-based curriculum was and the quality of knowledge of the competency-based curriculum was too limited to implement the competency-based curriculum effectively (Chisholm, 2000; Jansen, 2009; 2000; Moshia, 2012; Muneja, 2015; Benjamin, 2014; & Kabombwe, 2019). There is considerable confusion about what 'outcome-based education' (OBE) means and about the various forms it takes. Programs described as 'outcome-based' are often quite different and designs which are similar in approach may describe themselves differently. Thus, there are many visions and many versions of OBE. For instance, there is the United States OBE, the United Kingdom OBE, Australian OBE, New Zealand OBE, South African OBE, Tanzania OBE and so forth. The language for OBE is too complex and terminologies are confusing (Willis & Kissane, 1995; Jansen, 1998; Chisholm, 2000; Williamson, 2000; Kabombwe & Mulenga, 2019). Thus, educators and the public need to understand why society will be better served if schools clarify their purposes, reorganize as necessary to achieve these purposes, and expect students to demonstrate the knowledge and skills needed for success in life (Brandt, 1994b).

An outcomes based education system places a huge responsibility on the shoulders of the teachers. In this regard the teacher must focus on what learners need to know, understand and be able to do successfully. The teaching and planning should center on helping learners fostering the necessary knowledge, skills and dispositions that will enable them achieve the desired outcomes (Zambia Curriculum Framework, 2013). Thus, teachers should be knowledgeable of the innovation or curriculum design so that it is implemented successfully. As Bishop (1985: 190) observed that “a curriculum is only as good as the quality of its teachers.” Therefore, teacher’s role is central in curriculum implementation (Moodley, 2013; Mulenga & Mwanza, 2019). Effective implementation of the curriculum can only be made possible if the implementer who is no one but the teacher is empowered adequately for the purpose. Educational goals can only be achieved with the presence of a well prepared teacher in terms of understanding and participating in the curriculum development process (Mwanza and Changwe, 2020).

## **2.0 Problematicization of Civic competences in the face of OBE**

In an outcome based curriculum, learner’s outcomes are the most important element for a curriculum to be successfully implemented. If teachers are knowledgeable of the outcomes that learners should acquire, teachers could plan and teach in ways that would enable learners to acquire

civic competences and carry out their civic duties in society such as voting, advocacy for human right and good governance. The Education system could produce learners who are competent and relevant in society. Studies by Muleya (2015), Chola (2016) and Sakala (2016) have pointed to a lack of pedagogical practices among Civic Education teachers that can bring about change. Therefore limited knowledge of an outcomes based curriculum by teachers of civic education could lead to poor implementation of the curriculum in the classroom and thereby making the nation not achieve its national vision or aspiration. The purpose of this paper was to explain what learners' outcomes are in a quest to prepare teachers of Civic Education to implement the Outcome based curriculum effectively in the classroom.

### **3.0 Literature Review**

#### **3.1) A brief historical background of Civic Education as a subject in the Zambian school Curriculum.**

Civic Education was not considered important and has received low priority since independence in 1964 in Zambia. Abdi, Shizha and Bwalya, (2006), have argued that there is a paucity of literature on role of the state in providing civic education issues in Zambia. The wind of change however on Civic Education started in 1995 through a national symposium held with the support of the Irish Aid, from which recommendations were made for re-introduction of Civic Education in schools, a subject that had since discontinued around 1978 (Muleya, 2018a).. Bwalya (2004) reported that by the end of 2004, the subject syllabus was piloted for grade 10 classes in two provinces, Central and Northern provinces, while the grade 11 syllabus was being finalized and was likely to be ready for implementation in January 2005, and the grade 12 civic syllabus was likely to be ready by January 2006. The syllabi are designed to reflect the country's multiparty political dispensation and the rights and freedoms associated with the democratization process that is underway in Zambia. The topics that had been incorporated into the Grades 10 to 12 include, among others, political development, democracy and dictatorship, human rights, gender and development, government, economic development and environment and population (CDC, n.d.b).

The reintroduction of Civic Education in schools in Zambia arose from the following factors: that civics was taught at junior level of secondary education, which had created a gap between the upper secondary and tertiary level; that the content at junior level was too loaded and detailed to be grasped by learners at junior level; that the skills and values in the content were limited to enabling learners to understand and practice their civic rights and obligations in society; and that trained civics teachers had a low esteem of the subject and preferred teaching subjects other than civics. As was the early findings, it was identified that there was an urgent need for the introduction of Civic Education at high school level to mitigate the gap arising from the confinement of the subject to the junior level of our school system ( Muleya, 2015). Though one would argue that it was not really the kind of Civic Education that was desired since it was based on minimal approach tailored to prepare learners to memorise the structures and operations of government without a critical mind just like it was in civics. Muleya (2018a) contends that Civic Education in Zambia has the capacity to bring forth to the learners' attitudes and habits that would help them as citizens to contribute effectively to the development of their communities.

In strengthening the subject in schools, the revised curriculum of 2013 has made Civic Education a compulsory subject at senior level of the secondary education which was not the case before its revision. It also goes without saying that the Civic Education curriculum as revised has a different approach to the way learning should be conducted as it places a lot of emphasis on civic

engagement among the learners a point of departure from Civics which was carefully tailored to produce passive and obedient learners. As such, the observation to be made here is that the Zambian School curriculum no longer has Civics as a subject but rather has now Civic Education. While Civic Education is now compulsory at senior secondary school level, it is integrated at the Junior Secondary level into what is referred to as Social Studies. The social studies subject combines Civic Education with Geography and History on account that there is interrelated content and similar competencies between these disciplines (Muleya, 2019).

