University of Fort Hare
Together in Excellence

CHALLENGES AND PROSPECTS OF QUALITY PRIMARY EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE RURAL SCHOOLS: A case study of Kadoma rural schools.

By

MAZISE AMOS

A Thesis Submitted to the University of Fort Hare in Fulfilment of the Requirements of the Master of Social Science Degree in the Department of Development Studies in the Faculty of Management and Commerce, University of Fort Hare, South Africa.

Supervisor: Professor A. Rahim

Year: 2011

Dedication

To my father Fani Ndlela Mazise a source of inspiration that was and also to my mother Rosina Mazise who is always behind my advancement.

Acknowledgement

This research was made possible by the unwavering support materially and scholarly from my supervisor Professor A. Rahim. He guided me right through from the proposal to the final document. Further appreciation goes to Development Studies' Department staff members; Dr. S. Mago; Dr. C. Hofisi; Mrs P. Monyai whose critique and advice shaped my study topic.

Equally salient to my study was my sponsor; The Presidential Scholarship who utterly in and out made it possible for me to pursue my educational career as a master's degree student. I also cherish the support rendered to my study by my family. My wife Wishnet, children; Tatenda, Ruvimbo, and Rutendo missed my presence but continued to support me spiritually and materially. Staunch support also came from my Siblings; Silence, Donas, Tichaona and the rest of the family.

Lastly I would like to thank University of Fort Hare Community for sharing with me its possession during the time of my study.

Thanks to my seniors; Dr. Mushunje, Dr. Mupindu, P. Mukumba and collegues; Toro, David, Ray, Alex, Mangizho, Kamuzonde and Katonje for your support.

Declaration

I declare that this work is my sole production and that I authorise the University to use it for scholarly endeavours.

Signature…… Date…….

Acronyms

UN: United Nations

ACRWC: African Charter for Rights and Welfare of children.

CRC: Convention for the Rights of Children

EDU: Education

ICT: Information Communication and Technology

IMF: International Monetary Fund

WB: World Bank

UNESCO: United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation

ECD: Early child development

ECEC: early childhood education and care

LDCs: Less developed countries

MDGS: Millennium development goals

UPE: Universal primary education

SPSS: Statistical package for social science

Abstract

The study focused on investigating challenges and prospects of quality education in rural primary schools in developing countries particularly in Zimbabwe. Reviewed literature indicated that two theories; education as human capital and education as human right advanced increased access to education. Decline of quality of education in the expansion programme portrayed by the decrease of pass rates to below 50%, pupils' low literacy and numeracy prompted investigation.

A case study of Ngezi rural primary schools was explored using a sample of 50 respondents selected through stratified random technique. Data were gathered by a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods defined as triangulation. Self-administered questionnaires for heads and teachers, interview guide for grade 7 pupils and SDC and observation guide were the instruments employed for data collection. Analysis of the data was done using descriptive statistics.

Findings were that quality of universal education was affected by inadequate supporting inputs and facilities, inappropriate teaching methods and unmotivated teachers. However 80% of the schools were staffed with qualified teachers depicting government's commitment to quality education. 40 % of the schools without qualified leadership were indicative of the effect of poor school conditions to staff turn up. In studies carried out in Kenya, Uganda, Tanzania and India quality also declined as access was increased due to similar causes.

Recommendations were to create a strong collaboration among stakeholders through communication to ensure the four conditions for quality are met simultaneously as they are interdependent and reforming the curriculum to suit means and needs of the people.

Key words

- Human capital
- Human rights
- Universal education
- Primary school
- Quality education
- Rural school
- Pass rate
- Curriculum reform

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

CHAPTER1

The dilemma of universal education and quality

1.0 Introduction

The concern to end illiteracy and the belief that education is an investment capable of improving individual and societal lives made it imperative for world nations to adopt universal education. Although provision of education to all people was a global notion, it was indeed not uniform among developed and less developed countries. Notwithstanding the success in increasing access to education less developed nations in particular the sub Saharan countries encountered a drawback of quality education decline paralleling the increased access to education (Ngware et al, 2010; Courtney, 2008; Chapman et al, 2005).

The decline of quality manifests in low pass rates, high dropout rates, underdeveloped skills where pupils leave schools still unable to read, write and unready for self-employment or being employed (Shoko, 2010; Michaelowa, 2001). The fall of quality in education turned to be a worldwide problem working against the United Nations movement for Universal primary education aimed at achieving education for all (Sperling, 2001; Lockeed et al 1991; Dorsey, 1989).

Providing education to all was deemed necessary for the improvement of human lives (Schultz, 1977; Todaro, 1989; Abdulahi, 2008). The cases informing the universal primary education movement were humanitarian, sociological, political and economic essence of education (Bloom and Cohen 2002: 87-88). On humanitarian grounds education is pivotal in development of individual capacities that enable them to lead dignified lives. It promotes respect for human life and consequently people are compelled to appreciate promotion of equal opportunities and awareness of each other's cultures which are the basis of respect for human rights (Barrett, 2009; Abdulahi, 2008; Kumar, 2004).

Sociologically, education ties up social and cultural capitals which are necessary ingredients for human and economic development (Bloom and Cohen, 2002: 87). The implication is that education offers an opportunity for people to learn to value other people's capacities and to live as a community, in order for them to become responsible for their own development as well as for those around them. In addition educated people are aware of the need for social justice and respect of human rights which are vital for peace and development (Bloom and Cohen, 2002: 87). Without peace, people shun investment owing to risks abound instability and injustices and therefore improvement of lives falters.

The same values apply to political essence of education. Fukuyama (cited in Bloom 2002: 87) supports this argument as he contends that democracy cannot be found functioning well in a largely illiterate society. The illiterate people cannot take advantage of information about choices that come by debates or votes. Therefore human capital theory which incorporates the values of civil and political goals would not achieve them without effective universal education.

The inclusion of universal education in the Millennium Development goals as goal number two is an indication of world nations' concern for giving quality education to all target age groups (Steer and Wathne, 2009; Webster, 2000). The initiative to embark on universal education emerged from the declaration of human rights in 1948 in which education was conferred a human right status, reinforcing the goal for providing education to all; conventions on the progress setting and evaluation were carried out in Thailand, Jomptien;1990 and Dakar, Senegal, 2000 (Steer and Wathne, 2009) but unequal access and provision of resources in colonial period (era before 1980) did not resonate with the theoretical goal of universal education. The

disparity raised the demand for education in the post-colonial era which subsequently became unmanageable in resource terms.

The term quality is elusive and subjective. Its definition is controversial since there is no one absolute meaning to the term. Some take it to mean high achievement in standard tests, completion, of learning programmes, low dropout and repetition rates (Kanyongo, 2005). While others posit that it implies meeting set standards and indicators that include adequate inputs, the process, outputs and outcomes (Ngware, Oketch and Ezeh, 2010). The continuum of its definitions also include; a product or service characterised by distinctiveness or excellence, transformative (being able to adapt to new setup through inputs and process), consistency and culture in meeting specifications, value for money and fitness for purpose (Adams, Cheng and Tam 1997). More often than not, in primary schools quality is measured in terms of achievement that is distinctive output or scores in standard tests, completion of the learning program, dropout and repetition rates (Michaleowa, 2001; Kanyongo, 2005). These are only measurable outputs of other indicators determining quality in the learning and teaching process.

Quality determinant factors include supporting inputs from parents, community and the education system, school climate, teaching and learning process involving learning time and teaching pedagogies, and the student outcomes (William, 2008; Gcobisa 2003; Courtney, 2001; Heneveld, 1994). To this list this study adds school culture which informs climate that most writers value. A number of authors regard the term outcome as to refer to long term achievement mostly after the learning process but in this study it is centred on what happens as the pupil is doing the primary learning that is the student achievement.

The supporting input indicators entail material, human financial resources; teaching and learning process that define what goes on in the school with the resources, how the school leadership creates an environment that motivates both the teacher and the learner to play their roles effectively, it also promotes good and favourable habits in the school leading to the establishment of cultural traits that include order, discipline, organized curriculum and positive attitudes and finally the outcomes which to a greater extent are the results of the learning that is the cognitive achievement, impact on learner's potentialities as well as outcomes traced in societal and individual returns such as economic success.

The argument is quality outcomes cannot be reaped from poor quality inputs, neither a good process can be made out of inadequate low quality inputs or from an unfavourable school environment. Besides determining quality by cognitive achievement only is not wholesome, there is need to focus on the capacity of educational service to develop various individual potentialities for human development and not only economic development (Rahim, 2006).

Individual potentialities are the unique innate abilities that are improved and shaped by the environment. This view suggests pedagogical approaches that are child centred and practical to be more prominent than rote methods (McKenzie, 2003). Such pedagogies allow each and every child opportunities to explore its abilities. It entails that quality education emanates from learning environments that enable pupils' participation in their learning following strong supporting inputs from parents and community, school enabling conditions, and teaching and learning process deliberately created by teachers. Therefore teachers play a pivotal role more imperative in the hope for quality.

The relativity of the term quality poses a challenge as to who should proclaim a product or service to be of good quality. Sifuna (2007) contends that quality is the extent to which goals set by the service provider and customer are achieved. In contrast Murgatroyd argues that quality is determined by the customer and not supplier (Murgatroyd, 1991). In education the customers are the pupils/students who rarely bargain for what they need, parents, stakeholders or private sponsors and employers among others (Sahney, et al, 2004). These are implicitly supposed to contribute to setting measures of good quality.

Therefore curriculum planners and implementers have an imperative to satisfy the needs of their clients (learners, parents and people served by the beneficiaries of the learning process). How to do it, compels consultation of the people in need of the educational service as argued for by Sen that people know what they need (Sen, 1999). The notion is supported by Chambers (1983: 141) who contends that the insiders know what they need and have their own priorities which may not be the same with those of the outsiders who plan for their interventions. Hence there is a strong need for educational planning to start with consultation with the recipients of the service.

Education is categorised as non-formal, pre-formal informal and formal (Rahim, 2006). A little will be said about these categories as the focus here is not on forms of education but quality of the universal primary education. However it is crucial to explain them since they are forms of education from which group formal universal education is isolated for this discussion.

The first one, informal refers to education obtained in natural setups like homes through oral procedures and mostly in mother's tongue (Rahim, 2006). Pre-formal

which has developed new names such as early childhood education and care (ECEC) education for child development (ECD) is provided to children under the age of four years to develop fine motor skills through play learning in preparation for their first entry into primary education (UNESCO, 2001; Cleghorn and Prochner, 1997). Formal education is structured with conditioned learning designed by an accredited authority. It is comprises of levels ranging from primary, secondary upper secondary schools and tertiary education offered by colleges and universities. Lastly, non-formal education is similar to formal but the learning arrangement is individualistic and private (Rahim 2006; Ministry of education, sport and culture, 2007b: 7).

Although Zimbabwe is renowned for achieving universal education within the first decade of its independence (Mehrotra, 1998; Nhundu, 1992; Todaro, 1989; Dorsey, 1989), the noted observations were that the quality of education declined since the 1990s alongside with expansion of education (Shoko, 2011; Kanyongo 2005; Nhundu, 1992). The policy of universal primary education remains invaluable but the problem is to find means to overcome the challenges perpetrating the decline of quality.

Those inclined to human rights perspective emphasises on inclusion, democracy and relevance of the learning content (Tikly and Barrett, 2010). In other words, the focus is on equal access to education. They imply that quality education is not discriminatory, it is democratic by opening up to public debate for people's contribution to policy formulation and that results in people oriented curriculum. This boils down to say quality of education refers to fitness for a purpose; defined by the customers of the service and the providers in a given context, time and space (Pring, 1992; Cheng and Tam, 1997). Difference in educational goals for different

institutions globally nationally, provincially and locally at school level explains varying definition of quality in one place or another.

The view of quality as fitness for a purpose does not subscribe to quality as excellence (Cheng and Tam 1997). However there is a thin line of variance as general goals of education are a product of the international convention on education for all. The goals seek to: Provide quality education to all eligible pupils and as a target of the MDGs to achieve the goal by 2015 (Barrett, 2009: 3). Therefore considering quality in terms of being locally defined is not recognized globally. Its impact is militated by the global influence operationally under the United Nation protocols.

On attainment of Independence in 1980 Zimbabwe adopted mass education system in an attempt to rectify the educational legacy of the colonial elitist policy. Mass education system was meant to implement the policy of universal primary education (UPE) or education for all and it increased access to learning for all school-age children including illiterate adults in many countries that were just attaining their independence (Mlahleka, 1995; Gene, 2001). It extended access to even the remotest rural areas by establishing more learning centres. In Zimbabwe it made a remarkable success; enrolments increased from 885 801 to 2 962 881 pupils between 1979 and 1989 (Mungazi, 1983; Nhundu, 1992). Transition from colonial elitist education system to massive education expansion on the one hand accorded majority of the school-age children access to learning and on the other problems of quality assurance due to decline of resources. Quality is determined by achievement of set goals through adequate resources and appropriate process (Pring, 1992). In Zimbabwe goals of universal primary education are to make everyone literate,

numerate and to acquire basic scientific skill (UNESCO, 2001). According to Lockheed (1991) quality is realized among others, when pupils complete their learning programme and attain pass mark. The primary programme last for seven years in Zimbabwe. Therefore children who drop out of school or repeat a grade level regardless of whatever the cause is degrade the quality of education.

1.1 Statement Of The Problem

The decline of quality universal education militated against the success of the programme of education for all in Zimbabwe as measures to refocus on quality created constraints for the rural poor people' access to education. The country is applauded for achieving universal education; it managed to increase access to formal learning for all eligible pupils without racial discrimination as opposite to the tendency in the colonial elitist education system (Kanyongo, 2005; Dorsey, 1989). Removal of the racial discrimination and other barriers and increase of the schools raised the number of pupils from 885 801 to 2 962 881such that by 1990s resources were too far stretched to meet requirements of quality education (Kanyongo, 2005; Dorsey, 1989). Since the factors determinant to quality education (supporting inputs, culture, school climate teaching and learning process, student outcome) are inter-dependent, missing out one influences the other factors negatively. That means lack of supporting inputs creates an unfavourable environment for teaching-learning and eventually the process and its outcome are affected negatively.

The deterioration of support for education was worsened by adoption or forced adoption of economic reforms of the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund which limited government expenditure in social services (Chikoko, 2008;

Nhundu, 1992). The consequence was the turn down of education quality manifesting itself in lower pass rates at grade 7 level, high dropout and repetition rates across all grades. Implicitly dwindling of resources which the government's budget in the reformed economic programs could not revive contributed to decline of quality.

Low pass rates impact negatively on the rural pupils' opportunities in socio-economic and even political fields by making them less competent to their counterparts from better schools in terms of skills acquired from school. Adoption of factors that can improve the quality of universal education is imperative lest the rural children continue to suffer inequality between them and the urban counterparts as was the case before the increased access to learning. However, Quality universal education cannot be realised by a curriculum that has a bias towards urban society without regard for the other societies in particular the rural and mine societies.

The argument is that through diversified approaches and collaboration of community and other stakeholders, universal quality education in primary schools should be one that is capable of developing individual potentialities. Human beings have different abilities; these can be mental or physical abilities which at one stage in life have to be developed. The potentialities cannot be improved by one method of teaching, at one rate of understanding and even with the same medium. Therefore child-centred approaches are argued to be the necessary ingredients to quality universal education together with other factors of enabling nature.

Debates about quality universal education should not look at factors determinant to quality outcomes in isolation; the factors are interlinked. They are interdependent and therefore have to be accorded the same attention simultaneously. In that light,

universal quality education is achievable by balancing prevalence of the enabling environment comprising of supporting inputs and favourable school climate and suitable teaching and learning process.

1.2 Objectives Of The Study

The overall objective of this study is to explore challenges and prospects of quality in the context of universal education in rural primary schools in Zimbabwe. To achieve this general objective, the sub-objectives of the study will be the following:

- Evaluate provision of supporting inputs that are determinant to quality education.
- Establish how the prevalent school culture and climate relate to quality.
- Assess the application of child centered teaching pedagogies favourable to quality education in relation to development of potentialities.

1.3 Significance Of The Study

This study explores ways to enhance quality universal education which is at stake (Dorsey 1997: 41). Quality focuses at cognitive achievement, completion of primary course, consistent attendance, progressive transition from one grade to another and provision of quality resources. These are subjects of the availability of strong enabling conditions that include supporting inputs, school culture and climate, teaching and learning process and the student outcomes. Previous studies on the decline of quality education fairly contributed to the resolving of the problem. Also, the challenges faced were that they individualised the solutions by assuming

provision of adequate resources only to schools would ensure improvement of the learning and teaching.

In contrast effective schooling is possible with consideration of all pre-requisite factors that include these enabling conditions; supporting inputs, favourable school culture and climate, teaching and learning process and the student outcomes Dugan and Hernon 2002: 377). Notwithstanding the government's plausible success in education expansion policy, quality of education has remained a concern for parents, learners and society at large (Kanyongo, 2005). Interventions such as Basic Education Assistance Module; a provision for the levies of children from poor families has not yet put these challenges to rest. Rethinking provision of the five factors at once is potentially a solution to the problem of the decline of education.

Findings from this study would provide suggestions for quality assurance to share with people involved in the study and public at large. The study may draw attention to stake holders and the private sector to focus on the needy areas for quality education essential for rural development.

1.4 Research Methodology

The study used a qualitative methodology. The inductive approach was preferred for its strength in giving detailed explanations of a phenomenon as viewed by the people affected (Babbie, 2007) and in this case explanation of challenges and prospects to declining quality of education. Questionnaires with both open and closed ended questions were used for data collection to accommodate respondents' own views about quality decline in Kadoma rural schools.

Selection of the district by purposive sampling was on account of prevalence of quality decline problem in it and that it was be feasible for the researcher to manage data collection. This was a multi-site study as each school constitutes a site. The study used semi-structured interviews and survey (questionnaires) to collect data from selected units of analysis. Units of analysis are objects of observation (Gray, 2009; Babbie, 2008). In this study the units were school development committees, heads, teachers, and pupils. These have been selected with regard to their participation in education systems in some ways.

1.5 Research Design

A plan for collecting, measuring and analysing data is a research design (Gray, 2009; Shephard, 2002). The plan here was to carry out a case study on quality of education in the Kadoma rural primary schools. Self-administered questionnaires were distributed to heads and teachers while SDC and pupils were interviewed. A questionnaire was preferred for its strength in wide coverage at minimum costs. Data from questionnaires were easy to convert into figures for comparative analysis (Gray, 2009; Shephard, 2002). Both closed and open-ended questions were used for respondents to express themselves where necessary. Other methodological issues; sampling, data collection procedures and data analysis were discussed in detail in chapter three focusing on research methodology.

1.6 Delimitation of the study

Rural schools were the most disadvantaged in educational services during the colonial government in Zimbabwe (Nhundu, 1992). Both access and quality were at minimum compared to urban schools that belonged to the elites. Therefore rural schools offered suitable site for examining challenges to improvement of declining

quality of education. Purposive selection of five rural schools is based on the assumption that the schools had the characteristics of the questions under this inquiry.

The term quality is relative rather than absolute; there are several models used to define and measure quality. For this study focus is on quality defined by strong supportive inputs from the community, creation of enabling conditions , school culture and climate as initiated by teachers, pupils, community and effective teaching and learning born from the interaction of the learners and the teachers.

In the Ngezi Rural District there are eight clusters of schools. This given, the data of this study is delineated to five rural schools from one cluster out of 61 schools in Ngezi rural areas of Kadoma to assess the decline of education quality.

1.7 Ethical Consideration

The research ethics that researchers maintain privacy and anonymity on part of the respondents (Babbie, 2008) were given utmost concern. Accordingly in this study, data collected from respondents was treated with confidentiality through maintaining privacy and anonymity by excluding names in collection instruments like questionnaires. Efforts were made to address the consent of the respondents before their responses through informing them the purpose of the study. A research approval letter from the supervisor and the District Education Officer of Kadoma warranting the investigation were presented to the respondents before the interviews and questionnaire completion had begun.

The University of Fort Hare's policy on research which requires researchers to avoid plagiarism was adhered to through citations of the originator of the data used for the

study. The researcher ensured that the data collected is solely used for the academic purposes to avoid prejudicing the originator of the data and the university's reputation in anyway. The data gathered herein was used to substantiate the researcher's discussion. Shepard (2002:56) advised that it is the researcher's responsibility to guard against actions crossing an ethical measure. In any case the researcher has to be alert enough to prevent transgressing good conducts of research. As such the harmonious successful collection of data made by the researcher indicates that the respondents were not offended during the research process.

1.8 Conclusion

This chapter defined the research problem and the background of the education in Zimbabwe. It establishes that expansion of education in post-colonial Zimbabwe and other former colonies like Uganda, Kenya, Tanzania, Bangladesh, Latin America, India and others was motivated by the United Nations theme of education for all (EFA) for literacy (Kanyongo, 2005). The expansion of education was intended to close the gap between classes created by the discriminatory provision of education in the colonial period to the colonised and colonialists and for human capital and human development. Research questions and objectives were given including the units of analysis. It described the decline of education quality; its assumed causes and possible solutions under investigation in this study. Terms have been explained in the context of this study. The focus of the study was spelt and delimitation has been outlined. Some constraints to the investigation have been identified as well as ethical considerations that include avoidance of plagiarism and respect of privacy of

the respondents engaged in this study. The methodology; methods, data collection and analysis procedures have also been explained.

