The implementation of the new competence-based curriculum: A case study of selected primary schools in Zimbabwe

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DECLARATION OF AUTHENTICITY

I the undersigned, hereby declare that the work contained in this dissertation / thesis is my own original work and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it at any university for a degree

Handtekening/Signature

30/11/2022
Datum/Date

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ABSTRACT

The role of leadership in new curriculum reform implementation in the education system has not much coverage in the literature on leadership. The fusion of the curriculum leadership literature with systems theory and change processes will be useful to both theory and practice. This research sought to establish the experiences of primary school leaders and teachers when implementing the competence-based curriculum and to provide suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform in Zimbabwe.

The study was guided by philosophical assumptions of ontology and epistemology. It employed the qualitative research design, which is informed by the idealist interpretivism paradigm. The study also employed the case study methodology (approach) as we need to capture the complex reality being studied. Participating schools were sampled from Mbare/Hatfield District, which is in Harare Metropolitan Province. Purposive sampling was used to sample participants who comprised school leaders and teachers from five primary schools. Semi-structured interviews were used to generate data from school leaders and teachers. The thematic data analysis method was employed to analyse the data and it involved identifying codes, which were organised into categories and themes.

The study found that the CBC was not being implemented well because of various challenges that hindered its effective implementation. These challenges included negative attitude towards the CBC, leading to resistance by teachers, lack of adequate material resources, lack of specialist teachers trained to teach the new learning areas and lack of motivation for teachers in terms of their salaries. It was also found that parents supported the education of their children by providing both financial and material resources, although they complained that the CBC was a difficult curriculum judging from the vocabulary used in the homework given to learners. In spite of the existence of challenges facing the CBC implementation, both school leaders and teachers acknowledged that the CBC was a worthwhile curriculum reform designed to equip learners with skills and competences, which they can use to sustain their livelihoods.

Findings also indicated that the system influenced interactions between systems levels as well as leadership roles and styles practised by school leaders. Although principals were found to practise both autocratic and democratic leadership styles, indications were that they did so within the confines of the bureaucratic and hierarchical structure to which they belonged because of their formal position. It was also found that MoPSE need to improve its monitoring of the CBC implementation and give feedback to implementers.

The research concluded that policy makers should consider reviewing their one-directional communication networks to accommodate feedback channels like schools to give feedback across fluid boundaries within the units such as districts and provinces. It was recommended that there is need for harmonisation of teacher-education curriculum and the CBC, which has been introduced in schools. This would bridge the

human resources gap of lack of trained teachers in the CBC new learning areas. With respect to further research, it is recommended that this research be replicated in rural schools where the schools' situated contexts are totally different from those of urban schools.

Keywords: competence-based curriculum; school leaders; curriculum leadership; curriculum implementation; curriculum reform; systems theory; leadership

DEDICATION

I dedicate this work to my wife, Mercy, my children and my grandchildren.

LIST OF ACRONYMS AND ABBREVIATIONS

BEAM	Basic Education Assistance Module
CBC	Competence-based curriculum
CIET	Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training
EWP	Education with Production
TIC	Teacher in charge
MoPSE	Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
CDTS	Curriculum Development and Technical Services
SDC	School Development Committee
CDU	Curriculum Development Unit
ZIMSEC	Zimbabwe Schools Examination Council
CFPSE	Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education
ECD	Early Childhood Development
CBE	Competence-based education
CBA	Competence-based assessment
OBE	Outcome-based education
PISA	Programme for International Student Assessment
CBET	Competence-Based Education and Training
ZIM-ASSET	Zimbabwe Agenda for Socio-economic Transformation
KICD	Kenyan Institute of Curriculum Development
CIEPS	French International Centre for Pedagogical Studies
FDA	French Development Agency
ADB	African Development Bank
UNICEF	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
ZANU (PF)	Zimbabwe African National Union (Patriotic Front)
SES	socio-economic status
OECD	Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development
PESMD	Physical Education Sport and Mass Displays
VPA	Visual and Performing Arts
ICT	Information Communication Technology
PED	Provincial Education Director
DSI	District Schools Inspector
SI	Schools Inspector
ZOU	Zimbabwe Open University
NAPH	National Association of Primary Heads

NASH	National Association of Secondary Heads
ZIMTA	Zimbabwe Teachers' Association
PTUZ	Progressive Teachers' Union of Zimbabwe
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
TERC	Teacher Education Review Committee
TQM	Total Quality Management
CALA	Continuous Assessment Learner Activities
SADC	Southern Africa Development Community
PSMAS	Premier Services Medical Aid Society
CT	Contingency Theory
DoE	Department of Education
FAREME	Family Religion and Moral Education
AGM	Annual General Meeting
MoHTE	Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education

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CHAPTER 1 ORIENTATION TO THE STUDY

1.1 Introduction

The study sought to explore Zimbabwean primary school leaders' and teachers' experiences of the implementation of the competence-based curriculum in selected primary schools in Harare Metropolitan Province, Zimbabwe. Chapter 1 presents the orientation of the study and it commences by presenting concept clarification of key terms used in the study, which is followed by a presentation of the background to this study. The chapter further presents the statement of the problem, research questions and aims. It also looks at the research design and methodology employed in this study. To be presented under this research design and methodology heading are the research paradigm, methodology, sample and research environment, data generation methods, data analysis, trustworthiness and validity as well as ethical considerations. The outline of chapters is also presented and lastly, a summary of the chapter is provided.