### 3.2) Theories of Civic Competences

The liberal concept of citizenship focuses on knowledge, skills and dispositions towards engagement, but it does not insist citizens to vote (Yonglin, 2017). This stream of thoughts initially focuses on the individuals' autonomy in the individual-state relation, but nowadays shifts to human interrelation, individual human rights, and trust and social capital in the context of Big Society' (Hoskins et al., 2012).

Yonglin (2017) has argued that Civic Republicans believe that citizens have the responsibility of active political engagement, because social values such as social spiritedness, solidarity, and common good, will only be achieved through political actions of individuals. The author extends that individual should be able to benefit from the common good of the public thus Petersen (2011) argues that there is an extended public life beyond our private interests and that public life carries a number of benefits. So, a civic competency in view of the republican theory is that which addresses the desirability for the creation of civic virtue. Hoskins et.al (2012) has therefore emphasized that without civic virtue, citizens would be self centered within the public sphere and this would lead to corruption.

These theories can be summarized in what Cohen (2005) presented as the way to which the teaching of Civic Education should be organized and presented four conceptions which: the first being the *Liberal Civic Education*, one in which the learner should develop the individualistic skills needed in order to take part in the political process. Secondly that there must be *Diversity Civic Education* which the learner should understand the ways in which the different social groups that compose society may receive recognition and take part in the national field. Thirdly that *Critical Civic Education* should allow the learner to develop individual analytical skills needed in order to better understand the unjust reality of society. And fourthly that the *Republican Civic Education* is where the learner will possess a feeling of belonging and solidarity to the national entity,

### 3.3) Review of Related Literature

In its current state, Civic Education is seen as a potential solution to numerous societal challenges ranging from political apathy and youth unemployment to the need to orient young adults into society (Mouristen and Jaeger, 2018). To achieve this, there is need for well-developed Civic competences. Levinson (2014), argued that civic education covers the specific rights and duties of legal citizens but usually it is used more capaciously to indicate the knowledge, skills and attitudes children are expected to learn and be virtuous and civically productive members of Society. These hence form what we call civic competences (Torney-Purta, Cabrera, Roohr, Liu & Rio (2015). Current literature about civic competence consists of two categories that look at the issue from different angles: one emphasizes the social and political implications of the prevailing level of civic competence; the other investigates the factors that explain the phenomena and seeks the causal association.

Every Civic Education program is targeted at building a certain level of Citizenship. Philippou (2009) and Keating (2009) hold critical views on EU's policies on civic and citizenship education, relating the issue to identity building as well as the future of the European Union. While Philippou (2009) discussed the ethno cultural aspect of citizenship and civic identity of Cyprus in the aftermath of the country's independence and EU membership, arguing that the citizenship education for either national or European orientation largely neglects the country's failure in dealing with identity and citizenship issues. Keating (2009) questions the feasibility of building a common EU citizenship that builds only upon a shared future, a common European society, instead of common history or culture, given that EU's Eastward expansion arouses questions about the boundary of an imaginary Europe (Roma, Greece, and Christian, etc).

Bromley and Mäkinen (2011) in their research on the Finnish citizenship textbook in compulsory schools, figure that the Finnish citizenship education at compulsory schooling has the distinguishing emphasis on cosmopolitan concept of citizenship and an obvious increase of diversity in image or text information in textbooks. This well corresponds to IEA's citizenship studies that find youths in Nordic countries generally outstand in having a critical mind at social issues, by which Hoskins et al (2015) suggest that teaching methods and curricula have a real impact on shaping the youths' civic competence.

In the other category of related research, most prevailing explanatory research on civic competence are conducted by scientists from political or educational domains and build their argument on quantitative methods (Schulz, Ainley, Fraillon, Kerr, & Losito, 2010). The ICCS (International Civics and Citizenship Education Study) includes a few similar studies conducted globally. The European civic studies were implemented with joint effort of the European Commission as well as EU research and educational institutions. The two studies suggest for instance that Eastern European countries and former communist countries mostly score the lowest in cognitive learning about domestic and EU politics, while Southern European countries usually have high scores in general competence, with Italy appearing frequently in the first range of EU states (Hoskins et al., 2012). The debate about competences is a central theme in the desire to explore citizenship for active participation. Any meaningful curriculum needs to cross check the extent to which the Civic Education provided is relevant to the needs of a given particular society.

### **3.4) Importance of Civic Competences**

Civic competences of European citizens are a necessity for the survival of democracy at the European, national and local levels. In this regard, the academic literature on both theory and empirical research has highlighted the fact that legal rights and institutions alone are rarely sufficient for a democracy to flourish (Honohan 2002), and that the quality of democratic governance relies on the civic virtues and engagement of their citizens (Putnam 2000, 1993, Almond and Verba 1963, De Tocqueville, 1863).

In the world of politics, especially during elections, citizens who are voters are like consumers waiting to buy products from different political parties. The extent to which these citizens make sound choices to buy the correct product is solely reliant on the amount of information they poses, in this regard the knowledge. Robert and Alan (2003) have argued that lack of political knowledge in such an instance may not allow citizens to make a sound calculation if participation is in their interest or not. Civic competences, which encompasses the knowledge, skills, values and attitudes needed to be an active citizen, is noted as one of the eight key competences required from education

and training for 'personal fulfilment, active citizenship, social cohesion and employability in a knowledge society' in the European Union (European Parliament and Council 2006;12).