Review of literature on decline of quality of education since the 1990s, empirical evidence on the challenges and prospects of quality education will come in chapter 2. Theories of human capital, human rights and quality management as contextualised to educational provisions were also discussed in the next coming chapter.

CHAPTER 2

Reviewing universal education perspectives

2.0 Introduction

Reviewing literature is important, it is also recognised as necessary by Confucius (cited in Hofstee, 2006:91) who contends that a man who reviews the old so as to find the new is qualified to teach others. Therefore the purpose of this chapter is to review and analyse the implication of the three perspectives of universal education in this study on challenges and prospects of quality universal education. The theoretical perspectives to be analysed are; education as human capital, education as human right, universal education and the proposed model for achieving quality universal education based on provision of enabling conditions comprising of the supporting inputs and the favourable school, culture and climate, the teaching and learning process and the student learning outcomes.

A theory is defined as a set of interrelated constructs or concepts, propositions that present a systematic view of phenomena by specifying relations among variables with the purpose of examining and predicting phenomena (Babbie, 2008). In this light, the discussion herein is centred on how human capital and education as a right perspectives influenced the spread of universal education. The theories are explored to provide lenses by which to view the relationships between quantitative and quality education and the model for quality is examined to establish how the theories could enhance both increased access to education and quality in the provision of universal education.

Universalisation of education is a United Nations creation based on rationale beyond literacy and numeracy. The argument rose about the focused role of education after the World War 2 stressed the objective behind declaration of education as human right in 1948 following the ideology of Education for All (EFA) and subsequently programme of universal primary education.

In the advent of rebuilding economy in post World War 2 era, a number of interventions and innovations to rebuild economy, peace and stability were invented by the super nations of the West and the North (US and Europe). The period saw the birth of the World Bank (WB) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) in 1944 to control the reconstruction assets and monitoring international money respectively. In the process education was perceived to be an essential tool in creating a new world order by instilling values of global good citizenship and civic responsibility prepared to adopt democratic ethos (Andreassen and Marks, 2006).

The instrumental role of education under the human capital notion entails facilitating growth of economy through improvements in industrial productions. Such a condition is obliged to strive to meet the market goals of learning at the expense of developing human potentialities for individual's life sustainability. Market orientation is subject to discrimination and futility of the intent to universalise education. Gewirtz (2000: 363) argues that learners have become objects of the education system, to be attracted and excluded according to their commercial worth, instead of being subjects with needs, interests and potentialities. Therefore Human capital approach alone does not provide quality education that meets the survival needs of all recipients of education.

The outstanding issue that needs urgent attention is transformation of the education into quality education capable of producing productive individuals without exceptional. That is to say education should impart skills relevant to each beneficiary and it is only possible with child centred learning given under favourable conditions for both the learner and the teacher. Yet for human capital theory, quality of education is measured by excellence and not by the development of the potentialities possessed by different people. The reason behind the human capital focus is simply quick profits from exploitation of distinctive talents at the expense of human development.

On one hand selection of values created a link between education and earnings; meaning that a choice on what to be learnt and how it would be rewarded at work was an incentive for learning while on the other hand the United Nations claim that Universal Primary education was an initiative meant to help developing countries to apply it as tool for development Kumar (2004). The instrumental use of education less contributed to development of individual potentialities.

The following discussion looks at the notion of human capital approach to provision of education in detail with exploration of the fills and gaps in fulfilment of quality and equity emphasis given on the United Nations declaration of education as a human right and universalising primary education. Education as a human right perspective is also reviewed in conjunction with the humanistic notions informing the perspective. The proposed model of quality to be encompassed by the increased access to education is herein the same section reviewed. The review of literature is meant to guide the investigation and arguments for and against the causal factors to the state of quality of education in primary schools.

2.1 Education as human capital

The discourse is dubbed human capital to express that human beings/people invest in themselves by various means including education. Investment refers to expenditure on assets that have the potential to raise income or increase productivity in future (Woodhall, 1987; Sheehan, 1973; Schultz, 1987). Now the question is identifying education with either investment or consumption. Goods or social services that are made for immediate use without anticipating profits from them in the near future are consumptions. While those that are produced for future returns are investments. Education is acquired for the sack of literacy and numeracy and on the other hand it is meant for attaining and developing skills that are saleable. In this scenario it is conceivable that it is both consumption and an investment.

Adam Smith (cited in Rahim, 2006; 856) opines that education in human capital view is an investment appended to improve individual's occupational status and opportunities. It assumes an instrumental role that is market oriented (Gewirtz, 2000: 355). That is to say, education is designed to meet the obligation of economic needs such as equipping people with skills to be productive in industrial work as employees. The functional perspective of education in the human capital approach culminated in the setting up of measurement of education quality based on the demand set out by the market forces.

Inputs as measurement for quality entails proportions in the provision of resources such as teacher-pupil ratios, pupil-book ratios, while outputs refer to enrolment rates, pass rates, attrition rates including dropouts and absenteeism rates (Fedderk and Luizy, 2008: 653). However the measures do not directly or effectively tell how much benefit from the learning process is received by the learners in terms of quality

education that enables individuals to develop their potentialities. Certainties about the measures are discriminations based on pass rates, affordability of inputs and competences required by the school and not needs of the learner.

Education is viewed by Mincer (cited in Rahim, 2006: 856) as ”acquired abilities” and skills that are regarded as “human capital”. The value accorded to education as source of knowledge and skills contributed to increase in demand for education and education expenditure under the human capital frame work. The increase in expending is based on assumed increase in per capita income and gross national product. This encouraged the demand for the spread of universal education.

Implicitl, quality education is an investment with both private and social benefits in future. Shultz (1987) advances that economic growth of different nations is not determined by their genetic differences but by acquired abilities. It is observed that increase in national output of Western countries was neither from increased land nor working hours but human capital. On the same note, families and communities are economically, politically and socially differentiated by the extent of their acquired abilities which come by education. For instance literate farmers have been observed to cope with new farming technology better than their uneducated counterparts (Todaro, 1989). These observations concretise the need for rethinking quality in the provision of universal primary education.

Notwithstanding the satisfaction that education is both consumption and investment one more gap to be filled is on whether all kind of education is a real investment that meets the anticipated private and societal benefits or returns. In response many authors argue that quality education has positive effect on economic growth far larger than quantity of education (Wobmann, 2007; Rahim, 2006; Livingstone 1999).

Hence, it could be concluded that education as human capital would not bring forth socio-economic development and observations noted that countries with low economic development have low level of education. This indicates human capital has little chances of facilitating universal quality education in such a scenario.

The theory's aggregate or societal returns of education appear to be less prominent in the advent of increasing costs of learning while compensation growth (income) remains stagnant especially in social services. Another limitation of the thesis is the increasing school enrolments since the 1970s while unemployment and underemployment of the educated continue to grow (Livingstone, 1999). Increased enrolments in primary schools do not imply children start schooling knowing the benefits of education as consumable and investment. If they knew they would speak out what they need to learn. Their initial drive for education is externally motivated mostly by their parents hence some imbibe the education that contributes to their unemployment by its irrelevance.

Human capital theory's measure for quality is based on achievement in standardised tests (Heneveld and Graig, 1996 quoted in Barretta and Tickly, 2010). This market-led solution of input-output model is criticised for its "one size fits all" that culminates in irrelevant curriculum for rural pupils and same examination for pupils in different learning environment. It has been vilified for monopoly and benefiting the elites without significant windfall advantage to the rural people in terms of the quality of their education and competency in job opportunities.

Social and cultural issues are not of importance to the human capital theory. This is evidenced by the focus on screening, certificating licensing and opting out the perceived less able and educated (Hong, 2007**).** In the 1980s education was made a

human capital theory's instrument which led to the introduction of a subject economics of education (Schultz, 1977). In contrast Rahim accuses human capital for turning education into learning to labour instead of empowering learners to develop their potentialities (Rahim, 2006: 863). In imparting selected values and not others is a deprivation of learners' freedoms, in that respect education as human capital is discriminatory and not education worth the universalisation definition for quality education.

However, the social skill that is neglected is essential for social capital an ingredient in human development. It is through knowing the common needs of the society that is causal to the selection of what they all need and support. Pursuit of economic and technical issues in isolation of building up social capital discredits human capital discourse in making universal quality education a reality.

The human capital perspective for education; elitist in nature was partly responsible for the educational dualism in the pre-independence era (Chiwaro and Manzini, 1995). Its notion for quality is denoted by excellence and in the colonial times quality education was from quality schools that belonged and secluded to the white colonial people. In respect of this standard of excellence, few colonial elite children would be in schools, would complete their learning programs, proceed to secondary schools, train in white colour job skills and eventually get better jobs compared to their counterparts from public schools of poor quality education resulting from low quality inputs.

Job competition, unemployment and underemployment in less developed countries rise with the application of education as a human capital. Thurow (1987), comments that education expansion under human capital notion does not initiate wage

competition as intended. He further argued that instead it causes job competition where employers choose among applicants those assumed to be the best who would not incur the enterprise much in terms of training costs. The outcome is higher qualifications for a low status job, a job that could be done with anyone with little education which is underemployment.

To a greater extent few people in government; the elites ensured that educational policies that shape the curriculum for the majority in a top-down approach keep the education of the public schools less competent to that of the colonial government schools. The masses at the bottom; rural poor did not contribute to decisions but were expected if not mandated to accept and implement the obligation (Mlahleka, 1995). It follows that in Zimbabwe the dual education system crafted under the elite model made white education free and compulsory (Education Act of 1930) while for the black majority got minimum provision from missionaries (Chiwaro and Manzini, 1995). Consequently too many people could not access education.

This scenario maintained illiteracy among the majority of the people and even the gap between the haves and the have-nots. Few black people who had by chance managed to slip into colonial elites clique became the haves with all they wanted while the have-nots without even their wants remained in poverty of both lack of basic needs and the education to take them out of it.

There are some points to note about education as a tool for human development. In view of the society as a whole, these notions impact negatively on education as human capital. Acquired abilities are in separable with the owner, to benefit from them the owner has to be involved and at acquisition stage, the effectiveness of skills development depends on commitment and own time invested by an individual

(Shultz, 1987:12) This reflects on the reasons why a clique that managed to push their way into the elitism are no more party of the people struggling to join them. However this argument does not mean to disrespect the societal benefits accruing from the educated within the societies such as tax, knowledge from informal processes and other physical ones received by extended family members. Of interest is the analogy made by Schultz (ibid) between human and physical capital that they both depreciate over a time. But machines as physical capital can be renewed while human beings cannot, therefore investment in human beings give better returns when made at youthful stage.

Today with the life span reduction in most of the developing countries due to the spread of diseases and HIV/AIDS, two issues need noting. Investing in education at youthful stage has more chances for the individual to make private and societal benefits and secondly the approach to education should be universally as advocated for by the human rights movement because selection of a few where the life span is commonly short does not guarantee the nation a continued supply of skills(O'Brien and Broom, 2011).

Education as human capital failed to bring universal education to fruition in most of the developing countries due to its biased definition for quality. It associated quality with best government schools which were too few to cater for universal education. Measuring quality by excellent cognitive performance resulted in negligence of pupils of other potentialities hence many eligible education seekers were hindered from accessing education. Education as a human right came in with contrasting approach which the following section discusses.

The demand for education by the majority of the people grew too huge to sustain. At independence most of the developing countries found universal primary education a subject of no choice to post-colonial governments. Much in the same manner, human rights movements like Oxfam were also advocating for the implementation of universal education to ensure the right to education was realized by all eligible people.

2.2 Education and human rights

Proponents of human rights found their opinions converging to protection of human rights as a tool to social, economic development and political stability (Dorsey 1997: 45). This probes the question on what the rights are. It is asserted that all freedoms and entitlements comprise the human rights (Nussbaum, 2011; Kumar 2004: 239). They include the right to life, liberty, food, health and education to mention but a few. These rights are interrelated and interlocked so much that violation of one impacts on the attainment of the other. For instance the right to education is essential for the right to freedom of expression and information.

In another view, human rights are best seen foundationally as commitments in social ethics, comparable to reasoning (Sen, 2006:3). The argument is that human rights observation lies in the involvement of the public in reasoning them as such and open and constructive criticism of human rights protection and practice still find them vital to human development. It is also at this point important to note that the latest right declared in 1986 is the right to development. This right has been treated as a vector for all other human rights; conversely the right to education is the vehicle to the right to development. Therefore education is pivotal to attainment of human development as is human rights to the success of universal education.

Education as a human right theorists argue that schools operating under the influence of human capital motive continue to waste natural talent by denying equitable job chances to youth from poor backgrounds long before they enter the job market, (Livingstone, 1997: 56). The assertion distastes barriers created by some schools that aspire to maintain superiority as emblematic to quality education at the expense of access by other eligible people of different useful potentialities.

The right to education in general promotes educational access by all who include both children and adults. But in this discussion the central idea is about children's education. A distinction between a child and an adult should be put here to clarify the point of children's education. "Every human under the age of eighteen" is defined as a child (Memzur 2008:16). In the context of primary education most pupils start their formal learning at an average age of seven years and complete the learning cycle at less than fifteen years. During their primary and secondary education they will be treated as children obliged to receive care from parents and state.

Education for this age group was, and still is constitutionally supported by the UN and African nations through the Convention on Children's Rights (CRC) and the African Charter on the Rights and Welfare of Children (ACRWC) respectively. However, Memzur disputes that the UN does not forward its concept of a child in the CRC. The meaning given here has been put forward by the ACRWC. In that scenario it is not comprehensive as to what age limit the CRC purport to protect. But it is agreeable that both the constitutions save the purpose of advancing children's rights in which the right to education is grounded.

The crux of the matter in education as human rights approach is equal opportunities to education for all. The rationale for placement of education as a human right is to

remove all obstacles based on racial, national, tribal reasons including economic predisposition (UN, 1948).It had been not that many children fail to attend school on such grounds, for instance 30% of children in seven of African countries were out of school due to discrimination and financial incapacity (UNESCO 2004 cited in Memzur 2008; 22). The assumption is that removal of obstacles would increase the rate of education expansion to enhance other human rights essential for human development.

According to Andreassen and Marks (2006, 57-59) Article 8 of Human Rights requires states to ensure inter alia equality of opportunity in their access to basic resources and social services. Chief among the services is education for all where universal education is a component supported by the right to education policy. Never the less challenges face the movement for universal education as noted by Oxfam (1995) that poverty keeps about 130 million children of the poor out of school, yet the governments of these poor states continue to cut state education service. Therefore hope to achieve universal quality education by 2015 remain inconceivable.

Despite that education is acknowledged as an important element in the recognition of all other human rights, provision of universal quality education to all eligible people is relentlessly challenging poor people. Ghai (2006:149) noted that, “the essential human rights, life lived dignity, is rendered impossible by poverty” This entails that rural people though they may have access to education realizing the quality of it is made impossible with the shortfalls in the provision of the five factors necessary for the success of quality teaching and learning, namely: supporting inputs, enabling environment, school climate, teaching and learning process and the student outcomes to be discussed at length in the sections to come.

As noted by Rahim (2006:857) that development should strive to fulfil the basic needs of human beings, likewise right to education alone cannot promote universal primary education. Other rights come into play; access to clean water, health provisions and for universal education more important is access to information, communication and technology (ICT). The view of communication and technology is prophesised by Rust that it would soon replace the classroom teacher by the electronic devices (radios, cassette and video players) that have ceased to be supplementary media but the main instructor (Rust 1990:283).

Today the usage of computers and the internet for access to information is evidence enough of the transformation of the instructional process in education. The classroom confinement is being overtaken by universal teaching at national or even global level. It is argued that the quality of teaching in the developing world remain a suspect if they continue to back trail in the technological improvement (Rust, 1990:281). What does this imply for the rural school without electricity? If urban schools with electricity cannot have all pupils accessing computers rural schools are worse. Therefore inadequate ICT facilities in many African schools militates possibilities of quality universal education in both national and global terms.

Human rights perspective for education delivery system is child centred. It sees rote methods where the teacher lectures or tells everything about the lesson while learners listen passively as the source of uncritical thinking that denies development of individual capabilities. White and Talbet, 2005 (cited in Zajda et al, 2006) maintained that schools under human rights principles should move beyond traditionalist education that make pupils passive recipients, instead both teachers and the pupils have to participate equally.

However the approach is criticized for adoption of top-down strategy and its advocates, donor agents whose standards for quality education are foreign to third world countries (Unterhalter 2007). Besides, schools have varying cultural practices that distinguish one school from another in terms of supportive inputs within and from the community Snowden and Gorton (cited in Fihla, 2003).Therefore consideration of the behaviour, norms values and beliefs that characterise a school gives leaders in the schools a vantage towards improvement of quality learning in the schools. The culture of the school and its effect to quality determination shall be further discussed under factors determinant to quality education in the subsequent section.

Notwithstanding impact of child centeredness, protection against abuse and education campaigns in many countries through abuse campaigns and school feeding schemes, these initiatives are externally conceived hence they are not sustainable and decline of quality is attached to their failure.

The argument in this study is that quality and increased access through the universal education programme need equal attention. Quality universal education should be child-centred and inclusive of all seeking education. Factors determinant to quality should be treated as parts of one body with which absence of one part cripples the function of the other. The factors include supporting inputs, enabling environment, school culture and teaching and learning process. Prevalence of these factors shall be used to measure possibilities of quality education in the universal education programme.

2.3 Universal education

The policy of universal primary education is a creation of United Nations (UN) to facilitate access to learning by all school age children; 5-11 year old (Dembele

and Lefoka, 2007; Gene, 2001**).**The idea was further popularized by its inclusion in the United Nations Millennium Development Goals (MDGs). Expectations are that by the turn of 2015 all nations would have achieved universal quality education. Given that in 2008, still 73 million children were still out of school, it is hard to contemplate achieving the goal now in a matter of four years when no new robust measures have been put in place nationally or internationally to deal with the financial obstacle to which the WB made an unfulfilled promise.

The need for education by the majority, and the UN mandatory over Universal education made implementation widely accepted in Zimbabwe in the 1980s (Chiwaro and Manzini, 1995). It is argued that by 1986 children attending school had gone up by over 300%. But the percentage input did not go up proportionally by the same rate, culminating in decline of quality owing to paucity of resources.

In the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) regional conferences of the 1960s, Universal Primary education was defined as to mean making all children have the opportunity to be in primary school. But Webster argued on the implication of the definition. It was unfeasible due to financial constraints, health problems and starvation and the failure of intended compulsory policy on attendance in most of the third world countries as their governments tended to be cutting public education funding (Webster 2000).Human rights advocates for the right to education campaigned for universal education without focusing on the need for universal effort from the global world in the provision of the necessities for quality universal education.

Therefore, universal primary education was from its initial stage good but not easy to implement and in its practice expansion progress was remarkably notable while

the decline of quality was on the other side intensifying due to depletion of resources that made it even difficult to enforce standard teaching pedagogy. In view of the loopholes in the Universal education, the decline of education quality in rural schools and even in other places is associated to the implementation of universal primary education spreading to secondary schools inheriting students from the primary schools whose skills are undeveloped or underdeveloped.

The problems of universal primary education have origins in the colonial education system which created the gap that third world countries are trying to close through massification of education (Nhundu, 1992). Not only colonial subject is worth the blame, the economic focus of the human capital theory which raised the concern for educational reforms have played a role in creating disparities in the provision of education. The purpose of education focused attention of teaching and learning on production of learners enough to be taken into industries while the majority were screened out through measures designed to create bottle necks for learners discontinue studies and join employment as assistant labourers (Vengesayi, 1995).

Provision education, for a number of decades was dual; not only in white and black people's terms but in socio-economic divide also. This dated back to the industrial era where in England education reforms divided people on the basis of the education they valued. Some preferred traditional education that was conservative to traditional values as opposed to the second group of technical education interested in improvement of work skills and the last group preferred mass education (Gewirtz, 2000). For colonised countries, Zimbabwe included, modern education was basically in two categories; education for elites and that for the masses meant to provide basic minimum skills for work (Lockheed, et al 1991). The former was the colonial

government's responsibility while the latter was the missionaries' obligation to give literacy enough for one to read the bible (Chiwaro and Manzini, 1995). The scenario limited the colonised people of Zimbabwe particularly rural people in accessing education.

In the post-independence era universal education policy was adopted to redress the colonial legacy (Theophellus, et al, 2005). However, today as pointed earlier on the dualism is multi-faceted and based not only on racism but also on socio-economic classes. Universal primary education was adopted worldwide but with varying outcomes in each country on the basis of political will, economic status and social values attached to it.

In the case of Zimbabwe Universal Education Programme made a significant success noted by increased enrolments and access to learning for majority of the school-age children (Dorsey, 1989). But opportunity cost of quality education over the quantitative education defied repression when decline of the cognitive attainment and dropout rates became dominant in many schools especially in rural (Todaro, 1989). Depletion of resources and the romantically reformed education content raised questions on the potential of the knowledge societies in breeding up worthwhile products in terms of learners with developed capabilities to benefit individuals and the society at large. Therefore to some extent universal primary education remained one side of the pre-independence elitist education; of more value and less value for the elites and for the masses respectively.