1.2 Concept clarification

1.2.1 Competence-Based Curriculum (CBC)

Competence-Based Curriculum (CBC) is an offspring of outcome-based education (Ogegbo, Akinrinola, Adewusi & Emmanuel, 2020) whose main feature is competency. The distinct meaning of competency is understood in the contexts of a learning unit, distinct knowledge or an aptitude (ability) to perform a task (Mkonongwa, 2017). The competence-based curriculum is a curriculum designed to develop specific competences or abilities in learners by the end of each learning cycle (Section 2.2). The updated, revised curriculum, which became operational in Zimbabwe in 2017, is underpinned by competences and skills. This curriculum resulted from the 1999 Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (CIET), popularly referred to as the Nziramasanga Commission (CIET, 1999) (Section 2.3.1). The CBC differs from, for example, the curriculum that existed during Zimbabwe's colonial period wherein learners were expected to have proficient English communication skills to serve the colonial powers upon being given instructions and wherein some subjects offered did little to give external efficiency to school leavers (Vengesayi, 1995b). The CBC can be considered the major curriculum change to have been made in Zimbabwe after independence because the other curriculum changes were mainly in subjects being offered. By way of example, in primary school, subjects like Nature Study and Scripture were changed to Environmental and Agricultural Science and Religious and Moral Education, respectively (Vengesayi, 1995b). Education with Production (EWP) is an example of a subject that was introduced after independence with a view to linking theory with practice (Van Rensburg, 1984). As a development concept, EWP did not seem to have been accepted by beneficiaries- parents and society at large (Vengesayi, 1995); hence, it was removed from the curriculum a few years after its introduction. The CBC is unlike these minor changes because it has been an overall change of the curriculum as was

recommended by the 1999 CIET. It needs to be pointed out that more detailed aspects around CBC, such as its different characteristics that constitute its meaning (2.2) as well as the history of curriculum reform in Zimbabwe and its rationale for this most recent reform to framing the curriculum as competency based (2.3), will be discussed in the referenced sections.

1.2.2 **Leadership**

According to Nagaraju (2016:3), leadership means “the ability of an individual to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute toward the effectiveness and success of the organisations of which they are members”. The view of leadership being associated with influencing others is shared by Christie and Lingard (2001:3) when they aver that “different definitions of leadership abound and one central feature that scholars agree upon is that leadership involves the exercise of influence over others”. That leadership is linked with change (Bush, 2007) makes this concept ~~so~~ central to this study because the focus is on how school leadership experiences a curriculum change. In support of the link between leadership with change, Nagaraju (2015) also refers to educational leadership as initiatives by the leader to create enabling conditions for the development of individual insights and the formation of groups that permit mutual support for implementing innovation in teaching and learning.

1.2.3 School leaders

They are mainly principals/ school heads in the Zimbabwean school context (Bush, 2007). In Zimbabwe the official name of school leaders in secondary schools is principal. However, in primary schools, they are called heads. This is as a result of recent changes in the education system in stereotypical titles in schools such as `headmaster` to just `head` (Mawere, Chaurayi, Matsa, Matope, Mugodziwa, Maruzani, & Mukoni, 2011). In the past, the leader of a school has been referred to as a headmaster, as evidenced by labels still being found on office doors at some schools. In this thesis, the term principal will be used. School leaders in this study will refer not only to principals but also to deputy principals and Teachers-in-Charge (TICs) because they all hold leadership positions in the schools. In terms of hierarchy and decision-making authority, the principal is, however, at the top of the hierarchy, followed by the deputy principal, then the TIC (see Figure 2.7 on the ladder of authority at school level).

1.2.4 Curriculum reform

Curriculum reform refers to a review of what learners should learn and what should be taught through the education system (OECD, 2018). In Zimbabwe, curriculum reform is led by government officials of the MoPSE Curriculum Development and Technical Services (CDTS). This study “focuses on curriculum reforms that specifically involve change in the objectives of learning, namely which competencies, knowledge, values and attitudes should learners acquire” (Amadio *et al*. as cited in OECD, 2018:8). Efforts aimed at reviewing or updating the `content` knowledge as well as the selection and organisation of

this content knowledge, and associated issues concerning student learning, are also viewed as curriculum reform (OECD, 2018). *The Curriculum Framework for Zimbabwe Primary and Secondary Education 2015-2022* gives four reasons for Zimbabwe's curriculum review as necessitated by:

- "the growing urgency amongst policy makers and educators to adequately prepare Zimbabwean learners for the 21st century
- increased public and parental concerns regarding the relevance of the curriculum
- necessity to respond to the needs of industry and commerce
- trends in global education standards" (MoPSE, 2015:8).

This section presented definitions of key concepts in an attempt to assist the reader to construe the meaning of these concepts within the framing of this research topic/study.