In order to monitor progress made in the field of citizenship education, indicators have been requested to be developed in the areas of active citizenship (Council Education, 2005) and civic competences (Council Education, 2007). Measurement of civic competences among school-going youth living in Europe constitutes a method for assessing learning and socialization outcomes stemming from student experiences at school, home and within civil society. Ideally, evidence on the levels of civic competence at the national level should serve as an indicator of student levels of knowledge, skills, values and attitudes required for their future citizenship participation as adults. In addition, measuring levels of civic competence may increase understanding as to the role played by the educational systems and wider socialization settings in promoting democracy.

Hoskins, Saisana, & Villalba (2012) contend that the Center on Research on Education and Lifelong Learning's (CRELL) has played a central role in the development of indicators on civic competence. The first initiative which was developed in cooperation with the Council of Europe was the Active Citizenship for Democracy project 2005-2008. The measurement model comprised four dimensions: 'Protest and Social Change', 'Community Life', 'Representative Democracy' and 'Democratic Values'. The Active Citizenship Composite Indicator was used in the European Commission progress report (2007) on the Lisbon objectives in education and training. (Hoskins, E. Villalba, Van Nijlen and Barber, 2008) Civic Competence Composite Indicator (CCCI) (Hoskins et al 2008) was based on a framework composed of four dimensions: Citizenship Values (for example indicators on the topic of understanding the importance of volunteering, voting and protesting); Social Justice Values (predominantly indicators on attitudes towards women's and minority rights); Participatory Attitudes (for example, indicators on the interest in participating and ability to influence actions in the community and political life); and Cognitions about Democratic Institutions (knowledge and skills such as interpreting political campaign messages) (Hoskins, Saisana, & Villalba, 2012).

Torney-Purta, Cabrera, Roohr, Liu & Rio (2015) have argued there is little shared language that exists for labeling its dimensions in a way that could serve as the basis for developing a next-generation assessment. While number of labels (e.g., civic learning, civic capacity, civic education, citizenship) and competencies (e.g., civic skills, civic inclinations) have been proposed by professional organizations, governmental agencies, researchers, and institutions of higher education when referring to civic learning (e.g., Markle, Breneman, Jackson, Burrus, & Robbins, 2013). There is a lack of a coherent definition which has also been recognized as a general problem. Additionally, a number of challenges are associated with measuring an individual's civic competency and engagement (Torney-Purta, Cabrera, Roohr, Liu & Rio, 2015).

#### **4.0 What are the Outcomes and Competences in the Zambian Civic Education Curriculum?**

##### **4.1) Outcomes**

Spady (1994) argued that the successful implementation of OBE curriculum must be based on four basic principles. The first one is clarity of focus on outcomes of significance. Teachers should make sure that they continuously align their teaching and assessments with the desired end state. Teachers are central in the process of bringing about desired change in any given education system (Kaumba and Mkumba, 2020). This is because teachers have the ability to help learners to adapt to their new roles and take responsibility for their own learning to develop a sense of independence.

The second basic principle is designing down from ultimate outcomes. Teachers should work themselves way back from their desired end state, establishing the resources and skills needed to achieve this end state. Teachers should have higher high expectations for high level of success.

The third principle is that teacher should ensure they achieve a greater level of success for every learner while ensuring that all learners achieve a higher level of success, and eliminating the idea that select students are unable to achieve this success. The fourth one is that teachers should provide expanded opportunities and support to their learners. Time is the most critical aspect of this idea. It is considered a resource that enables students to achieve their goals as opposed to a limiting constraint in the educational process. Given these principles, advocates suggest that standards and expectations will rise because emphasis is now on what the learner (student) can successfully achieve in life (Gardner, 1983).

Spady (1994:2) specifically defined outcomes as, “clear learning results that we want learners to demonstrate at the end of significant learning experiences ... and ... are actions and performances that embody and reflect learner competence in using content, information, ideas, and tools successfully”. Following this line of thought, Deacon & Parker (1999:61) identified an “outcome” as appearing usually in the form of “a clear and unambiguous statement containing a performative verb”.

In the Zambian context the general outcomes for civic education at junior secondary school level aim at developing learners who have an understanding of the economic, political, civic, cultural, geographical and historical factors which influenced social development in Zambia and for learners to develop an understanding of political development and governance in Zambia since 1964 (Social Studies Syllabus Grade 8-9, 2013). While for senior secondary school, the general outcomes include creating an understanding of Zambia’s political process and appreciation of good governance, develop an understanding of the duties, responsibilities, freedoms and rights of a citizen and understanding, respect and promotion of Human Rights among learners. Learners should develop an understanding of Civil Society and Media participation in Governance System and appreciate the Economic and Social Development in Zambia. By Grade 12, learners should develop respect and understanding of the Rights of the Child, appreciate Development Planning and globalization (Civic Education Syllabus Grades 10-12, 2013).

In senior secondary school level Grades 10 to 12 Civic Education is taught as a separate subject in the curriculum. The Senior Secondary school civic Education curriculum addresses a cross – section of political, economic, social and cultural issues that are key to Zambia’s democratic system of governance. The topics include among others constitution, Governance, citizenship; Human rights, corruption Legal Education, Family law and Global issues (Civic Education Syllabus Grades 10-12, 2013).