It is undisputable that education unlocks ability of people to solve problems facing them, their families and communities (Hanushek, 1987; Todaro, 1989; Lockheed,

1991). In another view Tikly (2010) agrees with Sen (1999) that quality education fosters key capabilities individuals and societies have reason to value. Implicitly, quality education empowers individuals to pursue preferred development opportunities. Further argument posits that investment in children's learning is the most important contribution a nation can make to a better future. Lockheed (1991) argues primary education is foundation for further learning and plays an essential role in social and economic development. It equips children with elementary skills necessary for employment, participation in public debates for social policies, health practices and other livelihoods (Hanushek, 1987). Therefore decline of quality education cause concern to all people although they may have different conceptions due to illusion of the term quality.

Many of the less developed countries (LDCs) made remarkable progress in the first two decades after independence but then fell back following failure to sustain the attempted free education and the structural adjustment programmes in the 1980s (Dorsey,1989). Many countries were forced to cut public expenditure on social sectors (including education) as part of the conditionalities in programmes imposed by the World Bank (WB) and the International Monetary Fund (IMF) (Hanushek, 2002). The contrary is UK and US increased their capital expenditure for education from 3.5 to 5% in the 1970s.

The economic reforms of WB and IMF in particular affected Zimbabwe in the implementation of the policy of universal education. The introduction of economic structural adjustment programme in 1990 in Zimbabwe led to adaption of trade liberalisation and free market policies. These impacted education quality in two ways, they made the state to cut its expenditure on social services including

education and secondly they caused closure of small industries which were outpaced in market competition resulting in retrenchment and unemployment thereby creating incapacities on payment of school fees (Zimbabwe national education report 1996).Implicitly parents and schools could not sustain educational demand and consequently, quality of education declined as standards could no longer be met.

Culture, family and parental decisions based on opportunity cost of sending a child to school affect universal quality education. It is argued that cultural issues in communities and at school impact on quality of education. Some communities do not value sending the girl child to school; some do not see the essence of supplying supplementary learning materials to their children for use in their homework. These cultural tendencies affect attrition and in turn the quality of education. Parental decision on the education of children is more influential on the learning of children more than any other stakeholder's. If attending school cause costs to their field work they may decide against releasing children for school. This has been found to be one of the sources of absenteeism and dropout that is detrimental to quality of education (Loxely, 1987: 62).

Literacy has impact on economic growth. The issue is that most activities in the modern world rely on communication such as written instructions of the e-mail nature. Illiteracy stands to be an obstacle to participation by those with it. Some researchers argue that despite access to schools, some pupils and students leave schools without having acquired minimum reading and numeracy skills (Sifuna, 2007; Michaleowa, 2001). This is related to the decline of quality of education whose programmes fail to equip learners adequately.

Educational services in most countries are provided by the state or are partly offered by the state in the case of government aided schools (community schools controlled by local authorities). Even the private schools have some connection with the state involvement (Development of Education national report of Zimbabwe, 1996). This has two implications; the state is obliged to play the role of monitoring and aiding in the provision of social services and the other implication is that the state is enabled to enforce the national curriculum that is designed to impart the culture of that nation.

On the other hand it is emblematic of the state's lack of commitment to the right of children to quality education. More affected are the children of the poor mostly in rural schools. This indicates sidestepping with the purpose of universal education consequently discrimination to both access and quality of education by the children of the poor. Low quality education infringes on individual's right to development in two ways. Firstly, low quality education is not good investments in human capital perspective and for that reason both societal and individual benefits are not possible to attain from unsuccessful investment in education. Secondly, in education as a human right view, low quality education discriminates one against others with better education and subsequently the empowerment to autonomy for the poorly educated is compromised. Participation in social, political and economic issues is made inequitable hence the right to development for the poorly educated is mitigated. The foregoing section has raised important points to note in pondering for both quality and universal education.

The above views on the transition of education from discriminatory dual education system common in Third World countries during the colonial era and the inclusive

mass education in the post independence period explains the dilemma faced on whether to pursue mass education at the expense of quality or resort to quality education as defined by the human capital and put majority of the people back into deprivation of access to education. The following section examines prospects of having both quality and universal education.

2.4 Can education be both quality and universal?

In general the term quality has various meanings that include excellence, distinctiveness, value, fitness for use, conformance to specifications or requirements and meeting or exceeding customers' expectations (Adams, 1993; Cheng and Tam 1997; Harvey and Green, 1993). Therefore, specific definition is subjective to specific areas and set goals. The differences and similarities come in national, local governments, political and institutional priorities and goals of their education. Yet the concerns of the human capital and human rights theories remain stronghold of educational goals in either developed or developing country due to the global bond and inclusivity. Implicitly, quality should suit both global and national frame work. This section does not concentrate on defining quality but on the challenges and prospects of having universality and quality in education.

Schools have tried models of quality improvement derived from national and international levels but these have not yet produced the anticipated quality universal education. The popular ones are (1) the Global Monitoring Research (GMR-2005) whose report was on: teacher supply and quality, finance, learning time, learning environment, school resources and learning outcome. (2) UNICEF model: home back ground, Learning environment, content, process and outcomes. The problem

with these global measurements is conflating quality with outcomes for international tests applied to learners in different environments, social backgrounds and cultural contexts. If quality of universal education continues to be measured as such, realising a working quality model turns to be difficulty.

According to Gewirtz quality of an education system is portrayed in the curriculum and the pedagogies. Narrow traditional focus for quality valued outcomes and the instrumental methods to realise market oriented quality that is determined by stakeholders with interests in productive skilled labour rather than developing individual potentialities. Measures for quality need to assess contribution of education system to the development of pupils' sense of identity, creative and critical thinking, appreciation of different beliefs, cultures, equal opportunities, just society and respect for the environment in which the learners live (Gewirtz, 2000: 364).

The two models (the Global Monitoring Research (GMR-2005) and UNICEF model: home back ground, Learning environment, content, process and outcomes) missed important issues about the quality as pointed out above by Gewirtz (2000:364). They both do not consider the cultural context of the learners and the school which determine favorability of the learning conditions. Culture is viewed as total spiritual and material asset of a group or society created out of human conscious or subconscious human actions (Westhuizen, 2004:619). In other words, culture is a building block of social capital that binds the community together for a common goal. Further assessment can conclude that disregarding culture is eminent to rejection of any intervention or change by the respective society.

Implicitly the society unites to protect its spiritual and material possession, sometimes rejecting what it needs to avoid sacrificing their culture. Innovation poised to succeed should start with appreciation of the existing recognised possession. Therefore culture has to be considered in strategies proposed to improve quality in order to solicit societal acceptance and support. The fact that culture is dynamic is appreciated but the argument is measuring quality could not total disregard the prevailing conditions in the individual societies and their schools. This entails that the teaching content or curriculum needs to have some components biased to rural societies and their desired developmental skills.

There is also an oversight of the significant role of the teacher in the above models. It is not only the supply of quality teachers that matters but the working conditions of that teacher to perform to its best. As argued by Hoy and Miskel (1995: 176) that individual drives need to be maintained by the surrounding environment. The idea thereof is that a quality teacher might be having the potentialities to do well but does not have the external support in terms of adequate basic human needs to keep the teacher working. Therefore while considering how to improve other factors of quality the working conditions of the teacher need improvement too. Lastly the role of the community in the supply of supporting inputs has not been considered in the models above yet it contributes to the maintenance of the teacher's behavior towards working.

Another controversial debate on quality of education is centred on fairness and unfairness in the opportunities and access to education including participation by the marginalized country folks. They are the concerns of equity in distribution of

educational services which call for supplementary or amendment of policies where inequity exists (Adams, 1993: 5).It has been noted that UN donors agency do not meet their obligations fully. For instance in 2007 poor countries received US$4.1 billion out of the required sum of US$11 billion (Steer and Wathne 2009).Therefore parental communities should brace up to meet their children's education costs.

On the same note the ideas of quality and equity seem to conflict in provision of resources. Equity in resource distribution continues to widen the gap between the haves and the have-nots. Judging quality in the performance of people with different resources tends to be unfair. Implicitly policy consideration to cater for the disadvantaged groups is necessary if quality is to be universal.

The ideal idea is to give schools in different societies what they do not have while it is that which they struggle to get for their success in their endeavours. This point raises another controversy on donations. Some donations in schools, the likes of books are deemed "get ride for space creation" in the well to do libraries when they restock their libraries. The books are outdated or irrelevant to the curriculum thereby worsening the chances of quality education for the poor rural schools. Therefore in attempts to reduce the rift of quality between rural schools and other schools should focus at providing the necessary conditions fully rather than in parts which do not work in the absence of the missing conditions.

In this study quality will be measured in terms of the prevalence of the factors that determine effective teaching and learning. These are enabling conditions consisting of (1) supporting inputs from the community, parents and education system,(2) school climate and (3) school culture motivated by the teachers, pupils and the community, (4) the teaching and learning process as portrayed by the curriculum,

pedagogy, teachers time on task and assessment of pupils work and (5) the student outcomes comprising of academic achievement, social skills, and participation in the school society as demonstrated by the figure 1.0 below. Ensuring prevalence of these factors increases the prospects of universal quality education.

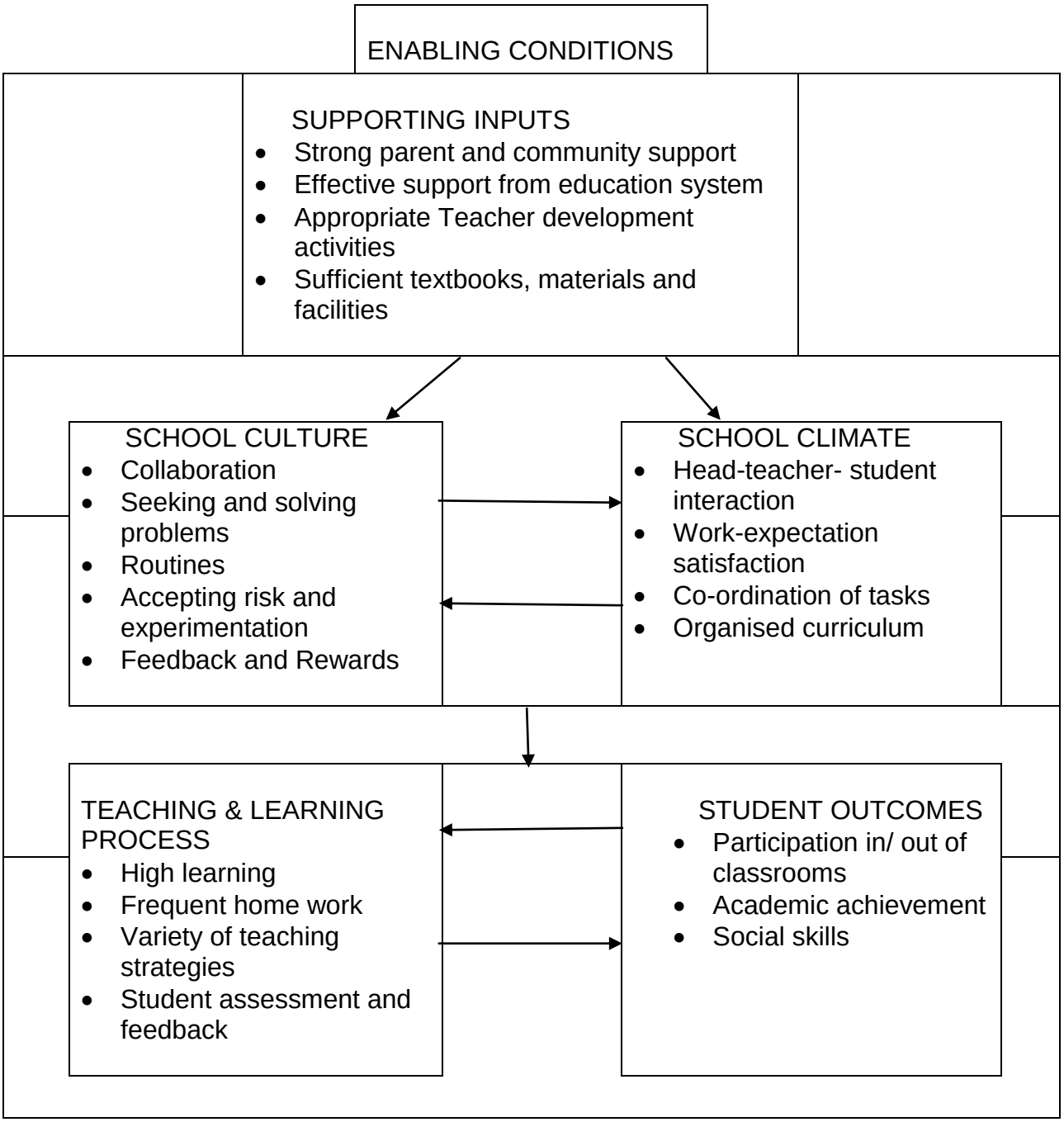
So quality relies on a number of factors that are going to be discussed in the next section. The factors work together to lead to quality. Treating separately makes the process of teaching and learning incomplete culminating in difficulties to achieve quality.

2.5 Factors that determine quality learning and teaching

Supporting inputs are crucial determinants in the process of teaching and learning and arguably quality work is a result of the system that produces it. In concurrency Tao et al (2010:3) affirm that quality of education cannot exceed the quality of the teacher and his work. The assertion does not mean to over emphasise the need for competent teachers, all the factors are significant in the process of quality search. Courtiney (2008:548) suggests that establishing quality learning and teaching is made simpler by focusing on supporting inputs, processes, outputs and outcomes.

Therefore, the availability of adequate quality resources alone yields no quality teaching and learning. Quality outcome is a result of a combination of inputs and processes. Availability of supporting inputs hinges on the relationship between the school and the stake holders who include the school parental community and the education system. The factors are to be treated as parts of an organic body which work together. Figure1.0 shows the factors that determine quality.

Figure 1.0: Quality determinant factors



(Source: Courtney, 2008; William, 2001)

The teaching and learning society has to be characterised by conditions permissible to quality outcomes of the education process. Several researchers have found that enabling conditions of the learning societies facilitate effective teaching and learning that results in quality education (Williams 2001:88; Courtney 2007). In this study the enabling conditions is comprised of the supporting inputs, school culture and the school climate.

Culture and climate have more differences than similarities. They are similar in that people in the school create them consciously or subconsciously. A major difference is that climate is made up of individual's perception of the experiences in the work while culture is made up of assumption of what works and does not work in the school (Coleman and Early, 2005: 30; Westhuizen, 2004:619). More about these environments will be discussed below.

Supporting inputs

In the education system various supporting inputs for the teaching and learning process are essential for quality outcome. They include children, teachers, teaching and learning materials, infrastructure and equipment (Sifuna, 2007). According to Courtney (2007) and Williams (2001) support comes from the school community/parents and the education system. The community is expected to support schools by providing children, teaching and learning facilities and sufficient text books.

The education system also has to play the complementary role of availing learning materials but these are compromised for expansion in the universal education. Human capital theory movers sidelined this obstacle by giving education to few privileged people. The solution is an oversight of its principle for UPE.

Its inevitable role lies in the formulation of educational policies and curricular that is suitable to the society. The other supporting obligation from the educational system is the imperative role to institute staff development programs. These can be initiated at varying levels. School based staff development workshops help staff members to in-service each other. Cluster, district and national programs for staff development all are essential for improving the teaching and learning and subsequently the quality of education but all these are not easy to implement where resource are scarce.

However, school resources are sometimes made inadequate and overstretched by embracing other social chores that belong to other disciplines because education institutes feel guilty to say no to such obligations. Murgatroyed (1992:177) posits that schools are becoming unfocused in their delivery of service. They are overburdened to give solutions to all society social needs like developing skills, knowledge, competences, combating social problems like diseases.

The problem with these obligations is that same resource is expected to spread to other unforeseen emerging occasions at the planning stage. For instance, time of the school day does not expand, once lessons are missed, a concept is missed. So schools should stick to their core business to avoid loss of time which compromises quality work.

Notwithstanding this, it is argued that schools serve a variety of interests, if they would perform a simple monastic role, it is inconceivable that they would receive the attention they are having (Woodhall, 1987). The assertion implies that if resource is sufficient it is justified for schools to do some social activities in their communities. (Sifuna, 1991) posits that learning process looks at what happens in the classroom and the school as a whole. The quality of physical resources**,** teachers, their

attitudes towards work and governance in the school, all impress upon the educational outcomes.

In another dimension, quality is compromised by dropouts and repeaters who waste given inputs. The former refers to pupils who fail to complete a learning cycle which in many countries primary schools have duration of 7 years (Zengeya, 2007). Loxely (1987:63) posits that leaving school before the final year of the programme is a wastage of resources. The learner will not be conferred with any qualification for the programme abandoned. The rating for quality supposed to be done at the end of the final year becomes void. The latter are pupils who in a given year remain in the same grade or standard. These cause worse wastage in light of increasing educational costs and also in terms of reducing that grade's new enrolment capacity (Hanushek, 1997; Loxely, 1987:63).

The view of wastage does not consider the benefits accruing to individual repeaters and to dropouts before the departure from school of which benefits such as literacy, numeracy and life skills (health knowledge) remain essential to the individual. However despite these other obstacles to quality issues, management of quality in schools needs not to be over emphasised, it is a necessity.

It has been observed that quality is prone to fall in poor countries more than it is in richer countries due to lack of materials and other facilities. Heyneman and Loxely contend that pupils of low income countries attain less education compared to that of their counterparts in high income countries after spending the same period in the school (Heyneman and Loxely, 1983:2).

Implicitly spending more time in school without the adequate resources does not yield better results or improve the quality of education. This is a common

phenomenon among poor communities like rural areas, children stay in school for both morning and afternoon sessions (about 8 hours) but their pass rates are usually lower than that of the urban pupils who spent only one session in the school. This is further predicated by the quotation that says “...the lower the income of the country, the weaker the influence of pupils' social status on achievement” (Heyneman and loxely, 1997: 2).

School culture

According to Coleman and Early (2005:220) culture of an organization refer to norms of that organization. The norms are comprised of behaviours, beliefs and values existing in the organization. But Hoy and Miskel (1987:426) posit that School culture is comprised of assumptions, values and norms. In general they agree there are norms values and beliefs in a culture of each organisation.

Organisations range from International, regional, national to institutional ones like a school (Coleman and Early, 2005). The focus here is on schools as organisations with norms that influence teaching and learning. The fact that school culture building blocks are behaviours, beliefs and values is an indication, school cultures differ in accordance with the people and the location of the school. Coleman and Early argue that producing positive school culture through shared vision and orderly routines contributes to improvement of quality education.

The set of norms is infinite but few to be discussed here can be generalised to different schools with positive effect toward quality teaching and learning. They include collaboration, problem seeking and solving, acceptance of risk and experimentation and feedback for learning.

Collaboration is a norm that puts people together for the achievement of common goals. It maintains shared orientation of what is done in the institution. However collaboration works where people are agreeing, which is both good and bad, it is good when what people agree on is for the benefit of the school but when people agree to disagree with change for the betterment of the school, it becomes bad. To put it simply positive collaboration removes Individualism and negative competition among teachers and pupils to promote school goals. Negative competition compromises standards by focusing on end results only.

Doing experiments happens in a condition where risks are accepted to a certain degree. Restrictions to routines are not favourable to creativity. Therefore Teachers need to allow pupils to test their creativity within risk monitored areas. So is the same with the head and the teacher, too much control limits the teacher in taking pupils through potential development by limiting them to obvious activities. Dunham and Son'ony (2008: 410) opine that in Zimbabwe parents and students in rural schools have a culture of respecting their teachers and conversely teachers are empowered to believe in their ability to positively affect pupils' learning. The belief is rooted in the lecture method in which the teachers appear to be the source of information, a situation vitalised by the shortage of reading materials.

Seeking and solving problems takes place in conditions where there are open relationships. Openness encourages the participants to take responsibilities such as investigating pupils' problems in their learning and suggest solutions to the head of the school or people responsible for the welfare of those children. Open conditions

encourage participants to study what is there and seek to improve on it. Therefore such norms of allowing seeking and solving of problems are conducive to innovation.

Feedback is essential in an organisation like a school (Coleman and Early, 2005:221). Pupils as part of the school organisation do a variety of activities in presents or absence of their teachers. But important is reporting the outcome of whatever they do. This leads to grooming of citizen of good accountability. This applies to teachers, they are accountable to the head of the school and they must give feedbacks on their work's successes and failures. Teachers to some extend are accountable to their pupils when it comes to reports about children's work, they should give feedback to pupils so that pupils know what is right and wrong in performed tasks.

Staff development programmes as feedback from workshop attendees is another vital component of creating enabling conditions for quality improvement in schools. Teachers and their leaders share ideas related to their work and knowledge enrichment. Hence Coleman and Early (2005: 142) contend that developing staff skills at the school site is part a process of creating effective schools that subsequently produce quality work.

School Climate

It is argued that students come into the school with high expectations about their learning; the same applies to the teachers as they receive new students. They have expectations that are eventually confirmed true or false in the process of teaching and learning. The expectations are pivotal in the creation of positive attitude imperative for amicable relationship between the teacher and the pupils boiling down to the establishment of school climate (Coleman and Earl 2005: 142). Therefore the

schools have to strive to create high expectation in both pupils and the teachers. Courtney (2007) and Williams (2001) define school climate as the characteristics of a school that makes it different from other schools or institutions.