1.3 Background to the problem

The CBC, now in its implementation phase, has been renamed twice since its inception in 2015. Initially, it was termed the new curriculum then, during the implementation phase in 2017, it became known as the updated/ revised curriculum. Of late, since 2019, it is called the competence-based curriculum because it was realised that the curriculum emphasises the attainment of competences- knowledge, skills and attitudes (Curriculum Implementation Training Manual, 2019). The Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE) has done a lot in ensuring effective implementation of the CBC. This includes availing critical documents such as *The Curriculum Framework for Zimbabwe Primary and Secondary Education (CFPSE) 2015-2022*, a framework of what government expects from teachers as they go about their duties. Other critical documents that have been made available by the ministry are the national syllabuses for both primary and secondary school learning areas, derived from the aforementioned curriculum framework (MoPSE, 2015).

In terms of training and development of staff members*, The Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education 2015-2022* merely refers to the need for measures to orient and induct teachers and district and provincial inspectors to the curriculum framework. This orientation and induction is considered an important area in "teachers' professional development or in-service training" (MoPSE, 2015:59). The CFPSE 2015-2022 further refers to stakeholder participation of education partners, such as school development committees (SDCs) in the mobilisation of adequate resources like textbooks and infrastructure that may be needed according to the ministry's plans of the curriculum implementation (MoPSE, 2015). The situation on the ground is that in-service training of teachers in the CBC is yet to be

done and SDCs are indeed assisting in the provision of some of the resources depending on the widely-shared contexts of individual schools.

The CBC was a result of the disgruntlement of policy makers, parents and employers in industry about the relevance of the education learners were getting. This perception is supported by CIET (1999), who state that leaders of industry and commerce complained that schools, colleges and universities did not cater for aspirations of self-reliance, entrepreneurship and executive tasks, while parents criticised the curriculum for its inability to equip pupils with practical and entrepreneurial skills to enable them to do self-help projects. Parents and community also argued that there was very little provision in the curriculum for values education and that the current system produces graduates with no values (CIET, 1999: 242-243).

In the same CIET report, it is stated that curriculum development was undertaken by a specially constituted Curriculum Development Unit (CDU), which developed curricula through research and consultation with numerous stakeholders such as teachers, school heads, education officers, government institutions, professional and religious organisations, commerce and industry, and ZIMSEC (CIET, 1999). The researcher observed that there has just been a change in name from CDU to the existing Curriculum Development and Technical Services (CDTS), but the procedures of planning, designing, developing the curriculum and monitoring its implementation are the same. Equally similar are the parties involved in the designing and development of the old curriculum and the CBC as reflected in the acknowledgements section of the CFPSE, 2015-2022 (p. viii). The aforementioned parties involved in the designing and development of the CBC drew up the intended curriculum on behalf of MoPSE, making the new CBC a legal education reform. School leaders and teachers are, therefore, expected to implement the intended curriculum as it is something that is legitimate in the eyes of policy makers. How the intended curriculum translates to implemented curriculum will be discussed in detail in Chapter 2.

Following recommendations by CIET in 1999, the then nation's president, Mugabe, issued a statement at Zimbabwe's 8th Session of Parliament on 17 September 2013, which reads:

> ....there is need to transform the structure and curriculum of the country's education system in order to adequately meet the evolving development aspirations. This should see greater focus being placed on the teaching and learning of science, technology, engineering and mathematics ... (MoPSE, 2015:17).

Based on this statement, was the development of a new CBC and this research focuses on its implementation.

Primary school leaders in Zimbabwe are principals, their deputies and infancy department teachers-in-charge (TICs) who do not have any special training for their leadership roles upon appointment. This being the case, it is expected that these post bearers have leadership skills such as those enshrined in the

leadership theories for effective curriculum implementation. Although this study seeks to explore leadership roles of principals in the implementation of a CBC, it should be comprehended that the interplay and interconnectivity between the leaders' and the teachers' experience of the implementation of the CBC is also an important phenomenon worth to be highlighted because the leaders and the teachers operate at different levels in the educational context. It is worth noting that in the process, management functions also co-exist with leadership roles.

Management functions and leadership roles co-exist in the sense that both are goal oriented. Management ensures goal accomplishment through directing and controlling the actions of people or entities while leadership influences the behaviour of people through motivating them to accomplish set goals (Nagaraju, 2016). In corroboration with Nagaraju and Potter (1990) argues that management and leadership complement each other since employees need inspiration and motivation from leadership as well as structure, rules and processes of management for the attainment of organisational set goals.

Research studies linked to the CBC have, so far, been carried out locally since 2013. One such study was on teachers' attitudes towards the teaching of technical learning areas (Mapolisa & Tshabalala, 2013). The study came after CIET had recommended that all learners at secondary level needed to choose one vocational learning area to do. The findings of this study indicated that teachers supported the idea of secondary school learners having at least one practical subject that they should do although the teachers were aware that there was no equipment for learners to use during the practical of the selected subject . That being the case, findings also revealed that equipping students with vocational skills would help school leavers to use those skills for self-sustenance should they not get formal employment (Mapoilsa & Tshabalala, 2013). These findings strengthen the argument of parents, leaders of industry and commerce that the new CBC should . equip learners with practical, self-reliance and entrepreneurship skills (CIET, 1999). The findings are also relevant to this study as they refer to skills development, which is also the focus of this research.