It should be noted that there are different types of outcomes. There two types of outcomes, namely, Critical and developmental outcomes and learning outcomes, which should find full expression in curriculum design. Critical and developmental outcomes broad are the outcomes found in the Zambia Curriculum Framework. They are generic, cross-curricular intentions which are spelt out in the education policy of any nation (Mulenga and Kabombwe, 2019) The clear formulation of an intelligible set of overall aims has long been recognized as a basic didactical principle since “true” education is always purposeful. They describe the kind of citizen the education and training system aims to create (Mazabow, 2003). For example the Zambian education system aim to produce learners who are self-motivated, life-long learner, confident and productive individuals, who are holistic, independent learners with the values, skills and knowledge to enable them to succeed in school and in life (Zambia Curriculum Framework, 2013). Critical and developmental outcomes are empty without contexts that give them substance and specificity (Deacon and Parker 1999:61). This function is served by learning outcomes.



Learning outcomes are knowledge, skills, values and attitudes constituting what learners should exactly know, demonstrate and be able to do at the end of schooling in a subject area. In other words learning outcomes are the competencies. They can be used interchangeably. These are competences that a teacher should seek to develop among the learners in the classroom so that the learners can use them in real life situations in society. Critical and developmental outcomes and learning outcomes in isolation to one another; the framework of OBE is holistic in its outcome focus and although the learning outcomes are aimed at grass-root levels, attaining learning intentions, they are not an end in themselves since they provide building blocks for achieving higher-level outcomes (Malan,2004).

Killen (2000:1) explained this emphasis on learner behavior that, whereas in the traditional system of education, the achievement of learners was indicated by test and examination results, the type of outcome required by OBE “is usually expressed in terms of what students know, are able to do, or are like as a result of their education”. Killen (2000:2) explained that learning is not significant unless the outcomes reflect the complexities of real life and give prominence to the life-roles that learners will face after they have finished their formal education.

#### **4.2) Civic Competences**

In the purpose of civic education, a competence includes aspects of knowledge, skills, attitudes, beliefs, civic dispositions. The qualities of a competent active citizen are referred to as ‘civic competence. In other words aspects of knowledge, skills, attitudes/beliefs, civic dispositions as one unity make up a competence. For example the key competences that learners should acquire in Zambia by grade 9 are showing understanding of human rights by participating in human rights activities in school and community, understanding of civic education by participating in gender advocacy in school and understanding of civic education by participating in anti-corruption activities in the community (Social Studies Syllabus Grade 8-9, 2013). Whereas the key competences to be acquired by grade 12 learners are ability to participate in constitution making process and adoption, show ability to carry out Civic duties with responsibility and demonstrate ability to report corruption cases to relevant authorities. Learners must show ability to lobby and advocate for good governance and demonstrate ability to participate in public debates on topical issues. Demonstrate ability to resolve conflicts, show ability to report cases of harassment to relevant authorities. By grade 12 learners should demonstrate ability to resist human rights violations show ability to adhere to fiscal discipline on financial expenditure and demonstrate ability to work hard for poverty reduction (Civic Education Syllabus Grades 10-12, 2013).

#### **4.3) Components of a Civic Competence**

##### **4.3.1) Knowledge**

The typical concentration on educating factual knowledge about democratic institutions, processes, and elements of national history is being challenged by a growing consensus that citizens also require knowledge and understanding about controversial issues, intergroup relations, local processes, and community affairs (Carretero, Haste, & Bermudez, 2015). There is also growing consensus that civic knowledge alone is not enough to foster active and responsible civic engagement. There is a relationship between civic knowledge and voting: those who intend to vote tend to have better knowledge and knowledge is needed for routes to political participation, monitoring of government actions, and exercising rights and responsibilities (Cox, Jaramillo, & Reimers, 2005). However, an active civil society requires also understanding of concepts and principles, the skills for reflective and responsible action, willingness to engage, and commitment to democratic values. Discrete knowledge becomes more meaningful as it is integrated with

conceptual understanding. For example, students may “know” the list of core human rights, but they may not understand what the concept of “rights” actually entails, why they were codified in a particular historical time, or how they relate to specific conceptions of state (Haste ,Bermudez & Carretero,2017).

Knowledge is simply the Content of Civic Education which may include: (a) why do we need a government?, (b)The purpose of government, (c) constitutional principles, (d) structure of government, (e) concepts, principles, and values underlying the political system, i.e. authority, justice, diversity, rule of law, (f) individual rights (personal, political, economic), (g) responsibilities of citizen, (h) role of citizen in a democracy, (i) how the citizen can participate in community decisions.

#### **4.3.2) Skills**

There are a variety of skills necessary for effective civic participation. As Fine, Bermudez, and Barr (2007) explore, civic skills are often divided into intellectual skills, participatory skills, and socio-emotional skills. Youth are expected to make sound political choices, to take part in processes of collective decision-making, conflict resolution, and negotiation, in the discussion of controversial social and political issues, or the monitoring of government action on behalf of public interests. Knowledge and conceptual understanding are about ‘knowing what’; civic skills are procedural – ‘knowing how’. Cognitive skills refer to the capacities that enable citizens to analyze and synthesize information and arguments, as well as evaluate, reach conclusions, take and defend positions on matters of public concern (Kirlin, 2003). Examples include considering different perspectives, interrogating and interpreting political communication, and supporting positions with evidence and good argumentation. Participatory skills are capacities for working with others, building coalitions, seeking consensus, negotiating differences, and managing conflict. There are skills for communication (public speaking, petitioning, lobbying, protesting), organization (mobilizing, securing funding, leading meetings), and collective decision-making (coordinating perspectives, evaluating alternative solutions, etc.) and also skills for group membership and for conflict resolution.