Quality schools are capable of instilling a warm climate for the learners, teachers, and the school leaders. Halpin and Crofit 1963, (cited in Vengesayi, 1995:118) contend that school climate is a blend of the interactions between the principal leadership and the teachers. In support of the idea Courtney (2007) adds students to the blend. A developed climate of a school tends to define its culture.

The Internal interactions are subject to building up one of the five climates which are open climate where the head is energetic, works together with the staff and community to achieve agreed school goals (Hoy and Miskel 1987: 227). They all identify with their school (Vengesayi, 1995:121). In such a school work is effectively done and the outcome of the learning and teaching has all opportunities to be quality. Autonomous climate is characterized by little supervision; the leader is concerned with defining goals to be achieved which in many cases are rarely accomplished due to individual independence to determine what is worthwhile and intent to satisfy high morale among the staff members.

In some cases leaders create a climate that kills autonomy and morale by adopting controlled climate. There is no flexibility and things have to be done according to prescriptions (Vengesayi, 1995:121).To some extent work is likely to be perfectly done as it is performed according to standing regulations. However the fact that rules are just general guidelines which in some environments are not applicable without alterations, teachers are hindered from improvising or innovating necessary for

facilitating teaching and learning. As a result controlled climate stands to be unfavourable for quality teaching and learning.

Some schools are characterised with familiar climates that sacrifices accomplishment of work for high sociability. The environment is one in which the school is disengaged with work but intimate with personal lives (Madzivire et al: 121). This kind of climate is tantamount to producing poor quality of teaching and learning since there is lack of concern for the goals of the school. The situation is eminent to revolt by the school community whose interest for the success of their children is threatened by the school's priority for its social endeavors. Furthermore their investment in education is also made vulnerable as unsuccessful learners have low probability of benefiting from the investment in education (Schultz, 1997).

Paternal climate is identified by contradictions between the school head and the teachers' foci (Vegesayi, 1995:122). There is individualism; teachers compete and do not get along well, the head is busy with work for which success is at its minimum due to too much emphasis on productivity that teachers do not willingly accept.

The other school climate is the closed one. Vengesayi et al (1995:122) warn that in a closed climate neither teaching and learning nor satisfaction is prevalent. In such a school there is no warm relationship between the staff and the head of the school who is perceived as overloading staff with paperwork by insistence on records of work. In one research, respondents (teachers) pointed out that they mark registers present for all pupils to please the authorities when in actual fact absentees would be many. Hence, fast rules on paper work are not contributory to quality outcomes in the teaching and learning process.

Climate in the teaching and learning is an indispensable determinant consideration for quality outcomes. In support of the notion Sergiovanni and Starratt (1970:70) opine that supervisors will not do well in their leadership without a sufficient supportive climate (cited in Vengesayi 1995:123). Therefore schools need climate that meets expectations of the leaders, teachers, learners and the community. Efforts from all stakeholders should focus at creating positive teaching and learning attitude, order and discipline among teachers and the students/pupils. Courtney (2008) posits that giving rewards for outstanding performance boosts the morale of the performers and subsequently creates warm climate in the school.

Teaching and learning process

Process is an internal activity, it includes the way, procedures, strategies and planning for application or mixing of the resources availed for the learning activities and how the teacher is motivated to do the actual teaching. The interaction of the inputs; the teacher, pupils, and the materials during the process stage has implication on the student outcomes. In more specific terms correct use of teaching and learning resources like, text books and equipment, full use of teaching and learning time and teaching methods determine the output of a learning programme (Sifuna, 2007:690; Adams, 1993). In expansion teaching methods are very influential on motivating children's participation in learning and even in improving attendance as well as individual potentialities more so with participatory methods and not lecture ones where pupils are dormant during lessons.

Quality education in schools has been strongly associated with effective teaching and learning process. This is dependent on high learning , frequent home work given to pupils by the dedicated teachers, use of a variety of teaching strategies and student assessment to identify areas of progress and areas that need further attention (Williams, 2001: Courtney, 2007). In view of these observations teaching and learning process tends to be one of the key factors in determining achievement of quality education in the sense that it looks at what happens in the actual exercise of teaching and learning and it is dependent on the teacher's attitude and aptitude.

Some arguments hold that despite provision of good learning conditions, and other facilities without consideration of motivating the teacher in charge of the actual classroom performance, may not yield positive results. The teacher is made capable and effective by possessing the necessary skills and knowledge for the task of his responsibility and also receiving basic needs and satisfactory remuneration for his effort at work. The teacher needs to be motivated as epitomized by Maslow's hierarch of needs ranging from physical to social ones. Frequent homework which gives pupils more time for individual exercise, development of personal responsibility also depends on the teacher's attitude toward administering the work.

None the less teaching strategies make significant count for learners to understand what they learn. Since the pedagogy determines the depth and breadth of the pupils' learning effect, teachers who articulate it have to be skilled adequately to serve the schools well (Courtney, 2007; Williams, 2001). The success of schools hinges on removing capability deprivation that is widening people's choices and extending people's right to education (Rahim, 2011). This argument is based on the fact that knowledge societies besides serving production, investment and consumption

functions they should serve the development of individual human potentialities through diversified learning approaches facilitated by the modern technologies. Schools are not feasible without education system that caters for the needs of diversity and innovation because the aim is to allow every child to grow to his/her potential. On the same not Nassbaum emphasised that schools must produce citizens who have Socratic capacity to reason their beliefs and to unmask prejudice so as to secure justice (Nassbaum, 1997). The assertion emphasises the importance role of the teaching process in developing citizens that are competent in their knowledge of civic freedom a tool for human development.

In another perspective, it is argued that, teachers who assess students' work and give them feedback regularly facilitate effective learning in pupils (William, 2001). Hence pupils' work tends to be of good quality. In a nutshell teaching and learning process which is based on the teacher's aptitude and attitude is central to the issue of quality teaching and learning outcome.

The connectivity between education, human potential and human development suggests education is far much more than socialisation and not time bound activity. It stretches beyond classroom and initial training (Rahim, 2006). The assertion explains the essence of establishing learning societies that provide education to improve learners, skills and this is possible with motivated teachers who are prepared to spend their time for individual pupils' learning needs. For instance a case study carried out by Mckenzie indicates that pupils do well by pedagogies based on child-centred approaches (Mckenzie, 2003).

However, Courtney (2007) advances that If process is considered a major determinant of quality learning and teaching and measured by the outcomes, there is

the risk of limiting individual learning towards those areas that are testable at the end of the learning programme. This does not suggest doing away with assessment of progress but brings in an area that needs attention in dealing with the process for improvement of quality.

Current debates on improvement of education are based on application of electronic learning. This entails using the internet to access information. Using the internet is advantageous on accessibility of education compared to using text books. In that respect Rahim and Lelliot et al argue that Information, communication and technology, specifically the electronic learning facilities enhances increased access to education. Indeed it is child-centred as individuals learn from radios or computers at their own time subjects of their choice (Rahim, 2011; Lelliot et al, 2000).

The assertion raises views to give priority to improvement of technological facilities in schools to enable achievement of educational goals as chartered at both local and international level. But priority should be given to rural electrification because the proposed technologies do not function effectively where there is no electricity.

Learning is defined as a process by which knowledge or skill has been achieved through reading, listening, observation and practicing. It is a social behaviour unique with human beings (Rahim, 2011; Akinpelu, 1995). To encourage leaning and teaching with regard to this view the inputs, the climate and the process have to be permissive to pupils learning. Pupils need to have autonomy to exercise their learning abilities with assistance from their teachers who should be approachable to give guidance to all learners. Guidance in learning is essential for learning is not random; it is controlled by the agreed goals expressed in mission statements at national, regional, district and school levels.

The importance of the interaction between the school, the society and the learners in transmission of valued skills and knowledge is stressed in the argument raised by Rahim and William that culture and schooling have a relationship. The curriculum is designed to advance cultural, political, social and economic values and norms of the citizens. Conversely schools are obliged by the curriculum to make emphasis and omissions in the provision of the education (Rahim, 2011; William, 1980). This is evidenced by the selective choice of topics from various text books by the teachers.

The issue is that teachers are the people who interpret the curricular for pupils; they need to know the culture they are perpetuating in that particular area where their school exists. On the same note responsible authority has to ensure that they are taking care of the welfare of those teachers in order for them to do their work effectively.

Student outcomes

Schools that are effective have been noted of having high participation of pupils in the school matters. Indications are that they have high attendance rates, high promotion rates, a case of low repeaters and drop outs and high transition rates where most pupils of each cohort proceed to the next higher level. According to Williams (2001) and Adams (1997) this situation culminates in quality education as an outcome of the teaching and learning practice.

Contrary to the notion, Dugan and Hernon argue that students out comes only indicate school achievement and not what the pupils have learnt that they did not know before (Dugan and Hernon, 2002: 377). They suggest that Student learning outcomes ideally measure attributes and abilities. Therefore quality education that is this study concerns is the one measured by its impact to individuals cognitively and

affectively. However an institution is just symbolic and all it does depends on how much the pupils have learnt. In that view both student out comes and student learning out comes serve the same function to reveal student attributes and abilities as developed by the learning and teaching process .

Academic achievement in pupils that attend school on regular basis is high. It has been noted that such schools produce learners whose numeracy, literacy and potentials in valued skills like problem solving are highly recommendable (Craig, 1995 cited in Williams, 2001, 99). Although Courtney discusses cognitive and social skills achievements as one concept the problem arises on the time their assessment is applicable. Cognitive achievements as measured by test scores are short term focused and contrary to measurements of social and economic outcomes which are detectable well after school.

The definition of quality assurance entails ensuring that there are mechanisms, procedures and processes to realise anticipated or desired quality. In other words it refers to activities that bring quality products (Maree and Fraiser, 2008:288). Measuring outcomes is an approach of monitoring to check progress against specification which leads to quality and effective decision making over achievement of the same.

Quality control is defined as procedures for ensuring that performances confirm to specifications. It involves examining products or outcomes to test their conformation to pre-set standards. In education it entails examining pupil's mastered skills through tests (Cheng and Tam, 1987). This entails quality control. However quality control in industrial products cannot be synonymous with quality control in learning outcomes. Of course academic attainment can be rejected or unacknowledged due to low

standards but acquired skills will remain that individual's benefit whereas rejected industrial products are disposed. Above all approach to teaching and learning is different from working with lifeless inputs.

Another weakness of quality control as a measure for enforcing quality is that it only rests upon the evaluators mostly education inspectors. It excludes other important sections in the whole system whilst the inspectors just enforce the rule but do not implement it as done by the teachers. Determining weaknesses at the end culminates in wastage. So quality control is only useful when it works together with other models like quality assurance.

Conclusion

Universal education was, and is still a worldwide project which began in the 1940s. The central idea, as conceived by the developed countries, was to make education an investment for human capital development that would have both private and societal benefits. To that note education was declared a human right. In the process, intentionally or maybe unintentionally most colonies were subjected to under subsidised education which subsequently tended to be of less quality compared to the government funded education for the children of the colonial elites. The education was not just poor but also inaccessible to the majority of the people in the nations of Latin America, Asia and the Sub Saharan Africa.

The inaccessibility of education to majority of the Third World countries made universal education a nonentity during the colonial period hence most Third World countries embarked on education expansion under the project of education for all to redress the colonial discrimination on educational provision. In the case of Zimbabwe education expansion programme achieved 90, 7% literacy rate but this was soon

faced with the decline of quality as was the case in the colonial era where quality education was just for a minority in elite schools. Now to improve the education quality, Courtiney (2007), William (2001) and Mckenze (2003) suggest applying the model of school effectiveness which advocates for community/parental supporting inputs, creating enabling environments through good leadership, good school climate, favourable teaching and learning process and evaluating student outcomes for improvement. Chapter 3 in the next section delves on the research methodological issues. The chapter will discuss the research design, sampling procedures, data collection and analysis strategies.

CHAPTER 3

Outline of the Research Methodology

3.0 Introduction

The focal issue in this chapter is to unfold and examine data collection aspects for this study on challenges and prospects of quality universal education in Kadoma District rural primary schools. The preceding chapter has looked at some literature on debates about quality education. Theories of education as human capital, education as a human right, and the suggested enabling conditions for quality universal education were discussed. This chapter appraised concepts that included the research design, the target population, data collection methods or techniques, sampling, units of analysis and data analysis, validity and reliability of the measuring instruments. Challenges encountered during data collection and adopted solutions are also discussed in this chapter.

The concepts of verifiability and generalization of findings from a case study are often debatable. The paucity of sample in a case study poses doubts on how much representative it is for the outcome to be applied to a larger population (Babbie, 2008; Gray, 2009 and Shepard, 2002). Such arguments have been a challenge in this study but confidence with the validity applicability of the findings to other rural schools still prevail on the basis that most rural schools have similar sources of resources and therefore similar challenges that require similar solutions to improve quality.

Furthermore, conscious documentation of procedures and construction of instruments (questionnaires, interview and observation guides used in this research ensured the verifiability of the study. Gray (2004:138) explained that despite the smallness of a case study, it remains verifiable if the research lays out an overview of how the task would be performed and drawing up guides to the work and to the final report. This entails conscious planning or designing the case study which the researcher did with extensive assistance from supervisor. The other importance of the study is that it would save as part of forerunner study for more to be carried out with larger samples which could not be done herein due to financial and time constraints associated with students.

Shepard (2002:38) raises a number of quantitative and qualitative methods that can be used in social researches and from the gamut this study employs a combination of qualitative and quantitative methods. Integrating two or more methods is defined as triangulation. This was a technique drawn from the world of surveying where measurement is taken from three or more different points in order to identify a particular area with accuracy. Both quantitative and qualitative methods can be combined to form a coherent picture (Gray, 2004:257).

In this view the use of 5 study sites was made to derive a common trend about the rural schools' challenges to quality education. In concurrency to the notion of triangulation, Flick (2006: 24; 33; 37) attests that triangulation means combining several methods and also combining quantitative and qualitative methods.

In this study, quantitative techniques were used to collect data from teachers and heads of schools through the questionnaires while the pre-collected data technique was applied by the researcher to gather literature informing this study. From the

qualitative methods, interviews guides were employed to gather data from pupils and parents. An observation guide was used by the research to note down important elements about the study during the visits to places of data collection.

There were pros and cons in using the triangulation approach. The advantages were the complementary of the methods in data collection, the production of a more general picture owing to mitigation of subjectivity and the analysis feasible in that numerical data were analysed quantitatively while qualitative data was analysed descriptively. However the challenges lay in collecting data from several points in order to have accuracy and a more general view about quality in the study sites. Some views were too far apart to be amalgamated. But the researcher had to apply the concept of missing data that is to focus on that individual's general tendency of responses in order to generalize on the views (Babbie, 2008:151). In cases where the outliers were not threatening validity, the responses were left out. Discussion of the methods in detail follows below.

Survey research method is often used in carrying out such researches as census or opinion polls. Main features and strength of survey research lies in use of questionnaires and individuals as units of analysis; the individuals are accorded freedom to respond to questionnaires alone without influence from the researcher as they are usually self-administered (Babbie, 2008: 242). Gains from use of the method in this study were that the questionnaires used for data collection were cheaper and less complicated in distribution compared to other ways of data collection like participatory observation. Challenges in participatory observation are on disguising oneself to avoid alerting the targets. Failure may result in collecting

data from manipulated scenes or endangering one's safety, hence this study avoided the method.

This research like other social researches dealt with human beings and issues affecting them and in this case the decline of quality education in rural schools. Due to their mobility and interactions experimental research method does not apply easily to studies about people. Experimental research method is suitable to laboratory investigations. Therefore this study could not employ the method against the discussed factors. Never the less experimental methods are very much applicable in pure science. Their use usually gives results that are verifiable.

Quantitative research methods are characterized by collection of numerical data. These include the quantitative research survey which works almost in the same manner with the qualitative survey research but only differ in the emphasis on numerical collections and presentation (Babbie 2008; Flick, 2006; Gray, 2004, Shepard, 2002). In this study quantitative method was applied on collection of statistical data about school enrolments, staff compliments and pass rates. Since this study was more interested in views about challenges and prospects of quality it used qualitative method to collect data from the people affected by the decline of quality education (pupils and parents).

Another of the quantitative methods is the secondary analysis research. The method depends on pre-collected data; that is data collected earlier on for other purposes. This method is favourable for less costs compared to other methods like field research which might need more resources like transport and time just to mention a few. Notwithstanding these strengths, in this research it was not totally suitable as the research targeted at challenges of quality universal primary education as

experienced currently. But never the less the method was useful in the review of related literature which informs the study on the theories guiding this study.

This research employed a case study anchored on qualitative and quantitative methodologies. Self-administered questionnaires, observation guides and semi structured interviews were used as data collection instruments. Questionnaires were distributed to teachers and heads of schools, observation guides were used by the researcher to note observations during visits to research sites and the interview guides were used to solicit information from pupils and SDC members. This approach is recommended by Shava (2002) who contends that children and less literate respondents may not do well with self administered questionnaire. In respect of the view the researcher conducted an interview with pupils and the SDC members at each case site. The methodology was preferred for its strength in giving detailed explanations of a phenomenon (Babbie, 2008) and in this case explanation of challenges to improving declining quality of education.

The adoption of questionnaires and interviews techniques were meant to have these methods augmenting each other in soliciting data from different units of analysis. A combination of two or more methods such as surveys and interview is called methodological triangulation (Gray, 2009; Babbie, 2008; Flick, 2006). This is advantageous in overcoming weakness of one method over the other. Combining the methods also facilitate verification of data.

In this case study both qualitative and quantitative techniques were therefore used to present and analyse data on challenges of rural schools to achieve quality universal education. The rationale is that research studies usually comprise of a number of research questions which cannot be addressed by one type of questions. Using two

or more methods provide possibilities of significant address to the research questions (Babbie, 2008; Flick, 2006; Gray, 2004). In this study some questions needed numerical responses on pass rates, structural records, and qualitative responses on some quality indicators. Therefore using the two methods became inevitable and ideal.

3.1 Units of Analysis

The object of observation is referred to as the unit of analysis. This can be a government policy or an individual, organization or a process from which data is generated and analysed (Gray, 2009; Babbie, 2008). In this study the units of analysis were pupils, teachers, SDC and heads of schools who either directly or indirectly are involved in educational issues; quality of education as determined by enabling conditions of inputs, school culture, school climate, the teaching and learning process, student outcomes and attendance up to completion of the primary course. The respondents were selected using stratified random sampling while the study site was purposively selected.

The researcher interviewed 25 pupils and the 10 SDC members on the issues about the decline of quality in teaching and learning. Teachers and heads of five schools were given self-administered questionnaires about the same problem of educational quality decline to answer giving their views about the possible causes and solutions and prospects or opportunities to overcome the obstacles.

3.2 The Research Design

A plan for collecting, measuring and analysing data is a research design (Gray, 2009; Shepard, 2002). As such in this study the researcher employed a plan to use a

case study to assess challenges of attaining quality education in Kadoma rural schools. Case study focuses attention on one or a few instances of some social phenomenon, such as village, family or individuals (Babbie, 2008:301). In this study focus was on one cluster of 5 schools out of 8 clusters its performance in the process of teaching and learning of pupils.

A case study approach used to be misconstrued by researchers as lacking rigor owing to the paucity of the number of cases but of late it has been found to be very powerful in exploring situations where there is ambiguity (Gray, 2004:9). In some known researches on quality, the common institutions are secondary and tertiary education. Generalisation of findings from higher levels of education has ambiguities about the primary school quality debates. This study was looking at the case of rural primary schools and directly dealt with ambiguities in the case of UPE and quality challenges.

In the case study both quantitative and qualitative approaches were applied using questionnaires, pre-collected data analysis, observation and interview guides to gather data. Self-administered questionnaires were distributed by the researcher to each of the schools. Teachers and heads of schools responded to questionnaires while pupils and SDC members responded to interview guides administered by the researcher. Completed questionnaires were collected by the researcher from the respondents after five days which allowed the respondents to respond at convenient time. Pre-collected data were consulted by the researcher for insights in concepts and empirical incidents informing this study.

Although Survey research is usually used in quantitative methodology, it was herein applied in qualitative methodological orientation for its strength in wide coverage at

minimum costs. Questionnaires were used to collect data from respondents with cognisance that the data would be easy to convert into figures for comparative analysis (Gray, 2009; Shepard, 2002). Both closed and open ended- questions were used for respondents to express themselves where necessary.

Although questionnaires are less expensive in data collection as well as more efficient in terms of larger coverage at lower costs some respondents gave inconsistent responses that could result in false impression to the research question. Gathering information from 10 respondents from each centre reduced the effects of inconsistence and the use of interviews on pupils and the SDC was designed to deal with those inconsistencies. Pilot survey was also made to identify areas of such problems for possible solutions to both questionnaire disillusionment and distribution which helped to reduce the margin of error from data collection instruments.

3.3 Sampling of respondents

This study used purposive sampling to select one cluster of schools from rural primary schools of Kadoma District in Zimbabwe on the basis that the problem under investigation is prevalent in the chosen site of study. Fink (1995) cited by Gray (2009) posits that a good sample is a miniature of the population, just like it but it is only smaller. The same view was held by Shepard (2002:45) who opines that if a sample is not representative of the population from which it is drawn, the study findings cannot be used to make generalizations about the entire population.