Another study was carried out during the dissemination stage by Esau and Mpofu (2017). The research was a case study of how primary schools in Bulawayo province were ready to start implementing the competence-based curriculum at Grade 3 level. The case study findings revealed low content knowledge of the new learning areas of the CBC and inadequate textbooks and appropriate infrastructure which was in line with the new learning areas(Esau & Mpofu, 2017). These findings are significant to this study in that they give an insight of teachers' perceptions of the dissemination stage of the CBC. These findings are an ideal basis for comparison with this research's findings that will be obtained from school leaders. While Esau and Mpofu's (2017) study came at the dissemination stage of the CBC, this study is carried out at the implementation stage as the first study to seek experiences of school leaders.

The international literature on CBC implementation in terms of research participants appears to resemble the Zimbabwean literature. The general trend is that researchers tend to focus more on teachers than other members of the education fraternity like learners, principals, district officials and many more. For instance, Zimbabwian teachers' perceptions were sought on the preparedness of schools to implement the new CBC (Esau & Mpofu, 2017) and in Africa, a study explored teachers' knowledge and integration of CBC practices in three African countries, namely Nigeria, Rwanda and South Africa (Ogegbo *et al*., 2020). Several studies seeking teachers' perceptions on the general adoption of CBC in different African countries have been carried out (Cheptoo & Ramadas, 2019; Kabombwe & Mulenga, 2019). Since most studies reviewed have tended to focus on teacher perceptions of the new curriculum implementation, this study will add to the existing body of knowledge on curriculum implementation by going a step further to focus on the experiences of school leaders in the implementation of a competence-based curriculum.

1.4 Problem statement

According to Magadzire (2012:53), curriculum implementation is "the translation of plans into action". In other words, curriculum implementation is to operationalise plans and policy developed by curriculum developers. At some point, however, the curriculum may need to be changed or revised. In Zimbabwe, such a need to change the curriculum arose in 2015. Zimbabwe's CBC came into place against a background of wide-spread concerns from stakeholders in respect of the relevance of the curriculum that had been designed by the previous regime (CIET, 1999). The CBC became operational from January 2017 with ECD A, grades 1 and 3 classes at primary level and forms 1, 3 and 5 at secondary level (MoPSE, 2015).

Research studies carried out in Zimbabwe in relation to implementation of the CBC have come up with findings, some of which are that teachers had little or no knowledge of the content of the new learning areas, textbooks were not enough, the structural resources to facilitate teaching at Grade 3 were generally not enough and the staff development given to teachers was not adequate (Esau & Mpofu, 2017). The aforementioned challenges with new curriculum implementation focus mainly on teachers and not on school leadership. Curriculum reform worldwide brings challenges for school leadership practices, which are underpinned by the context in which they are carried out. These leadership challenges include management of resources, behaviour and attendance, establishing a learning community and partnerships as well as integrating basic knowledge and skills around the curriculum (Marishane, 2020). In support of the existence of challenges to school leadership whenever there is a curriculum reform, Simovska and Prosch (2015) opine that the new demands that school principals face within curriculum reform clash with the culture and norms that had characterised school leadership for decades prior to the reform. As an example, "the culture of valuing distributed leadership and high teacher autonomy and focus on wider educational aims and ideals linked to democracy" is a challenge for school principals(Simovska & Prosch, 2015:15). These issues will be dealt with in greater detail in the review of the related literature (chapters 2

and 3). In addition to the aforementioned leadership challenges resulting from a curriculum reform, is resentment of the reform by teachers and parents.

The following excerpt captures what made teachers in particular resent the reform over and above it bringing additional duties against a backdrop of their eroded salaries by inflation:

> The reform meant that teachers were not only expected to deliver the new curriculum and ensure that students had demonstrable competencies leading to exit profiles but also to assess students on these new competencies while the new assessment framework was delayed. All this was required of them using limited preparation through professional development training that focused more on the syllabus interpretation rather than delivery (Gory, Bhatia & Reddy, 2021: 153)

The dissatisfaction of parents with the reform is reflected in this excerpt of Gory *et al*.(2021:153):

> Additionally, a majority of the parents in semi-urban and rural areas could no longer afford their children's education as the annual school fees, purchase of new textbooks and associated workbooks to takes notes for the entire year for all learning areas exceeded their earnings, forcing them to take loans to sustain the education of their children. Parents who could not achieve this had to withdraw their children from school and were subsequently upset.

Considering that school leaders are the ones who are expected to lead and to some extent manage the CBC implementation, this research study deems it significant to explore how primary school leaders and teachers are experiencing the implementation of Zimbabwe's competence-based curriculum in their schools. The teachers' roles and responsibilities were also very critical in this study because they (teachers) are really curriculum leaders of learners in the classroom over and above being the actual implementers of the CBC. School leaders oversee teachers implement the see CBC so the experiences of both parties were equally significant in this study. There was also a need to undertake this research to propose policy suggestions that can be made for leadership during the implementation process of a curriculum reform.