Skills in other words are what a citizen needs to be able to do to participate effectively and these may include: (a) critical thinking skills: gather and assess information, clarify and prioritize, identify and assess consequences, evaluate, reflect, (b) participation skills: communicate, negotiate, cooperate, manage conflicts peacefully and fairly, reach consensus.

#### **4.3.3) Attitudes**

A third dimension of civic learning comprises the development of values, motives and identities that dispose citizens to engage effectively in democratic practices (Youniss & Levine, 2009). It was noted earlier that civic education strategies to instill the required civic values and attitudes for a virtuous citizen, such as taking responsibility, voting and helping others, upholding the law, and monitoring current affairs in the media, also tolerance and respect for diversity, concern with the rights and welfare. Moral values are important motivators for civic action because they make civic issues personally relevant, providing a sense of purpose for civic action especially with regard to single issues. While young people express very little interest in conventional “politics” or in joining a political party, they are concerned about and active in many community and environmental issues. Because single issues are frequently seen as morally charged they are affectively experienced which may contribute to a sense of personal responsibility. Pedagogical strategies such as the discussion of

moral and civic dilemmas, the reflective analysis of moral contents in literature, or the creative production of personal moral narratives foster a reflective appropriation of social values and the development of moral judgment (Kohlberg, 1984; Selman & Kwok, 2010).

Simply put, attitudes/beliefs are character or dispositions of citizen and these may include: (a) personal character: Moral responsibility, Self-discipline, Respect for individual dignity and diversity of opinion (empathy), (b) public character: Respect for the law, Willingness to participate in public affairs, Commitment to the rule of the majority with respect for the rights of the minority, Commitment to the balance between self-interest and the common welfare, (c) willingness to seek changes in unjust laws in a peaceful and legal manner. Civic Dispositions on the other hand may include: (a) civility, (b) respect for the rights of other individuals, (c) respect for law, (d) honesty open mindedness, (e) critical mindedness, (f) negotiation and compromise, (g) persistence, (f) compassion, (g) patriotism, (h) courage, (i) tolerance of ambiguity (Bennett and Soule, 2005).

#### **4.3.4) Civic Action**

Experiencing civic action constitutes a fourth component of civic competence. Long before they become formal political citizens, young people interact in a variety of civic environments, which provide opportunities for age-appropriate, relevant, and meaningful learning. Cammarota and Fine (2008) and Ginwright (2010) show how community-based civic action is particularly salient among communities marginalized from the conventional political system. This form of civic engagement involves cooperation around targeted problem solving regarding issues of common concern. Participation requires and fosters coming together, working with others, mediating differences, managing conflict, and establishing shared goals in order to regulate, direct, and develop common affairs with a marked sense of “public good”. Community activism is characterized by social responsibility and commitment to partner with others in understanding problems and responsiveness in developing and implementing solutions. Furthermore, community activism builds interdependence and a strong sense of belonging to local environments (Kassimir & Flanagan, 2010).

#### **4.4) Teacher Preparedness for Civic Competencies in OBE**

Education has a major role to play on the levels of civic competencies citizens acquire through a number of ways. Hoskins et.al (2012) emphasises that, curriculum subject of civic education, the methods used to teach the subject and the methods utilised across the school, the school ethos, and the teaching of basic learning-to-learn skills, which enables them to continued to inform themselves, are central to civic competencies. In this regard, teacher training, orientation and preparedness matters a lot in the realization of and in the achievement of curriculum goals in any given education setting. The effectiveness in the delivery and development of competencies to the learners is solely on the heads of the teacher, not as knowledge providers but as facilitators (Kaumba and Mkumba, 2020). Bratton’s et al. (1999) has argued that for civic education to work, it depends not only on the quality of training but on participants’ self-confidence about taking action. The authors argue that the extent of the readiness of the teacher, determines the extent to which a classroom becomes successful. The teacher should have the knowhow and the required level of competence in a particular subject in order to deliver it effectively. In the second instance, the level of participation of the learner also determines how they tend to internalize the lesson and produce actions.

Proper pedagogical practices should well be knitted to the realization of the knowledge, skills and attitudes required in a democracy or social dispensation. Civic Education requires well thought

pedagogies if the outcomes and competences outlined in the Civic Education Curriculum in Zambia are to be achieved. Muleya (2015) and Sakala (2016) noted the lack of proper teacher pedagogical approaches that can bring about desired change in the teaching and learning of Civic Education.

Masaiti and Manchishi (2010) in their study noted that there was a not well developed competency of teachers in what they called subject matter didactic competence. Hence, trainee teachers should be equipped with the abilities to help learners to learn how to learn. Didactic competence also means being able to plan teaching within prescribed regulations, statutes and curriculum. They also noted a lack of social competencies among the trainee teachers. This means that when such students become teachers, it would be impossible that they can be able to develop among learner social-emotional competences of learning.

Sakambuta, Musakanya, Vengi, Lungu, & Magaisa (2018), in another study on assessing the competencies of primary teachers in implementing the competence based curriculum, observed that teachers were not well prepared to implement such a curriculum in the classroom. Teacher training institutions and already serving teachers need to begin to take leading roles in the preparedness to become agents of change if societal-transformation is to occur. All this requires proper demonstration of philosophy of teaching and a clear role as one that contributes to society. Commitment to teaching well is a commitment to service (Hooks, 2003).