The sample of one cluster used here was small but consciously and purposively selected to be representative of the rural schools of Kadoma. This was strengthened by the random stratified sampling of the 50 respondents from the cluster. However the results from this study could be treated with leeway for difference in case the

sample was larger than the one used. It is therefore encouraged that other researches be carried out in the same field with larger samples and more resources.

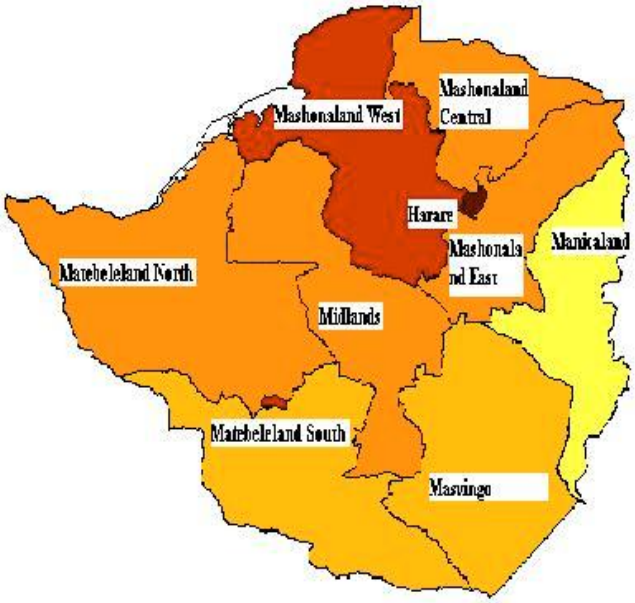
Time constraints limited the study to a sample of one cluster whose characteristics were believed to be the same with those of the population (heads of schools, pupils/students, SDC and teachers in rural schools) under study in the rural schools. For each of the five schools the respondents were 1 head of the school, 2 SDC members, 2 teachers, and 5 pupils. The total sample was composed of fifty respondents.

The heads and teachers would give information more on performance while the SDC and pupils respond on availability of materials. This sample involves people concerned with the decline of quality and in view of the human rights theory these are the people to participate in defining what constitutes quality education according to their expectations and needs.

3.4 Collection of data

The study was conducted in Ngezi rural areas of Kadoma District in Mashonaland West Province**.** Zimbabwe has ten education administrative provinces that report to the national administration head office in the capital city of Harare. The structure begins with schools reporting to District education administration which in turn accounts to the provisional education director. The ten provincial administration territories were outlined by UNESCO (2001) as shown by figure 1 below. Each Province is further divided into districts which are controlled by the District Education Officers (D.E O). For instance the Province of Mashonaland West has 6 districts which are: Kadoma, Chegutu, Zvimba, Chinhoyi, Karoi and Kariba.

Figure 1.1 Education Provincial boundaries in Zimbabwe



(Source: UNESCO report, 2001)

Choice of the district was based on the existence of the problems under study and the feasibility of the study to the researcher as a student with minimum resources. It is about 100 kilometres east of Kadoma Urban and 150 kilometres west of Harare the capital city of Zimbabwe. The Ngezi rural areas are mainly occupied by subsistence farmers whose financial sources are dependent on occasions of good harvests to have extra crops for sale.

A few parents are employed by Zimbabwe Platinum Mines situated in the midst of the Ngezi communal areas. Pupils from such families are privileged to be able to fund their schooling from reliable sources of income**.** However the researcher noted that one school in the vicinity of the Ngezi Platinum is overpopulated compared to other schools in the same cluster. For that problem the school is using double sessions to manage accommodating pupils.

Schools in the Ngezi rural area add up to 65 and five of these were involved in this inquiry. The five schools bore a number of similarities with the other rural schools in the same district. Therefore results of this study may not portray the national picture of declining quality of education in rural schools but fairly does so for the Ngezi rural schools of Kadoma.

Questionnaires were self-administered to heads of schools, teachers, and interviews were administered to SDC and pupils. These are either directly or indirectly involved in the implementation of universal education programme. 50 respondents were involved in this study. Gender was considered for the case of pupils and teachers and SDC through stratified random selection of participants. But heads of schools were automatically involved without regard of gender as their posts need no substitution due to their crucial role in school information and operation.

3.5 The procedure of Data Analysis

Collected data was presented and analysed using the statistical package for social scientists (SPSS). The instrument is used in social science researches to analyse data. This would produce description of the findings in numerical value that would be used to explain the results or findings of this study. Data from open ended questions in both interviews and questionnaires would be thematised (grouped on similarities) and analysed to deduce generalizations about the responses and their correlation to the research variables.

3.6 Validity and Reliability in findings and measurements

Data collected about the challenges facing rural schools in attempts to achieve quality education from the case study has to be representative of what the study

purpose or intent. Sapsford (2002) posits that validity is the extent to which the sample gives an accurate representation of the population which it is supposed to represent. In this case the chosen cluster of five schools bears the image of the other rural schools in the district in terms of location, and sources of funds and therefore could produce valid data with reliance on the reliability of the data collection instruments. The following looks at reliability and validity of the instruments used in this inquiry**.**

Precision and accuracy are of paramount importance in a research. Precision refers to the necessary briefness and adequacy of the information or data while accuracy here means the exactness of the collected data. These are technically considered by paying attention to reliability and validity of the instruments designed to gather data (Babbie, 2008:129; Sherpad, 2002: 58). In particular reliability is portrayed when the gathered data can be repeatedly obtained from the same sample and this has been ensured by pilot testing the questionnaires and interview guides used in this research.

The reviews of the instruments by the supervisor and peers was also hoped to have helped to improve the reliability of the instruments. However perfection in verbal responses cannot be repeated word for word. Further militating issue to possibility of getting the same responses could be on recording and translating Shona responses into English as was the case with some pupils who declined to respond in English.

In measurements of findings, not only reliability matters, validity is equally essential. Validity of the findings is indispensably linked to the objective set for the measurements. Therefore the instruments measure up to validity when they measure what was planned to be measured (Babbie, 2008; Sherpad,2002;58) In this

study testing the instruments with respondents in the same population from which a sample was derived facilitated improvement of the validity of the instruments.

3.7 Conclusion

In so far, the preceding section has discussed the methods used to collect data for this study. The naturalism or positivist paradigm of a case study was used to investigate Causes and possible solutions to the challenges facing rural schools in trying to improve the declining quality of education. Kadoma rural schools of Ngezi were studied with inquiry directed to units of analysis comprised of teachers, heads of schools, senior pupils and the SDC members representing parents. Data wre collected using questionnaires, observation guides and interview guides which instruments were pre-tested for reliability and validity of the collected data. The following section will present the data collected using the instruments of questionnaires, interviews and observation guides and then carries out analysis of the findings.

CHAPTER 4

Data Presentation, Analysis and Discussion

4.0 Introduction

The focus of this chapter is to present and analyise the data collected from five study sites of Kadoma rural schools. Collected data were on challenges and prospects of quality education in rural schools. Chapter three focused on the methodological issues. It discussed the research design, data collection techniques and instruments, the target population and the sampling strategy.

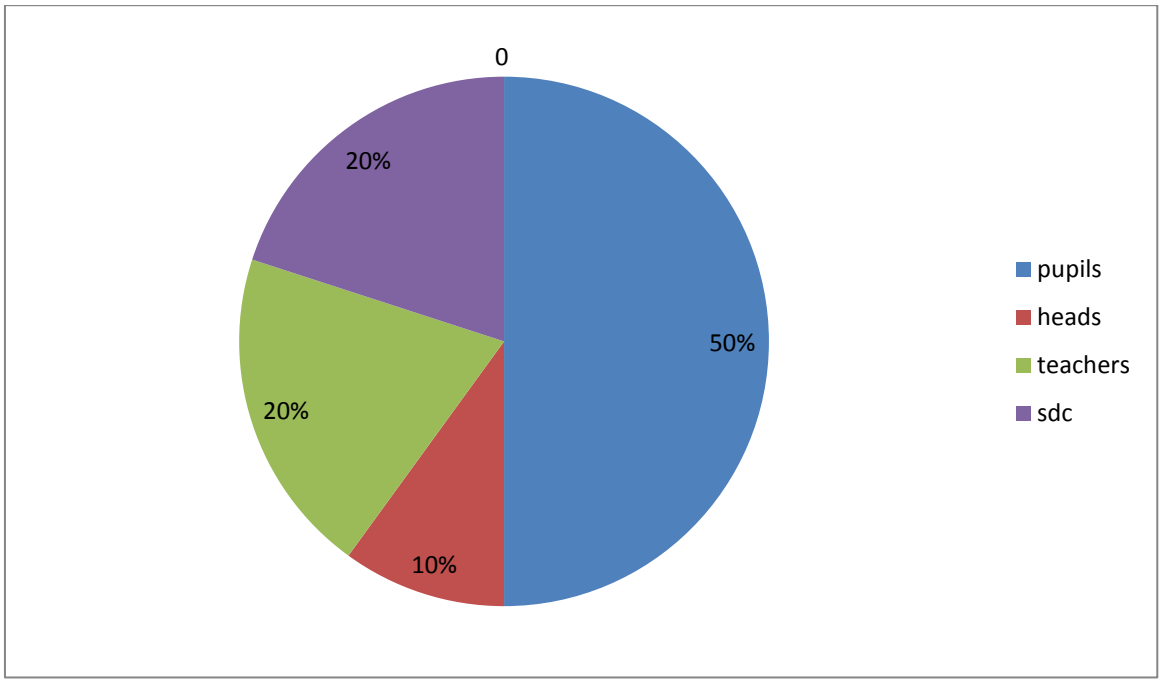
The data were to satisfy the requirements of the objectives of this study which were: (1) to evaluate the provision of supporting inputs for quality outcomes, (2) to establish how the prevalent school culture and climate relate to quality outcomes and (3) to assess the application of child centered teaching pedagogies favourable to quality education in relation to development of individual potentialities. The presentation begins with respondents' details as they relate to the problem of quality decline after which supporting inputs are discussed. The school culture and climate are assessed and lastly the teaching pedagogies and student outcomes are also discussed.

Five schools were visited and the data were collected from respondents through interviews, observation guide and questionnaires. Heads of schools and the senior teachers responded to self administered questionnaires while the SDC and pupils were interviewed by the researcher. SDC and pupils were interviewed on assumption that some of them would not respond to self administered questionnaires

well and that the researcher required collecting qualitative data from the people (pupils and SDC for parents) mostly affected by the decline of quality.

The schools from which data were acquired were coded as A, B, C, D and E following the order of the visits from day one. Coding was spurred by the idea of maintaining the anonymity of the respondents. The practice of keeping privacy of respondents is a research ethical component vital for the protection of participants as researchers' informants. For this study ten respondents were targeted at each school. Of the ten respondents one was the head of the school or deputy head of the school, two senior teachers, two SDC members representing parents and five senior pupils that is the grade seven or six pupils believed to be more familiar with the operations at their schools than other lower grades' pupils. Below is the diagrammatical representation of the respondents.

Figure 1.2 Total Respondents



.

The figure 1.0 is a pie-chart showing the sample of the study drawn from the target population of school parents, rural primary teachers, rural primary heads of schools, and grade 7 pupils. There were 5 (10%) heads of schools representing head teachers, 10 (20%) school development committee members representing parents, 10 (20%) teachers from the category of teachers and 25 (50%) pupils. The sample selection took 1 head, 2 teachers, 2 SDC members and 5 pupils from each school. The number of pupils was made bigger than the other groups because their questions were fewer compared to those of the other groups. Furthermore the idea was necessary for consistency checking since pupils were not used to interviews. All respondents were successfully reached because selection of respondents was open to any member of the population found present at time of visit. The table below represents the number of the respondents by their categories.

Table 1.0: Distribution of respondents by sex

Sex	Heads	Teachers	Pupils	SDC	Totals
Male	5	6	11	7	29
Female	0	4	14	3	21
Totals	5	10	25	10	50

Table, 1.0 indicates that these rural schools were dominated by males. The reasons for this tendency do not suggest that there are few female teachers in schools but that female heads do not want to be deployed in schools that are infested with

hardships and that there are few female leaders in rural schools. The pattern appears again in SDC members; out of the 10 members interviewed only 3 ladies were given the core post as a treasurers and secretaries hence they were found among those invited for the interviews.

Table 1.1: Distribution by age:

AGE	A	B	C	D	E
Below 20 years	5	5	5	5	5
20-29	0	0	1	0	0
30-39	0	1	1	0	0
40-49	2	1	0	3	3
50-59	3	3	3	2	3
Total Respondents	10	10	10	10	10

The age group of respondents below the age of 20 is totally comprised of pupils from grade seven classes. It is salient to focus on the ages from 20 to 59 which consist of teachers in the school as the discussion here is about work. Observation from this table shows that two age groups are dominant. Teachers aged 40 to 49 and 50 to 59 are more than those below those age ranges. Implication is that rural schools are shunned by young teachers who are still energetic to work hard. Given this scenario, one can conclude that poor performance in rural schools is contributed by the quality of staff they have. In agreement with the notion, Tao et al, (2010: 3) argued that the quality of an education system reflects on the quality of its teachers and their work. Since most of the teachers at the visited schools were qualified, the low quality of learning in the cluster is attributed to inadequate supporting inputs, unfavourable culture of the school and climate and the teaching process rather than to the teacher's qualification.

Table 1.2 Employment status of respondents (Status of each is marked x)

EMPLOYMENT STATUS	SCHOOLS				
	A	**B**	**C**	**D**	**E**
Substantive head	x				x
Substantive deputy head					
Acting head		x	x	x	
Acting deputy head					
Senior teacher	xx	xx	X	xx	xx

Some schools are characterized by low profile staffing. School A and school B indicate that they have both highly qualified and experienced leadership. This observation leads to such a conclusion that better performance as emblem of quality is derived from quality resources including human and material ones. It is supported by the definition of quality as given by Cheng and Tam (1987) that quality is distinctiveness. It is only achieved by discrimination and selectivity in recruitment of the learners and the staff members. From the researcher's observation of pupils' responses from schools B. C and D, the argument was that their schools were good and could be better if they were electrified as A and E. This brings the notion that the more experienced and qualified that better opportunities to development of the schools (Tao et al, 2010).

Table1.3: Heads' highest qualifications

	SCHOOLS				
QUALIFICATIONS	A	B	C	D	E
Certificate/Diploma		x		x	
Bachelor of education degree	x				x
Master of education degree					
Others			x		

Qualification of teachers is one of the crucial inputs in the education system. It is enhanced by the degree of emphasis for training and allocation of resources by the government of the day for each country. In Zimbabwe education system training of teachers is offered by the government institutions. Therefore staffing of schools is expected to be based on required trained personnel. Untrained teachers are recruited to relieve teachers on vacation, maternal leave, sick leave or manpower development leave for studies. Further education is viewed by many studies as having the effect of increasing individual's earnings by 10 to 20% for each additional year of schooling (Sperling, 2001). Therefore teachers advance their education for personal consequently societal benefits.

Pass rates for 2010 affirmed that higher qualifications of teachers have benefits to the society. The schools led by degreed heads got better pass rates in comparison with the other schools under the leadership of most unqualified teachers who do not even have substantive posts. Substantive appointments are made to individual teachers by the government officials upon assessment of one's qualifications based on experience in service and highest professional qualifications. In this case the tendency is shown by Table 1.3.

Table 1.4 Leader's qualifications and pupils pass rates.

Head's qualification	School	2010 Grade7 Pass Rate
BED	A	44%
B.TEC	C	30%
BED	E	20%
Diploma in ED.	B	10%
Diploma in ED.	D	5%

(Source: Collected data, 2010; questionnaire item 55)

The revelation of Table 1.3 needs not to over emphasise on the vitality of highly qualified leadership alone. Quality in schools depends on interdependence of factors within the system. The several studies opine that tutoring and parental communication as well as material support leads to quality rather than emphasis on materials only (Tao et al, 2010; Sifuna, 2007; Gewirtz, 2000).

4.1 Enabling conditions

The argument that quality in schools hinges on several factors is considered herein that the factors are the conditions that enable manifestation of quality. Supporting inputs from school parents, the school community, donors and the education system all accounts for the learning outcomes. The school community and the school society itself destine the school to cultural characteristics that are capable of influencing performance of the pupils. School climate, the teaching and learning process and students outcome are other conditions determinant to quality education. These are the concerns of this section beginning with staff complement as supporting inputs.

Table 1.5: Cluster Staff details for 2011 by sex

SCHOOL	Trained Teachers		Untrained Teachers		Sub-totals		Grant total
	M	F	M	F	M	F	
A	9	24	1	3	10	27	37
B	6	3			6	3	9
C	3	5			3	5	8
D	6	2			6	2	8
E	9	4			9	4	13
Totals	33	38	1	3	33	38	75

The teachers and children in the school are crucial supporting inputs of a school. Regarding teachers as inputs sounds like a misrepresentation of facts. They are inputs in the sense that without either of the two there is no schooling business. As was noted earlier on their quality determines the possible outcome of the teaching and learning process. Children as inputs will be discussed further in the section about enrolments and pass rates. Meanwhile, focus is on findings about the staff.

It is worthwhile to note that the picture portrayed by the structure of school leadership on female teachers did not apply to assistant teachers. All the five heads of schools (100%) were males and from ten (10) SDC members only 30% was females while 70% were males. But in table1.4 female teachers were 57% while males were 43% from a total number of 100% teachers. This difference does not deviate from the initial observation that female teachers were not many in schools with difficult conditions, rather it affirms the conclusion.

School A which had 73% female teachers against 27% male teachers had electricity, running water and better transport; which were recent developments of a Zimbabwe Platinum mines (Zimplats) located near the school a decade ago. This was reported by the chairperson of the SDC of school A during the interview by the researcher. The observation thereof was that even in other schools with more female teachers but without electricity, the women were commuters from that mine settlement.

The problem with this inequitable distribution of teachers on the basis of gender affects the quality of education. It causes an unfair distribution of skills and potentials which further on affect development of a variety of potentialities among the pupils. On the other hand it plays down the effects of gender equity in access to school because schools without the female teachers lack motivation to the girl child in those

communities. Therefore teachers as inputs have to be provided with conditions that are good enough to attract and keep the staff in the station. Head of School B was quoted as suggesting that his challenges to quality were high staff turnover on the reasons of unfavourable environments. Rural people's investment in their children only brings back private benefits and societal ones go to societies that have attractive conditions where they go to work and sometimes never return to their home places.

The argument already put forward is that human capital theory holds that education is an investment that gives both social and private benefits. Critics to the movement points out lack of material support to enhance the investment through quality teaching and learning. Furthermore, the quality measure of the human capital movement is viewed as not promoting education to all as envisaged in the 1948 declaration of education for all. Restriction into good schools through high fees is the measure for quality in the sense that the well-resourced few people get into those schools (Sifuna, 2007).

Public schools with a few resources are accessed with too many pupils. The rural schools are in this group of public schools that are not well resourced. Respondents in this study cited the problem of having too many pupils in their classes with inadequate classrooms as causal to ineffective teaching and learning in the provision of universal education which culminated in low quality of education.

Heads of schools indicated in their responses that they had unbearable classroom shortage. Four of the head teachers (80%) indicated in their responses to question 18 that their classrooms were inadequate. Head of school (A) said that classrooms were very inadequate compared to the number of teachers (37) and classrooms

observed by the researcher were 15 for the enrolment of 1227 pupils, the school is supposed to have 30 classrooms with class size of 40 pupils.

In concurrency with their headmasters teachers of the schools with shortages in classrooms stated that they employed hot sitting, a double session programme; one group of classes comes in the first (morning) session while the second group comes in the second lap of the day. Only 20% of heads of schools showed that school C had enough classrooms. The table 1.6 below shows the shortage alluded to.

Table 1.6 Classrooms' record

		Record of classrooms		
School	Enrolment	Classes	Classrooms	Shortage
A	1 225	37	15	15
B	343	9	7	2
C	303	8	8	nil
D	301	8	6	2
E	504	13	7	6

Source: Heads' responses to questionnaire items; 18, 21 and 22

The scenario above provides a two folds problem. Addressing the problem of classrooms by having hot sitting creates another problem of shortening time in school for pupils. In a research carried out by Michaelowa (2001) developing countries spend more time in school compared to their counterparts in developed countries .Contrary the pupils in third world countries learn less due to shortage of resources. If this observation was true of the situation in developing countries what then happens when the pupils cut short the learning time due hot sitting. Implicitly the learning content, individualised teaching and learning as well as practical or

experimental work that need more time are eminent to suspension. Teachers are forced by the situation to do lectures or “drill and kill” (Gewirtz, 2002). The drill and kill method of teaching subjects pupils to memorising without developing pupils critical thinking hence the quality of education as well as the individual’s potentialities are killed in the drills.

Extracurricular activities and text books were other inputs that were reported to be scarce in rural schools. A pupil in school E alleged that she disliked her school for not offering sporting activities that she used to do in her previous urban school. Teachers argued that they do not offer other extracurricular apart from the traditional games that include soccer, netball, music and traditional dance. Activities not available in rural schools were tennis, hockey, basketball, chess, rugby and aquatic activities like swimming, to mention a few. Reasons given for not having these activities were lack of facilities and skills from the teacher themselves. Non existence of these activities is a problem to the development of individual potentialities. Because not all pupils would have abilities in those offered.