1.5 Research questions

The study is guided by the following main research question and sub-questions:

1.5.1 Main research question

How are primary school leaders and teachers experiencing the implementation of Zimbabwe's CBC and what suggestions can be made for leadership during times of curriculum reform?

1.5.2 Sub-research questions

The following are sub-questions:

- What are the actual observations of school leaders and teachers of CBC implementation?
- What are the roles of leadership in the implementation of a CBC?
- What challenges are Zimbabwean primary school principals, deputy principals, TICs and teachers encountering with the implementation of the CBC?
- What suggestions can be made for leadership during the implementation process of a curriculum reform?

1.6 Aims

The following are the main research aim and sub-research aims:

1.6.1 Main research aim

To establish how primary school leaders and teachers are experiencing the implementation of Zimbabwe's CBC and to propose suggestions that can be made for leadership during times of curriculum reform.

1.6.2 Sub-research aims

The sub-research aims were to:

- establish the actual observations of school leaders and teachers of CBC implementation,
- establish the roles of leadership in the implementation of a CBC,
- identify challenges Zimbabwean primary school principals, deputy principals, TICs and teachers are encountering with the implementation of the CBC and
- propose suggestions for leadership during the implementation process of a curriculum reform.

1.7 Research design and methodology

A research design is a logical detailed plan (Yin, 2011). The research design reinforces a research study's validity through gathering data that really addresses the research topic (Yin, 2011). This study employed the qualitative research design, which is defined as a "systematic collection, organisation and interpretation of textual material derived from talk or conversation" (Grossoehme, 2014:109). Stake (2010) states that if researchers choose to gather experiential data, they call their research qualitative. The

qualitative research design was used because it is more subjective and it generates rich descriptions of participants' meaning-making and understanding.

1.7.1 Research paradigm

Nieuwenhuis (2010:48) asserts that, "a paradigm serves as the lens or organising principles by which reality is interpreted". Mertens (2005:5) views a paradigm as "a way of looking at the world". This research was informed by the idealist interpretivism paradigm. Idealism assumes that reality is a mental construct, which cannot exist independent of perceptions, feelings, motives, values or experiences of it (Schnelker, 2006). As this study focus is on the experiences of primary school leaders on the implementation of a competence-based curriculum, it follows that the researcher is studying idealist realities. Schnelker (2006) argues that studying idealistic realities requires interpretive methodological assumptions; hence, it is referred to as idealist interpretivism. The idealist interpretivist research paradigm is a popular frame of reference, which places emphasis on both experience and interpretation. In this worldview "individuals seek to understand the world in which they live and work and the goal of research is to rely as much as possible on the participants' views of the situation" (Creswell, 2007:20). For this study, the researcher relied on the school principals' views of how they experienced CBC implementation.

1.7.2 Methodology

If methodology is taken to mean a structure that is referred to when one is conducting research, Walter (2006:35) argues that the methodology is influenced by "paradigm in which our theoretical perspective is placed or developed". Based on this assertion, it follows that there is a link between methodology and paradigm. However method refers to tools, techniques, or procedures used to generate data (.Mackenzie &Knipe, 2006 ; Jackson et al., 2007). The researcher employed the multiple case study methodology. A multiple case study is one that allows the researcher to analyse within each setting and across settings (Baxter & Jack, 2008). A multiple case study is a qualitative research approach for generating data from several sites of sources (Bukaliya, 2019). In this study, I adopted the multiple case study methodology because the study involved more than one unit of analysis, namely five primary schools formed the research environments.

1.7.3 Sample and research environment

Selected principals of primary schools and their assistants (deputy principals, TICs) and teachers formed the sample of this research study. Purposive sampling was used to select five principals, five deputy principals, five TICs and five teachers as participants because it is a technique "typically used in qualitative research to identify and select individuals or groups of individuals that are proficient and well-informed with the phenomenon of interest" (Etikan, Musa & Alkassim, 2016:3). These participants were best suited for this study because they are the ones actually experiencing and implementing CBC at the micro (school)

level. Convenience sampling was also used to select five schools situated in the urban setting of Harare Metropolitan Province as they met the easy accessibility and geographical proximity criteria (Etikan *et al*., 2016).

1.7.4 Data generation method

In this study, data were generated through interviews. As there are various types of interviews, the one that was specific to this study was the semi-structured interview . Semi-structured interviews aim to ensure flexibility in how and in what sequence questions are asked and whether and how particular areas might be followed up and developed with different interviews (Brooks& Normore, 2015). The researcher had two sets of interview schedules, one for school leaders and the other for school teachers. School leaders were thus asked the same questions from the interview schedule specific to school leaders. Teachers, by virtue of them not being school leaders, had their own interview schedule with almost similar questions to those that were asked of school leaders because, as highlighted above in Section 1.7.3, teachers' views were necessary to confirm or disconfirm information gathered from leaders as a way of ensuring validity through discrepant evidence and negative cases (Maxwell, 2009).