## 5.0 Conclusion

Conclusively, in an outcomes based curriculum, developing learner's competences should be core business for teacher. In this regard, teachers need to be well vested in their subject matter thus, Civic Education in this context. Subject specialization is one of the best practices for effective classroom delivery at every level of education. However, there would be need for teachers to be knowledgeable of the key principles of an outcomes based curriculum. This would help teachers to interpret it correctly. The teaching profession demands that teachers acquire the appropriate competencies which are relevant for teaching a specified discipline in the school curricula during their teacher education programme (Changwe and Mulenga, 2018). Since teachers are considered to be key human resource in terms of the development of the country, it is important that teachers are effectively prepared by equipping them with appropriate competencies for teaching during their teacher education programme as well as during School Based Continuing Professional Development (SBCPD).

## References

- Abdi, A, A, Shizha, E and Bwalya, I. (2006) "*Recasting Postcolonial Citizenship through Civic Education: Critical Perspectives on Zambia*". *Youth and Children's Studies*. Paper 3.
- Audigier, F. (2000) *Basic Concepts and Core Competencies for Education for Democratic Citizenship*. Strasbourg: Council of Europe publishing.
- Benjamin L.S. (2014). *The Implementation of Constructivist Approach in Competency-Based Curriculum: A Case of Geography Teaching in Selected Secondary Schools in Songea Municipality*. MEd, The Open University of Tanzania.

- Brookfield, S (1990). *The Skillful Teacher*, San Francisco: Jossey - Bars.
- Bratton, M., Alderfer, P., Bowser, G., & Temba, J. (1999). *The effects of civic education on political culture: Evidence from Zambia*. *World Development*, 27(5), 807-824.
- Bennett, S. F and Soule, S. (2005). *We the People: The Citizen and the Constitution 2005 National Finalists' Knowledge of and Support for American Democratic Institutions and Processes*. Center for Civic Education. <https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/ED491055.pdf>
- Bishop, G. (1985). *Curriculum Development: A textbook for Students*. London: The Macmillan Press.
- Brandt, R. (1994b) 'Is outcome-based education dead?' *Educational Leadership*, 51, 6, 3.
- Bromley, P., & Mäkinen, E. (2011). Diversity in Civic Education: Finland in Historical and Comparative Perspective. *Journal of International Cooperation in Education*, 14(2), 35–50.
- Bwalya, I. (2004). *Political education for development: A case study of Zambia*. Unpublished Manuscript.
- Cammarota, J., & Fine, M. (2008). *Revolutionizing education: Youth Participatory Action Research in Motion*. New York, NY: Routledge.
- Changwe, R. and Mwanza, C. (2019). Reclaiming the Missed Opportunities in the Teaching of Mathematics in Zambia: Exploring the Blame Game on the Poor Performance of Learners in Mathematics. *International Journal of Education and Research*, Vol. 7 No. 6.
- Changwe, R. and Mulenga, I. M. (2018). Mathematics Teacher Education Curriculum at a University in Zambia: Student Teachers' Acquisition of Appropriate Competencies for Teaching Mathematics in Secondary School. *Multidisciplinary Journal of Language and Social Sciences Education*. Volume 1, Number 1.
- Chondoka, Y., & Bwalya, I. (2003). *High school Civics in Zambia*. Memo to the Dean, School of Education, University of Zambia, Lusaka.
- Cogan, J. (1999). *Developing the Civic Society: The Role of Civic Education*. (Bandung: CISED)
- Cox, C. B., Jaramillo, R., & Reimers, F. (2005). *Education for Citizenship and Democracy in the Americas: An Agenda for Action*. Washington, DC: Inter-American Development Bank.
- Curriculum Development Centre. (n.d.a). *Draft Project Proposal for the Integration of Good Governance and Civics Education in The Zambia Basic Education: Grades 10-12 High School Curriculum*. Unpublished document.

- Deacon, R. & Parker, B. (1999). Positively mystical: an interpretation of South Africa's Outcome-based National Qualification Framework. In: J. Jansen & P. Christie (eds.) *Changing Curriculum. Studies on Outcomes-based Education in South Africa*. Cape Town: Juta.
- Delli Carpini, M. and Keeter, S. (1996) *What Americans Know About Politics and Why It Matters* (New Haven, CT, Yale University).
- Education Council (2001) *Report from the Education Council to the European Council*. "The Concrete Future Objectives of Education and Training Systems" Brussels, 14 February 2001. Brussels: European Council.
- Education Council. (2006). Recommendation of the European Parliament and the Council of 18 December 2006 on Key Competencies for Lifelong Learning. Brussels: *Official Journal of the European Union*, 30.12.2006
- Eurydice (2005) *Citizenship Education at School in Europe*. Belgium: Eurydice.
- Fine, M., Bermudez, A., & Barr, D. (2007). *Civic learning survey—Developed for the National Professional Development and Evaluation Project (NPDEP), a longitudinal outcome study of the facing history and ourselves program from 2005–2010*. Brookline, MA: Facing History and Ourselves.
- Galston, W. (2004). *Civic Education and Political Participation*. In *Political Science & Politics journal*, American Political Science Association, 264-265 p.
- Gardner, David. *A Nation at Risk*. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Education, 1983.
- Ginwright, S. (2008). Collective Radical Imagination; Youth Participatory Action Research and The Art of Emancipatory Knowledge. In J. Cammarota & M. Fine (Eds.), *Revolutionizing education: Youth Participatory Action Research in Motion* (pp. 13–22). New York, NY: Routledge.
- Harmanto, Listyaningsih, R Wijaya. (2018). Characteristics of Competence and Civic Education Materials Curriculum in Primary School in Indonesia. The 2nd International Joint Conference on Science and Technology (IJCSST) *Journal of Physics: Conference Series* Conf. Series 953 (2018) 012150 doi :10.1088/1742-6596/953/1/012150.
- Haste, H , Bermudez, A and Carretero, M. (2017). Culture and Civic Competence: Widening the Scope of the Civic Domain in Sandoval-Hernández , A, Treviño-Villareal, E, Ferráns, S .D and Pérez Martínez, M. G. *Civics and Citizenship: Theoretical Models and Experiences in Latin America*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers. 3-15pp.