All school heads in response to questionnaire item 19 on text book availability, alleged that they had just received from UNICEF a donation of both text books and exercise books at the beginning of April in 2011. Earlier on all the schools’ pupil to text book ratio was 1 to more than 3 in English, Shona, Environmental science and social studies. In other subjects only teacher’s copies were available. This tendency was not only peculiar to these schools; Sifuna attests that Tanzania and Kenya experienced the problem of resource depletion in the provision of universal education. Text book to pupil ratio declined from 1 to 1, to 1 to 3 and the quality of education declined (Sifuna 2007: 697). Therefore quality of universal education in

these rural schools could not evade decline in the prevalence of the shortage of books and other factors under discussion.

Zimbabwe's ideology of socialism spurred the pursuit of strategies favourable to the provision of equal access to social services with the major being education and health sectors. But economic difficulties due to natural disasters and decline of productive sectors led to change of ideology and adoption of the economic structural adjustment programme (ESAP) in 1990. This economic reform was informed by Liberal economic policies of World Bank (WB) and International Monetary Fund (IMF). The policies conditioned the government to reduce subsidies to the social services and the consequence was reintroduction of school fees (UNESCO, 2001).

Heads of schools and SDC alleged that the demand for fees in schools tarnish their relationship with those parents who fail to pay in time. Besides, payment delays witnessed by the schools were cited by 12(48%) pupils and teachers as disruptive and causal to inadequacies, dropouts and absenteeism in their schools and subsequently low quality of education. The negative effect of fees was also noted in Kenya that paying fees in poor rural districts tended to prevent children from attending schools (Sifuna, 2007: 690). Therefore lack of fees affects quality in two ways. If funding is not provided for enough resources by the government, quality declines and when learners dropout or are absent from school for failing to pay the levies quality also falls. This explains the scenario in the five rural schools where the government contributes inadequate resources while parents pay in trickles small levies as shown by table 1.7

Table1.7: Distribution of levies in schools

SCHOOLS	TERMLY AMOUNT IN US$ PERPUPIL
A	$17.
B	$10.
C	$12.
D	$6
E	$10

Re-introduction of fees and levies in schools in the 1990s could be a challenge to parents but it was a possible solution to enable children's access to education in the era of suspension of free primary education policy. Therefore in this case, parents' financial contribution determines the standard of materials to the disposal of their schools. School D which collects $6.00 cannot afford the same inputs with school A, all things being equal. The consequence affects learners and the teachers in the course of the teaching and learning process.

Supporting inputs have been indicated to be one of the vital aspects for the improvement and maintenance of quality in education. However the challenge lies in who is responsible for the provision of the same. As a matter of fact the government is responsible for the provision of social services. But economic development policies require government to limit expenditure by reducing social service subsidies. Suggested solution is to have strong communities that depend on shared values and

duties of citizenship including the obligation to bring children as competent responsible citizens and to support teachers employed by the state (Gewirtz, 2000).

This study has established that the community in question does the support of schools but in varying degrees of effectiveness and therefore the universal quality education becomes difficulty to attain. In Kenya and Tanzania the economic policies of shifting costs to the beneficiaries or sharing the costs with the beneficiaries did not improve the quality of universal education. The same was found to be happening in the schools studied here.

In communities with high gross domestic production (GDP) parents are capable of providing resources to their children at school and at home. Children of the poor among the rich also benefit (Gewirtz, 2000).

School A whose enrolment was then composed of pupils from the rural villages and more pupils from the recent mine settlement was a testimony that people of better economic status tend to have better educational provision for their children. School A got the best overall pass rate in the cluster of 44% despite that the percentage mark was below the average of 50%.

Sharing recurrent educational expenditure between the government and the community is easier than it is in poor communities if at all it is possible. Provision of supporting inputs is influenced or influenced by the culture of the school and its community. The next discussion looks at how much influence cultural issues affected quality education the schools involved in this study.

Cultural issues

The schools have a culture of establishing school development committees (SDC) that represent their school community. Parents pay fees for their pupils termly at nominal levels as determined by the parents in their general meetings. In addition they contribute infrastructure materials like bricks. However not all parents are committed to these cultural traits. For instance 100% of the heads of schools, SDCs and teachers alleged that the payment of levies is always delayed. They accuse the delay and low payments for failure to meet school targets. 20% of the pupils argued that absenteeism in their classes is partly caused by non-payment of levies which results in pupils being sent away for money.

SDC serving as treasurer in school D (Table 1.7) advised that the amount paid ($6.00) at her school is too little although parents still failed to pay in time. The small amount hinders efforts to address the shortage of classrooms at the school and this is further worsened by part payments since it echoed parents delay sending in the levies.

Since schools depend on parents for monetary and material resources, paucity of the charges become detrimental to those schools' progress due to inadequacy of funds for the purchase of resources. School D bears witness to the argument by the lowness of its pass rates ranging from 5% to 32% between 2006 and 2010 inclusively. Table 1.8 indicates Grade 7 pass rates of the five schools for the past five years (2006 to 2010) on which the trend of school D is shown.

Table 1.8: Schools' pass rates by years

SCHOOLS	PERIOD IN YEARS				
	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010
A	25%	25%	58%	28%	44%
B	47%	38%	32%	3%	10%
C	60%	53%	20%	40%	30%
D	5%	10%	20%	32%	14%
E	80%	59%	53%	18%	20%

It is worth noting that school B was bearing the same pattern of pass rate fall. The head of the school allegedly attributed staff turnover to the steep slope decline. The argument was that teachers who join his school would be in transit. The reason was that the school community did not have a culture of improving its infrastructure and support for the teacher. Therefore lack of motivation for the teacher in that school drives the teachers away. Hersberg's two factor theory of motivation describes lack of external and /or material incentives as deprivation of maintenance factors that keep one at a particular station even if not motivated to work (Owens, 1981:120).

Herzberg cited by Owens (1981:120) argues that giving teachers satisfactory salaries, resources for work, adequate basic needs such as water and accommodation are maintenance factors necessary to keep the teachers in stations and are also conditions for motivation to take place. They reduce dissatisfaction and create opportunities for the motivational factors which include achievement, recognition and professional growth. Therefore to promote achievement of quality, teachers need adequate personal and work resources before considering them to be

motivated to work effectively. In addition, school relationships and interactions which setup the school culture and climate are pre-requisites for motivating the teachers to strive for quality production.

The implicit of the debate is that parents and the school community as a whole should adopt a culture of taking responsibility over their schools and the education of their children. The parents and community stake holders Parents and teachers need to develop and maintain a culture of collaboration to facilitate the teaching and learning. There is a general suggestion that strong communities depend on shared values and recognition of the rights and duties of citizenship particularly in rearing children in such a manner to make them competent citizens through supporting their learning and the teachers employed by the state (Scott, 2010; Sifuna, 2007; Sperling, 2001; Gewirtz, 2000). This study deduced that regardless having structures with parental involvement through the SDC most of the schools visited lack parents' commitment portrayed by the alleged delayed payments of levies, proposal of small amounts for the levies and lack of cooperation on agreed meeting outcomes.

It is argued that students come into the school with high expectations about their learning; the same applies to the teachers as they receive new students. They have expectations that are eventually confirmed true or false in the process of teaching and learning. The expectations are pivotal in the creation of positive attitude imperative for amicable relationship between the teacher and the pupils boiling down to the establishment of school climate (Coleman and Earl 2005, 142). The assertion entails that climate is built on expectations and experiences. It depends on one's judgment based on personal perception. Therefore, if learning and teaching

conditions in a school do not make one to feel comfortable the climate is unfavourable and detrimental to quality teaching and learning

In this study 80% of the schools indicated that there was open climate in the schools since interactions between the structures in the schools were comfortable to work with each other. Few pupils 8% indicated that in one school their teachers were concerned with a clique of fast learners. This means that those few pupils found closed climate prevailing between them and their teachers. Their learning was bound to be crippled by fear from the unfriendliness they experienced in the school. Such a tendency was allegedly attributed to reasons for absenteeism and declined student participation; consequently no learning for those discriminated against.

One school was accused of having closed climate for parents and teachers. This was the observation of the SDC. The members of school D were quoted as saying the heads of schools were not transparent to their teachers and school parents thereof causing poor relations. The cited characteristic designates the participants into aloofness and collaboration gets foiled. Lack of open climate hinders collaboration and individual autonomy for creativity. Therefore poor performance could be attributed to closed climate which stifle motivation for work and learning as evidenced by school D. Poor relations in the school affect the teaching and learning process too. The next section discusses teaching and learning effect on quality outcomes

4.3 Teaching and learning process

Teaching and learning process concerns activities that take place in and out of the classroom. This is a factor that brings all the other factors into spot light. It exposes the strengths and weakness in the institution and even the education system. That is

institutional and education policies feature to promote or demote the teaching and learning goals. As indicated in the previous sections, learning is defined as process by which knowledge or skill has been achieved through reading, listening, speaking, observation and practicing. It is a social behaviour unique with human beings (Rahim 2011; Akinpelu 1995).To encourage learning and teaching with regard to this view the inputs, the culture, climate and the process have to be permissive to pupils learning. Learning as an intellectual activity is elusive to determine the degree at which it is acquired. Therefore individuals' participation in and out of the classroom and achievement at cognitive tests are indicative of one's learned experiences.

Participation is a two-fold concept. Firstly, it is worth noting that increased participation in the classroom yields increased grasp of the learning experiences. Secondly, learner's participation out of the classroom in social activities is a pro-responsiveness of the learner to the learning and teaching process. It is argued that the participation has both private and societal benefits. The former leads to the enhancement of the later. It is dependent on teaching methods, supporting inputs, culture in the school (includes the reading culture, culture of good discipline, culture of well organised curriculum) and school climate.

Findings from the schools visited showed two traits. All pupils (100%) who were interviewed described the way their teachers deliver lessons in a fashionable way that the researcher interpreted as lecture, question and answer methods. The second pattern was that teachers and their heads of schools indicated what they know as effective methods of teaching and not what they practise every day in their classrooms. This conclusion was reached following what pupils had said contradicting the indications of teachers for using all methods variably; secondly

there were no practical subjects' sites in the schools. Teachers in school E pointed out that they were not teaching practical subjects. However the study could not reject teachers' indications for all other methods. They could be applying the other teaching methods but point is the alleged methods were not common hence pupils could not confirm them.

The concern for methods was based on the philosophy that child centred methods enhance individual participation and subsequently different potentialities are developed. Teachers' responses revealed that field trips and problem solving or analysis were not often used.

4.4 Student outcomes

Measuring student outcomes is not an end in itself but means to an end. That means the identified nature of outcomes charts the prospects of quality assurance; the way, processes and resources needed for quality outcomes. This process is followed by quality control in which the students are examined and their results or outcomes are judged according to a set criterion (Maree and Fraiser, 2008:288). Student outcomes have been explained earlier on that in this study refer to student achievement during the learning time and not the long term economic and social achievement. Areas of assessment of quality vary; those considered for this discussion are participation, academic skills and social skills. Outcomes are assessed for evaluation to establish the quality of education learners receive and for screening the bad from the good; the analogy is winnowing to remove grain from chaff.

In this study participation of pupils was evaluated by assessing the pedagogical issues and the provision of extracurricular activities in the schools studied. The

pedagogies which are the methods that schools use determine the extent of children's involvement in learning. This study found that most common pedagogies in schools were those that involve more of talking and listening than other skills such as manipulation. The table1.9 below shows the frequencies of teachers and heads of schools' indication of common methods in their schools.

Table 1.9 Common teaching and learning methods. (Total respondents 15)

Teaching and learning methods	Frequency of respondents	Percentage
Lecture	6	40%
Question and Answer	13	87%
Group discussion	13	86%
Discovery /research method	7	46%
Analysis/Problem solving	6	40%
Experimental method	5	33%
others	2	13%

Question and answer where the teacher asks questions while pupils give responses (Bamberger, 2000; Babbie, 2008) and group discussions are activities designed by the teacher for pupils to do in pairs or groups of more than three pupils. These methods had the highest percentage popularity of 87% and 86% respectively. Contrary to their fame these methods do less in enhancing individual development of potentialities. They encourage competition which often benefits the fast learners as they are quicker to seize every opportunity for participation. None the less the methods are teacher-centred as the nature of the activities keeps the teacher in the centre as a main participant instead of facilitating.

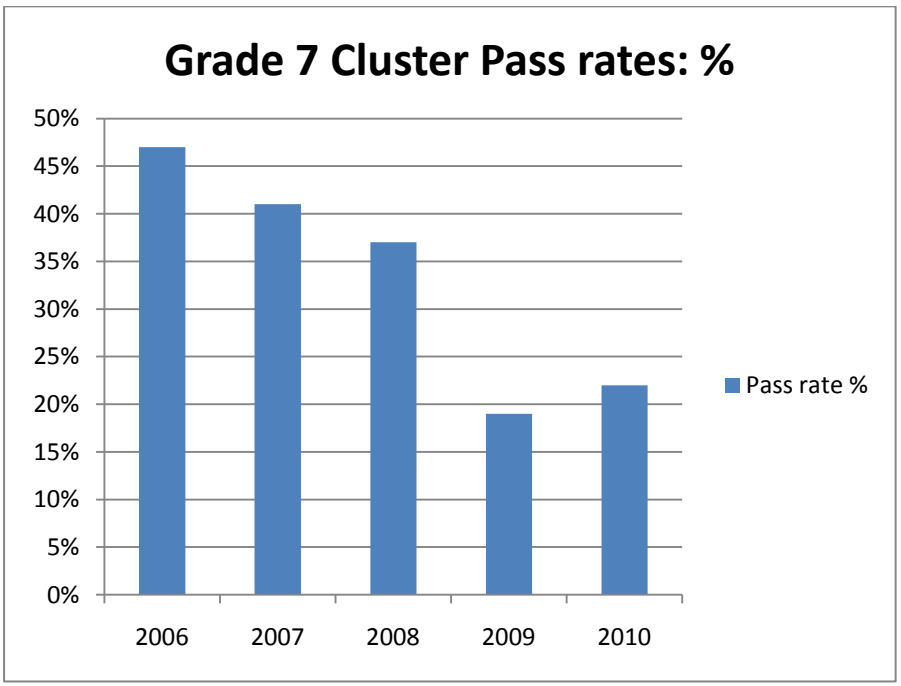
Notwithstanding the weaknesses, group discussions allow pupils opportunity to share ideas. Discussion between or among people of the same level motivates increased participation. Question and answer is also quick to identify pupils with difficulties as they fail to respond. However, applying the methods in the schools studied would not be effective due to their large classes which range from 33 to more than 44 pupils per class. Although a standard class is made of 40 pupils, insufficient media make the class practically too big to manage. These schools admit that they did not have adequate material and financial resources. Therefore methods that are child centred could not be attempted effectively with inadequate media. The other challenge indicated by the respondents was time resource inadequacy. They alleged that 30 minutes was not enough for a lesson and the researcher agrees with them on the pretext that a class of 40 pupils in a question and answer lesson cannot afford all pupils significant opportunity to respond, hence the fast learners benefit more than the slow pupils.

Frequencies for experimental, problem solving and research or discovery were 33%, 40% and 46% respectively. The lowness of these methods' usage in schools explains the less development of creativity inventiveness and innovativeness of learn. Therefore the expectations of human capital development possibly remain a suspect owing to less private and societal benefits from investing in education system fraught with zero or few quality prospects.

Academic achievement is another indicator of quality measurements. Although there are contradictions and contrasts about effectiveness of measuring quality by test scores or cognitive attainment, the criterion is commonly used especially in primary schools. Sifuna (2007) contends that the World Bank study of education in Sub-

Saharan Africa noted that measuring quality through scores of cognitive achievement was a common approach. However, this was an understatement since the developed countries also use examinations to measure quality. Therefore when using high test scores to be emblematic to quality of education a school produces, the average pass rates in figure 1.1 imply that the five schools observed by this study were offering low quality education for the past five years. The worrying observation is that the decline trend was tipped downwards from 47% in 2006 to 22% in 2010 with lowest attainment of 18% in 2009.

Figure1.3 Grade 7 Cluster Pass rates for 2006 to 2010



(Source: Collected data of 2011)

Apart from participation and cognitive attainment discussed above, the student outcomes are assessed through display of social skills attained by the pupils. Negligence of extracurricular activities and practical subjects in the schools limits diversification in educational investment. Given that these schools consider traditional games for their extracurricular (soccer and netball), limited resources only

allow few pupils to take part to build up school teams for competition as an observation of the researcher. Respondents argued that they do not offer other activities due to lack of both human (expertise) and material resources. Implication is that these rural schools give pupils social skill of communication and less of the vital skills for individual survival liable in practical subjects such as physical education (PE), home economics (HE), Art and Music.

Student outcomes as indicator of quality education are a common and more feasible strategy for evaluating quality. Being common does not imply effectiveness in totality. It has the weakness of invoking competition and focusing teachers and pupils' energy on examinable subjects and subject portions at the expense of the whole curriculum. This reduces the prospects of quality attainment in terms of meeting all curriculum specifications. The following section discussed in a nutshell the issues that were highlighted in the literature and those found concerning the challenges and prospects of quality education in rural primary schools.

4.5 Conclusion

This chapter was focused on issues that awash the question on challenges and prospects of quality as viewed by parents, pupils, teachers and the heads of schools in contrast with the views in the existing literature. Findings from the questionnaires administered by the heads of schools and the teachers and interviews carried out with pupils and the SDC were the subject of the discussion and analysis herein. The ideas were discussed and analysed under the devised categories of supporting

inputs, school culture and climate, teaching and learning process and the student outcomes.

Supporting inputs were found to be adequate in few areas and inadequate in many fields among the rural schools. The only satisfactory supply was provision of teachers by the government and pupils from the community. 80% of the schools had enrolments well beyond their capacity as signified by shortages in such fields that include classrooms, learning time, text books, extracurricular and practical subjects' facilities. The problem was aggravated by parents' failure to pay reasonably adequate levies for the functions of their schools. These stringent conditions were accused by the respondents as causal to the declining quality of education in the universal program. For improvement the community and other stakeholders need to collaborate in addressing the problems.

School culture portrayed was found to be promoting open climate in 80% of the schools. SDC affirmed that they were an interface keeping parents and teachers relationship amicably. They alleged the most difficult ever faced challenge was negotiating teachers' incentives with parents. Although some parents agreed to give teachers monetary incentives to supplement merger salaries from their employer (government) other parents pay it witness it happening without their consent. Some salient cultural traits worth noting were that SDC meet with parents to make decisions, parents pay schools fees and supply materials to support the education of their pupils. However 20% of the schools were accused by SDC for lack of transparent to staff members and to parents. This was attributed to lack of knowledge and experience as the practice was common to acting heads of schools. Climate in that school was closed and the student outcomes were worst.

Teaching and learning process was found to be fraught with hiccups. Although pupils confirmed that their teachers spent teaching time with learners, shortage of classrooms and the adopted hot sit solution were not favourable to rural pupils whose distance to school are too long for pupils to leave school late if they were in the second session. Teaching methods remained a controversial issue to the researcher. Teachers and heads of schools indicated they use a variety of teaching methods. But pupils had not lecture, question and answer as common methods used in the schools. The disagreeable responses of teachers and the heads on the teaching methods made the researcher to conclude that teachers' claims on methods were inconsistent. Home work and assessment were administered with noticeable differences per teacher in terms of the subjects covered by home work. Lack of systematic administration of homework and assessment implied that they were not done effectively. Therefore, slack teaching process lead to undesirable outcomes experienced in the schools studied.

The factors considered herein for quality learning work interdependently. Weakness in one of the factors impact on the other and the whole system gets affected. Since there were gaps in each of the factors favourable to teaching and learning process, the decline of education quality is attributed to the revealed challenges.

CHAPTER 5

Conclusions

5.0 Introduction

The previous chapter presented and discussed emerging issues on the investigation about the challenges and prospects to improve the quality of education in primary schools. The chapter set a platform for the next section on conclusion and recommendations about the findings with regard to problems of quality in the provision of increased access to education. Suggestions for further studies in the same area were pointed out. The previous work herein established from literature that expansion programs under the universal education movement being informed by the theories of education as human capital and as human right gave rise to expansion of education and increased access by the majority of the eligible people (Sifuna, 2007; Dorsey, 2001). The findings confirmed this increase in enrolments in all the schools that the study involved. It was evidenced by the number of pupils in each of the schools surpassing the capacity of the infrastructure and accommodation. Cases studies in Kenya, Tanzania, and Uganda bore similar implications in the endeavours to implement universal education program to fulfil the global policy of education for all. These cases were considered to assessing the implementation of universal education in Zimbabwe.

5.1 Research summary

In this chapter attention is drawn to tying up the study and the emerging issues as epitomized by the focus of the study. Establishing challenges and prospects of

quality education in primary education propelled this investigation. The preconceived idea was that quality in expansion program was declining. The challenges impacting on the fall of quality could not be assessed by isolating factors since the determinant factors are interdependent (Courtney, 2008; William, 2001). Therefore the interlinked factors were assessed together and these were supporting inputs, school culture and climate, the teaching and learning process and student outcomes. The search and reviews' operational objectives were to evaluate the provision of the supporting inputs, the kind of existing school culture and the impact of the prevailing pedagogies to development of individual abilities.