1.7.5 Data analysis

Data analysis means to systematically examine the generated data.to identify existing patterns. relationships (Neuman, 2014). Lune and Berg (2017) argue that how one interprets interview and observational data, which has been transcribed into text, for example, depends in part on the theoretical orientation taken by the researcher. This research adopted the more general interpretive orientation that aims to "organise or reduce data in order to uncover patterns of human activity, action and meaning" (Lune & Berg, 2017:183). This case study's data were thematically analysed, "proceeding through a systematic series of analysis, including coding and categorising until theory emerges that explains the phenomena being studied" Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2007:461) in support of Lune and Berg's argument in this section.

1.8 Trustworthiness and validity

Trustworthiness can be ensured through the following criteria: credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability. Anney (2015:276) defines credibility as "the confidence that can be placed in the truth of the research findings". On the other hand, transferability, the interpretive equivalent of generalisability, is defined by Bitsch (2005:85) as "the degree to which the results of the qualitative research can be transferred to other contexts with other respondents". Dependability, as a measure of trustworthiness, refers to "the stability of findings over time" (Bitsch, 2005:86). Elo, Kääriäinen, Kanste, Utriainen and Kyngäs (2014) concur with Bitsch (2005), but add "under different conditions". This implies that for findings to be deemed dependable, hence trustworthy, they should remain stable even if the research is carried out

under different settings. Anney (2015) argues that results of a research are only confirmable if they are corroborated by other researchers. . Audit trails and reflexive journals help achieve confirmability of qualitative inquiry. The researcher ensured credibility and confirmability of the findings by gathering data through interviews with school leaders and teachers.

For a study to be deemed valid, its data collection and interpretation procedures should be credible which should be further reflected in the conclusions of the study that bring out the real world that was studied (Yin, 2011). In other words Yin (2011) implies that readers feel convinced by the results of a study basing on the description of how data were collected and interpreted and the conclusions made thereof. Validity can be ensured by, for example, being in the field for a considerable length of time, gathering "rich" data, having participants to validate their responses and gathering data from different sources (triangulation) (Maxwell, 2009). In this study, validity was ensured through "rich" data, triangulation and search for discrepant evidence and negative cases.

1.9 Ethical considerations

Ethical issues in research are so pertinent because social scientists, by nature of their research practices, get into the lives of other people in search of answers addressing their research questions. Ethical research practices are influenced by the 1979 Belmont Report and further enforced by the 2010 The Singapore Statement on Research Integrity. Ethical clearance to conduct the research was first obtained from NWU's Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education (Ethics number:NWU - 01205-20-A2 ; see Appendix A). To undertake research in Zimbabwe, permission was obtained first from the Ministry (see Appendix B)and school principals (see Appendix C).

The other major consideration is to obtain informed consent from participants to take part in the research voluntarily. This is very important because there should not be coercion of participants. The researcher ensured that every participant signed the informed consent form before interviews were undertaken, which is a sign that they had taken part in the research voluntarily. The researcher also ensured anonymity, confidentiality and privacy by giving pseudonyms to participants. In the study, participating schools were named using letters of the alphabet. Interviews were conducted in privacy and the researcher did not divulge names of participants to anyone.

1.10 Outline of chapters

The thesis is divided into seven chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the research by giving the orientation to the study. Chapters 2 and 3 are on the literature review of the study. Chapter 2 focuses on the contextualisation of the study wherein the theoretical framework of systems theory in terms of its origin as well as an example of this theory as propagated by Bronfenbrenner (1979), is discussed. In Chapter Two Bronfenbrenner's views are discussed which have bearing on the essence of Chapter Two and the

systems theory in Chapter Three has bearing on organisations with reference to managerial issues, educational inputs and outputs that relate to leadership implementation of the CBC, which is the focus of this study. Chapter 4 presents the research design and methodology in which the qualitative approach, embedded in the idealist interpretivist paradigm, is discussed as well as case study as methodology. Chapter 5 of the thesis presents the results of the research. Chapter 6 provides the data interpretation and analysis and Chapter 7 provides the summary, conclusions and recommendations.

1.11 Summary

Chapter 1 orientates the study and clarifies key concepts. The chapter proceeds to provide a background to the problem and then state the research problem as well as state the research questions and aims of the study. The research design is presented followed by the outline of chapters. The next chapter explores meanings, development and implementation of CBC, which, in other words, is the research context.

CHAPTER 2 COMPETENCE-BASED CURRICULUM: MEANINGS, DEVELOPMENT AND IMPLEMENTATION

2.1 Introduction

A shift from content-based curriculum to competence-based curriculum is not a new phenomenon in the history of curriculum innovation. This is so because there is literature available that relates to implications to teaching and learning practice as well as literature on curriculum leadership practice (Mulenga & Kabombwe, 2019). Considering that Zimbabwe adopted competence-based education, which motivated this research on the experiences of primary school leaders and teachers on the implementation of the CBC , this chapter provides the meanings, development and implementation of the competence-based curriculum. The chapter starts by discussing the concept of competence-based curriculum (see Section 2.2) and what characterises it. This is done by making connections between the literature on CBC and what is in the Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education (CFPSE) 2015-2022 from which the competence-based curriculum is derived. The chapter provides the universal historical context of competence-based curriculum which is then narrowed down to Zimbabwe's context. In addressing the historical context, studies on CBC conducted in America, Europe and Africa are analysed. The chapter further provides a framework for curriculum implementation (adapted from Rogan and Aldous, 2005). The researcher deliberately chose this framework to acquaint it with principals in Zimbabwe in particular on the one hand and in Africa in general on the other hand. This is hoped will illustrate how curriculum is implemented in developing countries (Sabola, 2017). The chapter pursues Bronfenbrenner's ecological