- Haste, H ,Bermudez , A and Carretero, M. (2017). Culture and Civic Competence; Widening the Scope of the Civic Domain In García-Cabrero. B, Sandoval-Hernández, Treviño-Villarreal, E, Silvia , Ferráns, D and María Guadalupe, M, Martínez, P (Eds) (2017) *Civics and Citizenship :Theoretical Models and Experiences in Latin America. Moral Development and Citizenship Education, Volume 7, Number.*
- Hoskins, B., Saisana, M., & Villalba, C. M. H. (2012). Civic Competence of Youth in Europe: Measuring Cross National Variation Through the Creation of a Composite Indicator. *Social Indicators Research, 123*(2), 431–457.
- Hoskins, B., Villalba, E., Van Nijlen, D., and Barber, C. (2008) Measuring Civic Competence in Europe: A composite Indicator based on IEA Civic Education Study 1999 for 14 years old in School. *CRELL Research Paper, EUR 23210*, Ispra: European Commission.
- Jansen, J.D. (1998). Curriculum reform in South Africa: A Critical Analysis of Outcomes-Based Education. *Cambridge Journal of Education, 28* &(3):321-331.
- Judith Torney-Purta, J, Cabrera, J. C, Roohr, K. C and Liu, O.L, Rio, J. A (2015).Assessing Civic Competency and Engagement in Higher Education: Research Background, Frameworks, and Directions For Next-Generation Assessment.*ETS Research Report Series ISSN 2330-8516.*
- Jurs, P.(2014). Forming Components of Civic Competence. *Journal Of Teaching and Education, Cd-Rom. Issn: 2165-6266 :: 03(03):265–277* (2014)
- Silbereisen, K, Richard M. Lerner (Eds) Approaches to Positive Youth Development. SAGE Publications.
- Kabombwe, M. Y. (2019). *Implementation of the Competency-Based Curriculum in the Teaching of History in Selected Secondary Schools in Lusaka, Zambia*. MEd Dissertation, The University of Zambia.
- Kabombwe, Y and Mulenga M, I. (2019).Implementation of the competency-based curriculum by teachers of History in selected Secondary Schools in Lusaka district, Zambia. *Yesterday &Today, No. 22, Pp. 19-41.*
- Kaumba, C., and Mkumba, S.V., (2020). *Global Citizenship Education and Preventing Violent Extremism in Zambia. A Guide for Teachers*. Lusaka: UNZA Press.
- Kassimir, R., & Flanagan, C. (2010). Youth civic engagement in the developing world: Challenges and opportunities. In L. R. Sherrod, J. Torney- Purta, & C. Flanagan (Eds.), *Handbook of research on civic engagement in youth* (pp. 91–113). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley.

- Keating, A. (2009). Educating Europe's citizens: moving from national to post-national models of educating for European citizenship. *Citizenship Studies*, 13(2), 135–151. <https://doi.org/10.1080/13621020902731140>
- Killen, R. (2009). *William Spady: A Paradigm Pioneer*. <http://teacher.acer.edu.au/> ed. Camberwell, Vic 3124 Australia: Teacher- The National Education Magazine, 2009.
- Kirlin, M. (2003). *The Role of Civic Skills in Fostering Civic Engagement (CIRCLE-Working paper 06: CIRCLE)*. Medford, MA: The Center for Information and Research on Civic Learning and Engagement.
- Kohlberg, L. (1984). *The Psychology of Moral Development: The Nature and Validity of Moral Stages*. San Francisco, CA: Harper & Row.
- Levinson, Meira, (2014). Citizenship and Civic Education. In *Encyclopedia of Educational Theory and Philosophy*, ed. Denis C. Phillips. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- M'kulama, AC.M and Mwiinga, T.M. (2016). The Use of Participatory Technologies in Teaching and Learning in Higher Education: A Case Study of Two Institutions. *AFTRA International Journal of Teaching and Learning in Africa*, Volume 3, No 1,174-186.
- Maiello C, Oser, F & Biedermann, H (2003). Civic Knowledge, Civic Skills And Civic Engagement. *European Educational Research Journal*, Volume 2, Number 3.
- Malan, S. P. T. (2000). The “New Paradigm” of Outcomes-Based Education. in *Perspective. Journal of Family Ecology and Consumer Sciences*, 28: 22-28.
- Manno, Bruno V. (1994). *Outcome-Based Education: Miracle Cure Or Plague?*. Washington D.C.: Thomas Fordham Institute, 1994.
- Gift Masaiti and Peter Chomba Manchishi (2010). The University Of Zambia Pre-Service Teacher Education Programme: Is It Responsive To Schools and Communities' Aspirations? *European Journal of Educational Studies* 3(2), 2011 311.
- Markle, R., Brenneman, M., Jackson, T., Burrus, J., & Robbins, S. B. (2013). *Synthesizing Frameworks of Higher Education Student Learning Outcomes* (Research Report No. RR-13-22). Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1002/j.2333-8504.2013.tb02329.x>
- Mazabow, G. (2003). *The Development of Historical Consciousness in the Teaching of History in South African Schools*. Doctor of Education Thesis. University of South Africa.



- Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education. (2013). Social Studies Syllabus Grades 8-9. Lusaka: Curriculum Development Centre.
- Ministry of Education, Science, Vocational Training and Early Education. (2013). Civic Education Syllabus Grades 10-12. Lusaka: Curriculum Development Centre.
- Moodley, V. (2013). In-service Teacher Education: Asking Questions for Higher Order Thinking. *South Africa Journal of Education*, 33(2):1-18.
- Mouritse, P. and Jaeger, A. (2018). Designing Civic Education for Diverse Societies. Models, Tradeoffs and Outcomes. Migration Policy Institute Europe.
- Mosha, H. J. (2012). A Case Study of Learning Materials Used to Knowledge and Skills or Competency-based Curricula in Tanzania. *ADEA-2012 Triennale on Education and Training in Africa*. February 12-17, 2012. Ouagadougou: ADEA.
- Mulenga M. I & Mwanza, C.(2019).Teacher's Voices Crying in the School Wilderness: Involvement of Secondary School Teachers in Curriculum Development in Zambia. *Journal of Curriculum and Teaching*, Vol. 8, No. 1;
- Muleya, G. (2015). The Teaching of Civic Education in Zambia: An Examination of Trends in the Teaching of Civic Education in Schools. Doctoral thesis, University of South Africa.
- Muleya, G. (2018a). Civic Education in Zambia Before and Beyond the Golden Jubilee. In G. Masaiti (Ed.), *Education At Fifty Years of Independence and Beyond*. Lusaka: Unza Press.
- Muleya, G. (2019). Curriculum Policy and Practice of Civic Education in Zambia: A Reflective Perspective. In A Peterson et al. (eds.), *The Palgrave Handbook of Citizenship and Education*, <https://doi.org/10.1007/978-3-319-67905>.
- Mwanza, C. and Changwe, R. (2020). Teacher Collaboration in Curriculum Design Teams: Prospects and Challenges in Zambian Education System. *Multidisciplinary Journal of Language and Social Sciences Education / Volume 3, No. 1. (Pub. 20.02.2020)*
- Philippou, S. (2009). What Makes {Cyprus} {European}? {Curricular} Responses of {Greek}-{Cypriot} Civic Education To `{Europe}`. *Journal of Curriculum Studies*, 41(2), 199–223. <https://doi.org/10.1080/00220270802558406>
- Sakala, E. (2016). *The Responsiveness of Civic Education Teacher Training Curriculum Towards Democratic Citizenship In Zambia*. A dissertation submitted to the University of Zambia in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the award of the degree of Master of Education in Civic Education. Lusaka.

- Sakambuta, J., Musakanya, T., Vengi, S, Lungu,E., & Magaisa, R. (2018). An Assessment of Primary School Teachers' Competences in Implementing the 2013 Revised Curriculum in Zambia: A Case Study of North western Province. *The International Journal of Multi-Disciplinary Research* ISSN: 3471-7102, ISBN: 978-9982-70-318-5 (Conference ID: CFP/666/2018)
- Schulz, W., Ainley, J., Fraillon, J., Kerr, D., & Losito, B. (2010). *ICCS 2009 International Report: Civic Knowledge, Attitudes, and Engagement among Lower-Secondary School Students in 38 Countries*. Amsterdam. Retrieved from <http://eric.ed.gov/?id=ED520018>.
- Sherrod, L. (2007). *Civic Engagement As An Expression of Positive Youth Development*. (pp. 59-74) In: Rainer K. Silbereisen, Richard M. Lerner (Eds) *Approaches to positive youth development*. SAGE Publications. California, 64-65, 72 p.
- Smit, B. (2001). How Primary School Teachers Experience Education Policy Change in South Africa. *Perspectives in Education*, 19(3):67-84.
- Spady, W. G. (1994). *Outcome-Based Education: Critical Issues and Answers*. Arlington, Va.: American Association of School Administrators.
- Torney-Purta,J, Cabrera,C,J, Roohr, C. K, Liu, L .O & Rios, A. J. (2015). Assessing Civic Competency and Engagement in Higher Education: Research Background, Frameworks, and Directions for Next-Generation Assessment. *ETS Research Report*, Series ISSN 2330-8516.
- UNESCO. (2011). *Final report of the 7th UNESCO Youth Forum*. Paris, France, 2 p. Retrieved from: <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0021/002134/213427e.pdf>
- Veldhuis, R. (1997). *Education For Democratic Citizenship: Dimensions of Citizenship, Core Competences, Variables and International Activities*. Strasbourg, Council of Europe.
- Willis, S and Kissane, B .(1995). *Outcomes Based Education: A Review of Literature Education*. Murdoch: Department of Western Australia.
- Yonglin , Y. (2017) *Civic Competence of EU University Students*. Master of Science degree, program [European Studies], University of Twente.
- Youniss, J., & Levine, P. (2009). *Engaging Young People in Civic Life*. Nashville, TN: Vanderbilt University Press.