The strategies reasoned suitable for this study were a combination of quantitative and qualitative methods. This mix of techniques enables checks and balances on each of the strategies applied (Babbie, 2008; Flick, 2006; Gray, 2004; Bamberger, 2000). Using these methods; quantitative and qualitative data were harvested through questionnaires and interviews from the population of teachers, pupils and parents sampled purposively from the schools of Kadoma rural district. Random stratified sampling facilitated the picking of the 50 respondents comprised of 5 heads of schools, 10 senior teachers, 10 SDC members and 25 pupils. For each of the schools, 1 head, 2 senior teachers, 2 SDC members and 5 pupils were selected. These were the people who supplied data so salient to this inquiry.

Collected data were analysed using the SPSS, a programme designed to analyse data in social science fields. Descriptive statistics were drawn with which the means and frequencies of positive and negative occurrence of views upon the questionnaire items were used to draw tables and figures in this document. The frequencies and means underpinned the arguments for or against issues raised in the analysis.

Some responses were cited as reports to support the opinions derived from the statistical information. The analysis culminated into the findings discussed in the subsequent paragraphs.

The assumption of the study was that education as human capital notion was liable to the spread of education after the Second World War to few privileged people and that education as a human right promoted the United Nations policy of education for all (Sifuna, 2007; Shultz, 1997; Todaro, 1987). Secondly the provision of education was assumed to be an investment from which individuals and the society would benefit after the learning period. However the emphasis on expansion yielded problems of compromised quality. Challenges of quality education in the implementation of universal primary education were gorged by the inadequacy of supporting inputs, lack of favourable school culture and climate, ineffective teaching and learning process that manifested in poor learning outcomes. That observation casts doubt on the reaping of any significant benefits from a poor education system. These notions were affirmed by the findings on education expansion in sub Saharan Africa particularly in Kenya, Tanzania and Uganda (Sifuna, 2007; Dorsey, 1989). Conversely in this study quality of education was found to be declining on grounds discussed below.

Informants alleged that parents contribute supporting inputs which when assessed by the teachers, pupils, SDC and the school heads were found to be very little to match the recipes for quality learning outcomes. The scarcity was in the provision of text books and stationery, classrooms, teachers' accommodation, water, electricity, practical subjects' facilities and extracurricular materials. The provision capacity was aggravated by the reduced government assistance in public service subsidies

following policies of economic reforms. The education system was also found worthy the blame because of its failure to provide policies that improves the curriculum viewed to be unsuitable with regards to too many subjects with short lesson periods unaffordable by the teachers and learners.

In this scenario the culture of parents to contribute to the school needs is worth appreciation. What they need is increased involvement that positions them into seeing the inadequacy of their payments. There should be sessions of educating parents on the obligation of shared costs for public service in the liberal economic reforms. This is the trend that usually follows increased access and free public services in education and health. In Kenya and Tanzania governments gave up free services to education at the height of economic decline and adopted the shared costs strategy (Sifuna2007). The challenge that comes up is loss of the achieved successes as the decline of standards portrayed by the fall of pass rates in this study.

School culture established in these schools was to a greater extent encouraging. There was a culture of assessing pupils work, giving learners home work, cluster tests and parents, participation in school activities through meetings and consultation days. These are cultural traits that help to promote unity of purpose within the community with respect to education of the children. However the debated culture was found to be rare in school (D) and the school was found to be having a closed climate which culminates is parents and teachers' lack of commitment. Subsequently pupils' performance was the worst in that school. Therefore the quality of learning was bound to be worse too.

Teaching and learning process was revealed to be affected by the other factors discussed above. Shortage of classrooms and adoption of hot sitting resulted in teaching and learning time being reduced from 8 hours to 5 hours per day to accommodate two sessions; morning and afternoon sessions which enables use of classrooms by all pupils in turns. The respondents alleged that most of the practical subjects were not done because of limited time and resources. The implication was that teachers were not engaging child centred methods since they had shortage of time and materials. Therefore learners were not all benefiting from non child centred approaches owing to differences in potentials. Gewirtz (2000) observed that teachers in public schools with insufficient resources in England High schools focused their attention on examinable subjects. The same trend applies to these schools in this study, in the midst of several constraints noted, developing individual potentialities becomes a once in a while concern. Hence pupils were noted to leave schools unable to demonstrate basic literacy and numeracy skills (Dorsey 1989).

5.2 Concluding remarks

Notwithstanding the benefits of universal primary education that include access, literacy and numeracy, challenges to achieve quality in the same expansion programme posed threats to the successes in rural schools.

Universal education policy prompted the expansion of education to rural settlements culminating in increased access to learning by all eligible pupils. Literacy and numeracy improved among the rural people. Government's full responsibility over the social services with influx of donors in the1980s made the programme of expansion a success.

Unfortunately school communities were made to nurse up a culture of receiving without repaying or contributing by the system of free education attempted during early days of Zimbabwe independence in the 1980s (Nhundu, 1992; Mungazi, 1992). The decline of donor funding and reduction of government responsibility in funding the social services followed by reintroduction of fees created barriers to education by the children from poor families in the rural settlements. UPE made significant achievement in increasing access but more still needs to be done to improve quality and enhance the essence of the rural education. Based on the preceding discussion, the following section provides some suggestions for the improvement of quality of education in rural primary schools.

5.3 Suggestions

The emerging issues from this case study that rural schools of Kadoma District were affected by problems of a quadrant group of factors (supporting inputs, school culture and climate, teaching and learning process) could not be generalised to the whole nation off-hand but the findings remain salient signals of explanations to the challenges of rural schools in the implementation of universal education with oversight on quality. Therefore, it is recommended that more researches with bigger samples be carried out across the rural schools in the country.

Primary schools curriculum in Zimbabwe has 11 subjects for grades 3 to 7 and 10 for grades 1-2 which do not have AIDS education. The subjects are:

- AIDS Education,
- Art education,
- English language,
- Shona language,
- Environmental science,
- Home economics

- Mathematics
- Music
- Physical education
- Religious and moral education
- Social studies

Teachers expressed dissatisfaction with this curriculum in terms of effective implementation. Their argument was that the subjects were too many and ineffectiveness was gorged by the inadequacy of resources. The researcher also felt that few subjects could be sufficed by the available resources and that the little financial resources could be concentrated on few selected subjects and provide enough reading material for pupils. Therefore this study recommends the reduction and relevance of the primary subjects to be considered by the policy makers.

It is significant to note that subject specialisation by teachers was practised in the schools included in this study; it is therefore an attractive prospect for extending the specialisation to primary pupils since teachers claimed that the subjects were too many for the learners. The curriculum need to be designed in such a way that it has core subjects and optional subjects related to a learner's potential and interest. This would lay an effective foundation for secondary education where choice of subjects is practised. It has to start from primary school to provide learners adequate time to develop their potentials and perfection of skills. A relevant curriculum is possible with this idea and pass rates are rest assured to improve owing to reduction of too many subjects and motivated learning and teaching based on informed choice of what to learn.

Majority of the teachers advocated for use of both mother language and English in the delivery of teaching and learning. The diverse of the languages in Zimbabwe is too big for implementing this advocating unless the recommendation for subject

specialisation is adopted minor languages face extinct together with minority cultures because language is the media for transmission of cultural issues. Use of mother languages is important in enhancing comprehension which is necessary for improvement of creativity; therefore the findings herein recommend use of mother tongue at early stages of learning and international languages to be introduced for communication purpose at later stages.

Political interference in teaching and learning contributes to difficulties in teaching and learning process. This entails that the government need to craft deterrent policy on public intent to engage teachers in political activism. The current policy bars teachers from active participation in political issues but if the public has no restrictions to that effect, they may enforce the participation. Once the school community initiates a culture of promoting peaceful learning and teaching environment improvement will be expected to favourable working conditions free from threats from politics.

In the era of cost sharing on public services, the government needs to be clear with who does what and when in order to deal with the problem of delayed payments which have been found detrimental to efficiency and eventually quality of learning. There should be a policy that charts the course of action for defaults and the enforcement mechanism for the policy. The magnitude of non-payments expressed by the informants indicates that there were gaps in as to how to enforce the payment without affecting the learners by sending them off for fees. Sending pupils off for fees is a violation of children's equal opportunity to learning, therefore they need to be protected by favourable policies on how to recovers debts from their parents. SDC is just a coordinating voluntary organ which has no powerful enforcement tools as

evidenced by their assertions about non-payments and delayed payments through to allegation of conniving with school teachers to defrauding parents.

It is recommended that as parents are charged with full responsibility of the education of their children in the reformed economic programme compliance with school requirements is prospective of improving the quality of learning. The study suggests that school education officers and the school heads as well as the school village committees and the SDC need to plan for fund raising projects in schools using levies to generate more money for the school. This reduces too much dependence on levies such that if parents delay paying the school should not miss out targets.

School and community hostility is caused by lack of communication and interactions between the two fronts. Schools are recommended to open up for community involvement in school issues and this is increased by open climate together with transparent on how the school operates. Establishment of open climate for the community leads to a culture of collaboration essential for receiving contributions from the community. This emphasise the need for school leaders to execute their role of interfacing the school and the community.

Community donors are another effective prospect for releasing school resources. The school heads and the SDC need to involve local business people in their planning meetings so that they realise needy areas in school requirements. Local authority like the rural council need to encourage through set conditions, business people under their jurisdiction to support schools within their locality. Such innovations encourage collaboration between local stake holders and the community at large. Stark confirms the empowerment in collaboration through the assertion that,

“Everywhere, there are signs that rural communities would benefit from greater collaboration, citizen participation and regional analysis”, (Stark, 2002: 5). Local authority’s good governance is portrayed by its ability to mobilise resource within its territory for the benefit of its people through motivating collaboration.

There is need for rural school electrification if the imperative to provide equitable distribution of learning facilities and equipment is to be realised by all. Schools noted to be better than others even though the performance was below 50%, were electrified. It could be of greater effect if rural schools are electrified by solar energy were hydro-electric power lines are not available. The advantages of electricity in schools are many and a few of them are: facilitation of use of E-learning that is use of electronic gadgets such as radios, recorders, television and computers in teaching. It also improves working conditions for teachers hence staff turnover noted in some schools will be reduced. Informal learning will be encouraged by possibility of after work evening lessons which advance the obligation of universal education. Therefore government, school community, and the local authority need to collaborate in providing electricity to rural schools

Implementation of policies may be difficult to take without monitoring and resources. On the same note lack of resources is not easily identified without practical attempts to put intent into action. The dormant action on practical subjects indicates lack of monitoring from the school heads and also from the education officers. If monitoring of the teaching of practical subjects and extracurricular is sanctioned solution to the challenges is achievable. Therefore it is advised herein that heads of schools should carefully plan the monitoring and supervision for teaching of practical subjects and

high order lessons as well, the education officers/inspectors need to do monitoring regularly so that they familiarise themselves with gaps in their schools.

Examination of practical subjects could be an effective measure to ensure schools exact reasonable energy in them. This view is prompted from the observation that teachers' quality in schools is literally measured by the number of passes of the pupils hence they are made to concentrate on examinable areas of the courses (Gewirtz, 2000). Implicitly, teachers' quality should be assessed in totality and acknowledgement of other things that the teachers do in the life of children's learning. This encourages teachers to facilitate learners' diverse learning.

Introduce village education committee to facilitate and enlighten villagers on the requirements of schools to meet quality improvement India has such village education committees that are reported to contribute to the learning of children.SDC in this study confirmed that their existence benefits the school by improving teacher community relations and by mobilising resources such as school levies and other construction materials. The task as reported is understaffed and not well representative to the school community as the SDC members are just 5 (Grover and Sigh, 2002). Therefore Village committees working together with the SDC and the school would have a positive impact on conscientisation, monitoring and encouragement through equal representation. However, as the diction goes, "Too many cooks spoil the broth", having these village committees demands extensive awareness education so that they work for needs to fall in place rather than to fall apart.

Physical and classroom material requirements were a common challenge in the visited schools. Existence of functional SDCs is a prospect for improvement of

attainment of the requirements. It was reported in all the schools that the committees help to mobilise funding for the schools from parents, what they lack is training for efficiency in assisting in school management and how to raise funds without begging. Schools leaders need to work out fund raising strategies with the SDC and the proposed Village education committees for the acquisition of their classroom materials and physical infrastructure.

Rural schools are under the authority of rural and urban councils. The authority in the Ngezi rural schools was underutilised. The SDCs were expressing disengagement of the authority in school prospects and challenges. The school heads need to establish a working relationship with their authority for them to have diverse of resource pools and channels.

The study suggests that the ministry of education should design, in consultation of the teachers and the public at large, a curriculum that suits the means and needs of the people. This follows the observation that there are unintended or imprompt curricular in the national curricular at school level. Schools indicated various learning times and preferred subjects for same grade levels at different schools. The reaction was claimed to be in response to shortage of time and other resources. Therefore the redesigning of the curriculum will consider the discrepancies to resolve the differences unfavourable to standardisation of measurements for quality.

A variety of extracurricular activities has to be provided at each school to encourage development of individual potentials and boost the morale for school attendance. Some pupils alleged that they did not like their schools for not offering sporting activities they used to do in their former schools and others alleged that some pupils only come to school for balls. This was evidence enough to see the need for various

extracurricular activities in schools. There could be obstacles such as expertise as cited by informants but the solution lies in in-service workshops that the respondents advanced were prevalent in their cluster. In-service workshops give ideal prospects for manpower development through peer teaching. They are immediate and non-expensive strategy to enhance skills' development at one's door step.

The time resource is limited for both classroom and outdoor activities as informed by the study. For all pupils' full participation in learning and development of their skills through practice, there should be adequate facilities such as many play fields for different activities to go on simultaneously. In contrast schools have been noted to be having 1 soccer field, 1 netball field and volleyball pitch. The tendency cannot afford all pupils equal opportunity to develop their individual skills.

Improvement of facilities, equipment, in-service of the teachers, electrification of rural schools, and facilitation of collaboration among stakeholder, curriculum improvement and effective child-centred pedagogies are ideal prospects for increased access and quality provision of universal education.

6.0 Reference

Adams, Don. 1993. "Defining educational quality" *IEQ Publication #1: Biennial Report January 6, 1993, USA: University of Pittsburgh.*

Akinpelu, J., A. 1995*. An Introduction to Philosophy of Education.* London:

Macmillan Education Ltd.

_ *1990.* African Charter on Rights and Welfare of the Child*. oau.doc.cab/leg/24.9/49*

(1990), entered into force on November 1999, article 11: education.

Babbie, E. 2008. *Introduction to Research. (5th ed.).* USA. : Wadsworth.

Baiju K., N. 2010*.* RMSA for United Nations in Education in India*. University of Calicut.*

Barrett, A., M. and Tickly, L. 2011*. "*Education Quality for Social Justice*." Journal of Education Development,* 31, (1): 3-14.UK: University of Bristol*. Accessed on 09/ 03/2011 from www.edqual.org.*

Bloom, David, E. and Joel Cohen E. 2002. "Education for all: An Unfinished Revolution". *Daedalus summer,* 131, (3): 84-95. Accessed: 11/10/2011 13:4 from www.jstor.org/stable20027791.

Cheng, Cheong, Y. and Tam. Wai Ming 1997*. "*Multi-models of Quality in Education in Education", *The Journal of Quality Assurance in Education* 5, (1): 22-31. Hong Kong: MCB University Press.

Chikoko, V. and Aipinge L. 2009. "The school Cluster System as an Educational Reform: Evidence from Namibia and Zimbabwe." *Southern African Review of Education,* 15, (1): 25-43.

Cleghorn, A. and Prochner, L. 1997. Early Childhood Education in Zimbabwe: Recent Trends and Prospects*. Early Education and Development*, 8(3):339-352. DOI: 10.1207/s15566935eed0803_8.

Coleman, M. and Peter, E. 2005*. Leadership and Management in education: cultures, change and context.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Courtney, J. 2008. "Do monitoring and evaluating tools, designed to measure the improvement in the quality of primary education, constrain or enhance educational development?" *International journal of educational development, 28, (2008): 546-559.*
www.elsevier.com/locate/.

Dorsey Jo., B. 1989. "Educational Development and Reform in Zimbabwe". *Comparative Education Review,* 33, (1): 40-58. The University of Chicago Press. http://www.jstor.org/stable/1188724. *Accessed: 09/02/2011 12:48*

Dunham, J., K. and Song'ony, D. 2008. Research in Comparative and International Education. *Volume 3 (4). www.wwwords.co.uk/RCIE.*

Fihla, G., V. 2003. "School Effectiveness and Learning Achievement: A case Study of Alice District." Master's Thesis, University of Fort Hare.

Flick, U. 2006. *An introduction to qualitative research (third edition),* Los Angeles: SAGE Publications.

Fedderk, J., W. and Luizy, J., M. 2008. "Does human capital generate social and institutional capital? Exploring evidence from South African time series data. *Oxford economic papers 60, 649-682.*
Accessed on15/04/2011 from doi 10. 1093oep/gpn007

Gene, B. S. 2001. "Toward Universal Education: Making a Promise, and Keeping it". *Foreign Affairs*, 80, (5): 7-13. Published by Council on Foreign Relations.

Gewirtz, S*. 2000. "*Bring the Politics Back In: Critical Analysis of Quality Discourses in Education", *British Journal of Educational Studies*, 48: (4), 332-370.

Ghai, Y. 2006. Human Rights and Development in Development As Human Right legal, political, and economics dimensions, eds. Andreassen, B. and Marks, P. *USA: Harvard University Press*.

Ghartey, J.B. 1987. Crisis Accountability and Development in the Third World. The case of Africa. Thesis PH. D. FCCA. Avebury: Gower Publishing Company Limited.

Gray, E., D. 2009*. Doing Research in the Real World. London:* SAGE Publication Ltd.

Grover, S., Nishu, H., Sigh and Stromquist N. 2002. "The quality of primary education: A case study of Madurai and Villupuram Districts in Tamil Nadu, India, Researh: Harvard University.

Harvey, L. and Green, D. *(1993)* 'Defining Quality', Assessment & Evaluation in Higher Education. 18, (1): 9 - 34. *http://dx.doi.org/10.1080/0260293930180102*

Hofstee, E. 2006. *Constructing a Good Dissertation.* South Africa: EPE.

Hoy, W., K. and Miskel, C., G.1987.*Educational Administration: Theory, Research and Practice* (Third Edition). New York: Random House.

Kanyongo, Y., G. 2005. "Zimbabwe's Public Education System Reforms: Successes and Challenges". *International Education Journal*, 6, (1): 65-74

Kumar, C., Raj. 2004. "International human perspectives on the fundamental right to education and human development in Indian constitution", *Tulane J. Int'l & Comp. Law: Vol 12.*

Lelliot, A., Pendlebury S. and Penny E. 2000. "Promise of access and inclusion: Online education in Africa. *Journal of the Philosophy of Education of Great Britain,* 34 (1), 42-52.

Livingstone, D., W. 1999. *The education-Jobs Gap: Underemployment or Economic Democracy.* Toronto: Garamond

Lockheed M. E., Andriaan M. Verspoor and associates. 1991. *Improving Primary Education in Developing Countries*. US: Oxford University Press.

Memzur, Banyam, D. 2008. The African Children's Charter versus the UN Convention on Children's Rights: *A zero sum game.* South Africa: University of Western Cape.

Michaelowa, K. 2001. "Primary educational quality in Francophone Sub Saharan A: Determinants of learning Achievement and efficiency considerations." *World Development, 29, (10), 1699-1716. Germany: Elsevier Science Ltd, www.elsevier.com/locate/world/dev*

McGinn F., Noel. 1996. "Comparative Education Review", 40, (4): 341-357. Chicago Press.

Mlahleki, M., S*. 1995. "The Hypothetic-Evolutionary Approach to conceptual Frame work for Policy Analysis in Africa",* 8, (8). SAPEM.

Mungazi, D. 1992. "Educational innovation in Zimbabwe: Possibilities and Problems". *The journal of Negro education,* 54, (2): 196-212.

Murgatroyd, S. (1992*) "*A new Frame for Managing schools: total quality management (TQM)'', *School organization* 12(3), 174-199

Murgatroyd, S. 1993. Implementing: total quality management in the schools: Challenges and opportunities", *School organization, vol*. 13, 3, 269-281.

Nussbaum, M., C*. 2011.* 'Capabilities, Entitlements, Rights: Supplementation *and Critique', Journal of Human Development and Capabilities*, 12: 1, 23 — 37 *http://www.informaworld.com/smpp/title~content=t713431425. Accessed on 22 March2011.*

Nhundu, T.1992. "A Decade of Education Expansion in Zimbabwe: Causes, Consequences and Policy Contradictions". *Journal of Negro Education, 61, (1): 78-982011.*
http://www.jstor.org/stable/2295630 Accessed: 22/11/2010 11:51.

O'brien, S. and Broom A. 2011. The rise and fall of HIV/AIDS in Zimbabwe: The social political and economic context*. African Journal of AIDS Research,10 (3): 281-290.*

Owens, Robert, G. 1981. *Organisational Behaviour in education.* Second Edition, Prentice-Hall.

Van der Westhuizen, P.C. (editor*). 2004. Effective Educational Management.* Pretoria: Kagiso Tertiary*.*

Pring, R*. 1992.* "Standard and Quality in Education". *The Journal of Educational Studies,* 40, (1): 4-22. *http://www.jstor.org/stable/3121484 .Accessed: 17/02/2011 03:37.*

Rahim, A. 2006*.* "Education, Development and The Common Good*. Journal of Public Administration,"* 41, (4), 1.