systems theory of curriculum implementation because of its close link with Rogan and Aldous' curriculum framework and the different levels of curriculum implementation in the education sector. The other theory used in this chapter to explain curriculum implementation is the input and output theory, also known as the Systems theory. The ecological systems theory equips school leaders with knowledge of influences on curriculum implementation at the micro and macro levels, enabling them to understand how to enhance curriculum implementation. The two theories speak to each other in explaining curriculum implementation in the sense that both refer to systems like schools with hierarchical levels. Issues of hierarchy, power and decision-making in the various levels of the ecological system layers are also addressed in this chapter as well as challenges or gaps created as a result of the coming in of the new curriculum. While Chapter 2 focuses on the meanings of curriculum and the theories linked to it, Chapter 3 is about leadership and CBC implementation.

2.2 Unpacking the meaning of a competence-based curriculum

A Competence-based curriculum (CBC) emphases what learners should be able to do after a learning process, instead of concentrating on the content that is designed for learners to learn (International Bureau of Education (cited by Samudera, 2017)). What learners can do after a learning process are behaviours that can be observed and measured Thinktwice (2007) and these behaviours are influenced by various factors such as learners' motivation, attitudes and values as well as their personality (Thinktwice, 2007; Weddel, 2006).

The CBC is derived from outcome-based education, originally known as "mastery learning" or "criterion-referenced learning" (Sturgis & Patrick, 2010). The main feature of competence-based education is competency whose distinct meaning is understood in the contexts of a learning unit, distinct knowledge or an aptitude (ability) to perform a task (Ibid). Mkonongwa (2016) supports by stating that the main emphasis of competence-based education is learners' demonstration of knowledge and ability to perform tasks The CBC and CBE are linked in that CBC emerged from CBE and also that both are functional or practical approaches to education.

Richard and Rodgers (2001) aver that the CBC emerged in the early 1970s when CBE was first introduced in the USA. CBE was first adopted in Europe in the 1980s in the English vocational sector and later taken up by European institutions, in a bid to entice the other European countries to adopt CBE policies in their systems of education (CEDEFOP, as cited by Lussnigg, 2015). Other countries that have taken up CBE policies are Australia, Hong Kong and Malaysia (Lussnigg, 2015). In Africa, South Africa adopted OBE policies in 2005 but later discarded them in 2010 (Muller, 2000; Allais, 2014; Cheptoo & Ramadas, 2019). A more detailed discussion about other similar developing countries and Western countries that adopted CBC will be given in Section 2.3.

2.2.1 Conceptualising competence, competency and competencies

Having unpacked the meaning of the CBC and the link with CBE, it is important to conceptualise competence, competency and competencies as well as show how they link to other concepts such as knowledge, skills and values.

Competency, is “the proven ability to use knowledge, skills and personal, social, or methodological skills in work or study situations for professional and personal development” (European Qualification Framework, as cited by Cheptoo & Ramadas, 2019:47). In support of the above definition Mkonongwa (2016), views competency as based on application of acquired knowledge and skills to perform real work functions.

Competencies, according to Cheptoo & Ramadas (2019) are continuously changing combinations of knowledge, skills and abilities. This seemingly suggests that knowledge, skills and abilities are not static, but change with time. However, Mkonongwa (2016), views competencies as benchmarks to measure the afforementioned knowledge, skills and abilities at workplaces. Going by Mkonongwa’s assertion, there is a difference between competencies and competency in that competencies are criteria for measuring competency.

When one is able to perform a task successfully at a workplace, one is considered to have competence in doing that task (Kellie,2019; Cheptoo & Ramadas, 2019). While the authors associate competence with ability to do some task, just as how competency has been defined above, Mkonongwa (2016:2) defines competence as “a measure of both proven skills and proven knowledge”. The author further states that competence can be viewed in terms of behavioural competence or soft skills, that is, how something is done and functional competences or the ability to form some technical task like operating machinery or making a dress (Ibid).From the definitions of competency, competence and competencies, it can be deduced that “competence” and “competency” mean the same, as both concepts refer to one’s ability to use knowledge and skills to perform a particular task as is expected in a particular setting, although competency is more aligned to work situations. As an example, in a school setting, primary school learners can be given a mathematics task to calculate the perimeter of a new school garden so as to establish the cost of the fence that will be used on the garden. Competences to be developed in learners would be research, critical thinking, problem solving, communication (as they interact amongst themselves) and measuring. Taken as a benchmark for measuring competency or competence attainment, competencies would be reflected by learners’ ability to, for example, utilise research skills to obtain mathematical measures, to apply mathematical techniques to record information, drawing a sketch on the measured space and indicating the actual measurements of the perimeter and to explain to others about the measure of length. The criteria for assessing learners’ abilities can be rated as “excellent, very good, satisfactory, unsatisfactory” with scores allocated to each category. From the above argument, it can be concluded that research skills, critical thinking skills, problem solving and communication skills, for example, are

competences that need to be developed while ability to use knowledge to apply these skills are competencies, in the researcher's view, based on the above definitions of the concepts. All the three concepts are, however, linked to knowledge and skills. The researcher adopts the use of "competence" in this thesis.