Rust Val D. (ed.) 1990. *Teaching in the developing world.* New York: Garland.

Schultz, T., W. 1977*. Education and human capital.* In Power and ideology in education, eds. Karabel Jerome. New York: Oxford University Press.

Sen, A.1999*. Development as Freedom.* New York: Oxford University.

Sen, A., K*. 1999. Commodities and Capabilities*. New Delhi: Oxford University*.*

Sen, A.*1984. Resources, Values and Development.* USA: Harvard University Press.

Sen, A*.2006. Human Rights and Development in Development As Human Right legal, political, and economics dimensions, eds. Andreassen, B. and Marks, P. USA: Harvard University Press.*

Shoko, B. 2010. "Education Transition Fund Revives Hope for Zimbabwe's children". *Unicef Zimbabwe Country Office,* 26 January.

Sifuna, N., D. 2007. "The Challenges of Increasing Access and Improving Quality*". International Review 53: 687.*

Stark, N. 2002. *"E*ffective Rural Governance, What is it? What does It Matter?" *Washington DC: Rural Governance Initiative.*

Steer, L. and Wathne, C*. 2009*."Achieving Universal Basic Education Constraints and Opportunities in Donor Financing," *Draft for consultation. UK: Overseas Development Institute. www.odi.org.uk.*

Tao L. Scott R. and Zhang L.. 2010. *Cash incentives, Peer tutoring and parental involvement:* A case study of three educational inputs in a randomized field experiment in China.

The ministries of education and higher education. 1996. *"*Development of education", Zimbabwe National report presented to the 45th session of the International Conference on Education in Geneva*.*

Tikly, L. *2010.* "Towards a Framework for Understanding the Quality of Education". *Edqual Working paper no. 27. UK: University of Bristol.*

Todaro, M*.,* P*. 1989. Economic Development in the Third World, Fourth Edition.* New York: Longman*.*

UNESCO, 2001. "The developments in education system at the 20th century 1990-2000*," National report of the Republic of Zimbabwe prepaid by The Zimbabwe Ministry of Education, Sport and culture and the Ministry of High education and technology: Harare.*

Vengesayi, C. (ed.) 1995*. Educational leadership and supervision*. Module EA3DC103 (A&B), Zimbabwe: Centre for distance education*.*

Webster, T*. 2000.* Globalisation of Education Policies: Extent of External Influences On Contemporary Universal Primary Education Policies. *Paupua New Guinea: University of Papau New Guinea Press.*

Williams, J., H. 2001*.* "Learning for Future Refugee Education in Developing countries". *htt://people.umass.edu/educ870/post conflict/resources/Quality Edu.*

Woodhall, M. 1987. *"Education Production Function". In Economics of Education: Research and Studies, ed.* Psacharopoulos, G., 11-14. UK: Pergamon Books Ltd.

Zajda J., S. Majhanovich and Rust Val. 2006*.* "Introduction: Education and social justice*". Review of Education: Springer.*

DOI 101007/s11159-005-5614-2.

7.0 APPENDICES

7.1 Appendix A

Aminur Rahim, B. A. (Rajshahi), M.A. (Rajshahi) M.A. (Waterloo) PhD (Toronto)
Department of Development Studies, University of Fort Hare
Private Bag X1314, Alice 5700, Eastern Cape, South Africa
Ph: 27 40 602 2105 (O) 27 82 782 7448 (Cell) 27 40 653 1007 (Fax)

August 24, 2011

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN

This is to certify that Mr Amos Mazise is a full-time student studying a master of social Science Degree in the Department of Development Studies at the University of Fort Hare.

Currently he is writing his dissertation entitled, "**Challenges faced by Zimbabwe Rural Primary Schools: A Case Study of Kadoma Rural Primary schools**". In order to successfully complete his project, Mr Mazise has to carry out extensive fieldwork and archival research in Zimbabwe. Therefore, I will highly appreciate if you kindly give him an access to your school/library/archive in this regard. The information and data that will be collecting from the site will be used strictly for scholarly purposes only.

Your cooperation will be highly appreciated by the Department of Development Studies as well as by the University of Fort Hare.

Sincerely yours

Professor A., Rahim

7.2 Appendix B

Turf Primary School

P Bag 660

Kadoma Mobile phone: 00263772522530 Email:amosmazise@yahoo.com

22 August 2011

The District Education Officer

Ministry of education sports and Culture Kadoma

Zimbabwe

Ref: REQUEST FOR PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

Dear Sir/Madam

I am a Master of Social Science student in the Department of Development studies enrolled with University of Fort Hare, currently working on research project titled "**Challenges faced by Zimbabwe Rural Primary Schools: A Case Study of Kadoma Rural Primary schools**". For the success of this research, I need your permission to access the primary school pupils, School Development Committee members, senior teachers, heads and any other relevant documents during third term of 2011.Please note that this is an academic research and the information obtained shall be used for the research purpose only and it shall be handled with much confidentiality.

As said, the study is focused on Challenges faced by rural primary schools in Zimbabwe, engaging Kadoma (Mhondoro Ngezi) District as a case study. I intend to distribute self-administered questionnaires to heads of school and senior teachers and interview senior pupils and School Development Committee members.

The research project is likely to produce information useful to academics, professionals and stakeholders in the field of education. Feedback on findings will be delivered to your offices. So I seek to be granted permission to visit schools under your responsibility. Attached is my supervisor's letter.

Yours sincerely

Mazise Amos (Student Number201013868)

Authority granted to visit Schools in the District

7.3 Appendix C

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR HEADS OF SCHOOLS

I am a student at University of Fort Hare in South Africa, doing Master's degree in Social science. The research that I am doing is about Challenges facing rural primary schools and interventions in achieving quality education in Zimbabwe with a case study in TATUWA cluster of Kadoma rural schools. Your honest answers will contribute greatly to the success of this study. Provide or select and ***tick in the space provided*** the most appropriate answer**.**

Section A: Demographic information

Date.....

Cluster: TATUWA

District: Kadoma

1. Post: Head…… [ ]

Deputy Head…….. [ ]

2. Sex**:** Male……. [ ]

Female…… [ ]

3. Age: Below 20 …… [ ]

20 – 29 ……... [ ]

30 – 39……. [ ]

40 – 49…… [ ]

50 – 65…….. [ ]

Above 65 ……..... [ ]

4. Employment status:

Acting head……... [ ]

Acting deputy head……..... [ ]

Substantive head …… [ ]

Substantive deputy head ……... [ ]

5. Experiences:

Below 1 years…….. [ ]

1- 5 year…… [ ]

6 - 1…….. [ ]

11 – 1……..... [ ]

16 – 20…….... [ ]

Above 20……[ ]

6. Highest professional qualifications**:**

Teacher education certificate/diploma …… [ ]

Diploma in Education…….. [ ]

Bachelor's degree in education and administration…… [ ]

Master's degree in education…… [ ]

Others (specify).....

7. Do you hold consultations with parents and stake holders on pupils learning needs?

Yes…… [ ]

No…… [ ]

8. If your answer is yes do parents cooperate to provide agreed needs?

Yes…… [ ]

No…… [ ]

9. Do you sometimes engage parents as resource persons?

Yes…… [ ]

No…… [ ]

10. What effects does this have to pupils' learning? .....

.....

……

11. Does your school hold staff development programs?

Yes…… [ ]

No…… [ ]

12. Does your school community contribute to text book purchase?

Yes…… [ ]

No…… [ ]

13. **I**f the answer is **yes**, comment on adequacy. .....

.....

……

14. How else does the community help to enhance teaching and learning in your school?

…….....

……

15. Of the following, which ones do you have in your school?

Computer laboratory …… [ ]

Computers…… [ ]

Practical subjects laboratory…… [ ]

School telephone…….... [ ]

Newspaper deliveries…… [ ]

Others (specify).....

……..

16. Do pupils have access to them?

Yes…… [ ]

No …… [ ]

17. How much accommodation do you have for your teachers? .....

……

……

18. Please comment on the adequacy of your classrooms……

……..

19. Text books provision

Ratio of text books to pupils	1 to 1	1 to2	1 to 3	1 to more than 3
Mathematics				
English				
Shona				
General paper				

20. If pupils use school text books, are they free to take them home?

Yes……. [ ]

No…….. [ ]

Section B: Enabling environment

21. Staff and its characteristics

Staff in the school	Trained staff	Untrained staff	Totals
Females			
Males			
Totals			

22. Total number of pupils in the school.....

23. What is the class to teacher ratio in the school? .....

……..

……..

24. Dropouts and Repeaters

2011 Enrolments	Grade 1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Enrolments in term 2							
Enrolments in term 1							
Drop outs							
Repeaters since January							

25. Do you experience problems that affect teaching and learning from your teachers

Yes…… [ ]

No……... [ ]

26. If yes, please state the problems. .....

.....

……..

27. In your administrative structure do you have the following sub committees?

Examination committee…… [ ]

Discipline committee……..,.. [ ]

Subject/course specific committee……. [ ]

Extra curricula committees…… [ ]

Procurement committee……. [ ]

28. If you have these committees, in what ways are they helpful to teaching and learning?

.....

.....

.....

29. Who provide (s) your school with financial resources?

Parents……. [ ]

Government……. [ ]

Community donors ……. [ ]

External Donors …….. [ ]

Other sources (specify).....

.....

30. If your school gets money from parents, are all pupils paid up by the beginning of the school year? Yes……. [ ]

No……... [ ]

31. If not, what effect does this have on you school programmes: .....

.....

Section C: Culture

32. What are your expectations for students and teachers? .....

.....

33. What do you do to meet your expectations? .....

.....

34. Do you have a school time table (organised curriculum)?

Yes……. [ ]

No……. [ ]

35. Is it practically applicable/user friendly to pupils and the staff?

Yes……. [ ]

No……. [ ]

36. What are your suggestions about your timetable?

.....

37. Do you reward pupils for good work?

Yes…… [ ]

No…… [ ]

38. How do you do it?

……..

……..

Section D: Teaching and learning process

39. How many lessons you ought to have per day for grades 3-7? .....

40. How many do you often manage?

41. Do your teachers give homework to pupils?

Yes…… [ ]

No …… [ ]

42. If your answer is yes, how often?

.....

43. Do you assess pupil's performance? .....

44. How often do you assess it? .....

45. What do you think about teaching children in their mother's language?

.....
.

.....
.

46. In general, which teaching methods are frequently used by your staff?

Lecture method…… [ ]

Question and answer…….. [ ]

Group discussion ……..… [ ]

Discovery / research method ……..… [ ]

Analysis method / Problem solving…….. [ ]

Experiment ……..… [ ]

Others specify ……

47. How do you facilitate effective use of child-centred methods in the school?.....

.....

48. Which ones do you offer at your school?

Soccer …….. [ ]

Netball…….. [ ]

Basketball…… [ ]

Cricket …… [ ]

Hockey…….. [ ]

Volleyball……[ ]

Others (specify).....

.....

49. If you do not take some of the games above, please give reason.....

.....

50. Which practical subjects do you teach at your school?

.....
.

.....

51. Comment on how you manage the teaching of practical subjects: .....

.....

…….

…….

…….

Section E: Student outcomes

52 What is the overall pass rate for Grade 7 for year 2010?

.....

53. Please complete the table below.

Table A: Overall percentage pass rate for term 2 of 2011(put a tick).

	Below 20	21-30	31-40	41-50	Above 50
Grade 1					
2					
3					
4					
5					
6					
7					

54. Comment on the results: .....

.....

……

……

……

……

……

……

……

……

Table B: Grade 7 performance pass rates for the past 5 years

55

Year	Overall Percentage Score
2010	
2009	
2008	
2007	
2006	

56. Please comment on the results above. .....

.....

.....

57. Apart from the challenges identified above, what other factors contribute to decline of quality in education? **(Put them in order of importance).**

.....

.....

.....

……

……..

……

……

Thank you for your time and contributions

7.4 Appendix D

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR SENIOR TEACHERS

I am a student at University of Fort Hare in South Africa, doing Master's degree in Social science. The research that I am doing is about Challenges facing rural primary schools and interventions in achieving quality education in Zimbabwe with a case study in TATUWA cluster of Kadoma rural schools. Your honest answers will contribute greatly to the success of this study. Provide or select and ***tick in the space*** [ ] ***provided*****,** the most appropriate answer**.**

Section A: Demographic information

Date.....

Cluster**:** TATUWA

Districts: Kadoma

1. Sex: Male …… [ ]

Female …… [ ]

2. Age: Below 20 ……... [ ]

20 – 29 …… [ ]

30 – 39 …….. [ ]

40 – 49 …….. [ ]

50 – 65 ……... [ ]

Above 65 ……... [ ]

3. Experiences**:** Below 1 years…… [ ]

1- 5 years …… [ ]

6- 10……...…… [ ]

11 – 15 …….. [ ]

16 – 20…… [ ]

Above 20…… [ ]

4. Highest professional qualifications:

Teacher education certificate/diploma…… [ ]

Diploma in Education …… [ ]

Bachelor's degree in education and administration …….. [ ]

Master's degree in education …… [ ]

Others (specify).....

5. Do you hold consultations with your class parents on pupils learning needs?

Yes…… [ ]

No…… [ ]

6. If your answer is yes do parents cooperate to provide agreed needs?

Yes…… [ ]

No…….. [ ]

7. Do you sometimes engage parents as resource persons?

Yes…… [ ]

No …… [ ]

8. What effects does this have to pupils' learning? .....

.....

9. How does your school improve teachers' service capability? .....

……..

……..

10. Does your school community contribute to text book purchase?

Yes…… [ ]

No…….. [ ]

11. How else does the community help to enhance teaching and learning in your school?

……

……

12 **Learning and teaching resources in your class**

Ratio of text books to pupils	1 to 1	1 to2	1 to 3	1 to more than 3
Mathematics				
English				
Shona				
General paper				

13. If pupils use school text books, are they free to take them home?

Yes…… [ ]

No……... [ ]

14. Does your school have enough classrooms for the pupils?

Yes…… [ ]

No…… [ ]

15. If your answer is no, comment on how you manage the problem. .....

……

……

……

16. Of the following, which ones do you have in your school?

Computer laboratory…….. [ ]

Computers…… [ ]

Practical subjects laboratory…… [ ]

School telephone ……... [ ]

Newspaper deliveries…… [ ]

17. Who provide (s) your school with financial resources?

Parents …… [ ]

Government…….. [ ]

Community donors…….. [ ]

External Donors …… [ ]

Other sources (specify).....

18. If your school gets money from parents, are all pupils paid up by the beginning of the year?

Yes…… [ ]

No……..… [ ]

19. Comment on the effect this has on your school programmes: .....

.....

Section B: Enabling environment

20. To what extent are the teachers satisfied with their accommodation at this school?

…….....

……..

21. Are teaching and learning conditions at this school good for you?

Yes, (Please explain)……..……

…….....

No, (Please explain)……..

……..

……..

……....[ ]

22. Is teacher to pupil's ratio in your class 1: 40?

Yes……. [ ]

No……. [ ]

23. If your class is more than 40 pupils, are you comfortable with teaching it?

Yes…… [ ]

No…….. [ ]

24. What is the size of your class …….

25. How do you manage your class: -

(a). to generate stimulating ideas from them .....

(b). –to develop interest in reading .....

(c). – to participate actively in class .....

……

26. How do you lead your pupils to do what you value for their success?

.....

……

27. What is your prescribed schooling time? .....hours

28. Do you always have pupils in school for this time? Please explain your answers:

Yes…….

…….

No……

……

……..

Section C: School climate

29. What are your expectations for your students?

.....

30 Are you happy with your class' learning attitude? .....

.....

Yes…… [ ]

No…….. [ ]

31. Do you have a teaching and learning time table in your class?

Yes…… [ ]

No…… [ ]

32. Is it practically applicable/user friendly?

Yes……... [ ]

No…… [ ]

33. What are your suggestions about your timetable? .....

.....

34. Do you reward pupils for good work?

Yes…… [ ]

No…… [ ]

35. How do you do it?

……..

……..

……..

……

36. Which ones do you offer at your school?

Soccer …… [ ]

Netball…… [ ]

Basketball…… [ ]

Cricket …… [ ]

Hockey…… [ ]

Volleyball…… [ ]

Others (specify).....

.....

37. If you do not take some of the games above, please comment.....

.....

38. Which practical subjects do you teach at your school?

.....

……

39. Comment on how your school treats the teaching of practical subjects: .....

.....

Dropouts and Repeaters

40. Complete the table for your class: Grade [ ]

Enrolments	Number of pupils
Term 2	
Term 1	
Drop outs since January	
Repeaters since January	

Section D: Teaching and learning process

41. How many lessons you ought to teach per day? .....

42. How many do you manage?

.....
.

43. In general, which teaching methods do you frequently use?

Lecture method…… [ ]

Question and answer…….. [ ]

Group discussion..……..…[ ]

Discovery / research method..……..…[ ]

Analysis method / Problem solving…….. [ ]

Experiment....……... [ ]

Others specify …….

44. Which teaching methods do you think promote child-centred education?

.....

45. Do you give homework to your class?

Yes……. [ ]

No…….…… [ ]

46. Please explain what you think about giving homework to pupils learning?

.....

47. How often do you assess pupil's performance?

…….

…….

……..

……

……..

48. What percentage of your class is able to write a composition?

Below 20 …… [ ]

21-30 …….. [ ]

31-40 …….. [ ]

41-50 …….. [ ]

Above 50 …… [ ]

49. What percentage of your class usually scores more than 50% in maths tests?

Below 20 …… [ ]

21-30 …….. [ ]

31-40 …….. [ ]

41-50 …….. [ ]

Above 50 …… [ ]

50. What do you think is the best way to create an effective leaning in primary schools?

Pease explain your choice:

Using
Shona.....

……

……

Using both Shona and English .....

……..

……

Using Shona in grades 0 – 3 only

……

……

……

……..

Section E: Student outcomes

51. What was the overall pass rate for your 2010 class?

PECENTAGE				
Below 20	21-30	31-40	41-50	Above 50
Tick in box [ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]	[ ]

52. Apart from the challenges identified above, what other factors contribute to decline of quality in education? **(Put them in order of importance).**

.....

.....

……..

……..

……

……

……

……

Thank you for your time and contributions

7.5 Appendix E

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR THE SCHOOL DEVELOPMENT COMMITTEE (SDC)

I am a student at University of Fort Hare in South Africa, doing Master's degree in Social science. The research that I am doing is about Challenges facing rural primary schools and interventions in achieving quality education in Zimbabwe with a case study in TATUWA cluster of Kadoma rural schools. Your honest answers will contribute greatly to the success of this study. Please feel comfortable as no responses shall be treated as wrong answers. Your contribution shall be kept highly confidential.

1. How long have you been serving as a member of the SDC?
a. Are you enjoying the job?
b. What part of the job do you like
c. Why are you interested in the job?

2. What are your responsibilities as a representative of parents at the school?

3. Are you happy with the way teaching and learning facilities are used in the school?

4. Do you think teaching and learning materials are adequate? Pease explain your response.

5. What is the state of infrastructure in the school?

6. Please explain how much your committee consults with the school responsible authority on improving learning and teaching?

7. How much amicable is the relationship between school staff and parents?

8. When do you involve parents and other stake holders (community leaders, donors) in making decisions about improving teaching and learning?

9. What do you think about the hours spent by pupils as school time?

10. To what extent do teachers meet your expectations about the teaching and learning?

Thank you for your time and contributions

7.6 Appendix F

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR THE SCHOOL PUPILS

I am a student at University of Fort Hare in South Africa, doing Master's degree in Social science. The research that I am doing is about Challenges facing rural primary schools and interventions in achieving quality education in Zimbabwe with a case study in TATUWA cluster of Kadoma rural schools. Your honest answers will contribute greatly to the success of this study. Please feel comfortable as no responses shall be treated as wrong answers. Your contribution shall be kept highly confidential.

1. How much do you like your school?
2. What do you like about your class?
3. How much do your parents contribute to the school for your teaching and learning?
4. How much appreciated is your headmaster by the school community?
5. Does you class and the teacher have amicable relationship? Please explain your answer.
6. How does your teacher spend his teaching time?
7. How do you like the way your teacher varies his teaching methods?
8. What extracurricular activities are done at your school?
9. How does your school perform in relation to other schools in this cluster?

Thank you for your time and contributions

7.7 Appendix G

Observation guide for schools

1. Date……

2. Name of school……

3. District……

4. Physical structures……..

5. Does the school have the following?

a. Enough accommodation for teachers……

b. Enough classrooms (1.5m^2 per child)……....

c. Toilets……..

d. A library……..

e. Laboratory……..

f. Practical subjects' work places……

g. Sports fields……...

h. Administration block/offices…….

i. Garden……....

j. Clinic within a radius of 5km……

k. Accessible road……

l. Reliable water source……

6. Does the school have the following amenities?

a. Running water……

b. Chalkboards……..…

c. Teachers' chair……..

d. Pupils' furniture……..

……

……....

7. Record of text books (readers)

Codes: A- serious shortage B- Not enough for all pupils in class

C – Enough for learners D – Virtually nothing

Grades →	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
AIDS education text books							
Art text books							
English text books							
Environmental science text books							
Home economics text books							
Mathematics text books							
Music text books							
Physical education text books							
Religious and moral text books							
Shona text books							
Social studies text books							

Comments……

……

……

……

……

……

……

……

……

The end