2.2.2 Characteristics of the competence-based curriculum (CBC)

The Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education 2015-2022, addresses three characteristics of CBC, although one will find more characteristics of CBC described in the literature. Zimbabwean curriculum developers have considered these as the most important characteristics: development of clearly defined competences or learning outcomes, teaching and learning methods and assessment and learning, which are addressed in detail in the next sections (2.2.2.1, 2.2.2.2 and 2.2.2.3). In addressing these characteristics, the international literature will be referred to since competence-based education is a global phenomenon.

2.2.2.1 Development of clearly defined competences

The curriculum framework indicates outcomes in the form of competences that should be demostrated by a learner. These learning outcomes specify what the learner should "know and be able to do" at the end of different levels (MoPSE, 2015:23) (Section 2.2). The period of the 1980s brought changes in the economy of countries that are developed such as USA, Australia and Canada and these changes resulted in the development of the idea of key competences (Brecka, 2017). Many countries "exert the efforts to introduce, characterise and define the key competences in relation to work as well as lifelong learning" (Brecka, 2017:16), which justifies that adopting CBE was not only a practical decision by the concerned countries, including Zimbabwe.

According to Brecka (2017), the focus of 21st century educational programmes is rather on the development of key competences than on the subject matter (content) of the learning areas. There is international general consensus by employers that, for example, leadership, teamwork, creative thinking, problem-solving and goal setting are important 21st century competences that learners should be able to demonstrate (Turek, 2008; Global Digital Citizen Foundation, 2012; MoPSE, 2015). Preparing Zimbabwean learners for the needs of the 21st century was one of the contexts in which the CBC was developed

It can be argued that consideration of the aforementioned competences as the most essential in the 21st century is a manifestation of the influence of globalisation, which has turned around the focus of international education by introducing new teaching methods and evaluative practices (Munoz & Araya, 2017). This view of the strong influence globalisation has on the whole education system seems to be the motivation for the adoption of CBC, not only in Zimbabwe, but also in other developed and developing

countries worldwide (Section 2.3.3). What this, therefore, implies is that CBC is something that is driven from the outside layers of the ecological systems model (macrosystem) (Figure 2.3) to the inner layers such as the microsystem where the implemented curriculum takes place through interactions among learners, teachers and teaching/learning resources. As discussed in Section 2.3.3.1, new demands from the education system as a result of globalisation have challenges for principals in especially developing countries whose economic status are rife with social inequity and digital divides (Adhikari, Mathrani & Scogings , 2016).

The notion of innovating and reformulating pedagogical and evaluative practices, referred to above, initiates discussion on the theory underpinning CBE from which teachers learn how to develop key competences in learners. The underlying theory of CBE that guides educational practices is constructivism whose underlying principles are that learners are able to create their own knowledge and teachers come in as facilitators in the creation of this knowledge through guiding the learners (Karameta, 2012; Jonnaert, 2006). By implication, this means that knowledge is constructed .by a person, through action, experiences and projects undertaken to recognise that one has acquired some knowledge (Karameta, 2012). Teachers should, therefore, develop competences in learners by making them take an active role and participate in practical application of skills so that they demonstrate acquisition of knowledge.

2.2.2.2 Teaching and learning methods

The curriculum framework stresses learner-centred approaches to teaching and learning. Mkonongwa (2016) argues that competence-based teaching and learning focuses on the learner as one of its key features. This notion of a learner-centred approach embedded in competence-based teaching and learning has its roots in constructivism(see Section 2.2.2.1) of development of clearly defined competences. The expanded theory of constructivism, pioneered by Jean Piaget, speaks to the development of objects by learners for people to use in their day to day lives, instead of learning merely being idealistic without something tangible coming out of it (Hendry *et al*., 1999). In this learning process, the teacher is a collaborative partner who uses the inquiry-based learning approach that characterises the learner-centred method (Ibid). According to MoPSE (2015) the Inquiry-based learning approach utilises methods of teaching and learning: discovery method, project-based learning and problem-based learning.

By way of embellishment of the methods, discovery learning entails discovering new knowledge through use of past experiences and also using existing information made available to learners (O'Sullivan &Bruce, 2014). This makes learners become active participants in the learning process and also develops a culture of being responsible for their own learning (Ibid).

As a way of matching teaching strategies to the domain of learning, the teacher could promote discovery or problem-based learning cognitively by developing "case studies from actual practice to determine the

most appropriate evidence-based approach to competency" (O'Sullivan & Bruce, 2014: 3). In addition, the teacher could support learner-led discussions, structure debates to address practical situations to match the cognitive domain. Teaching strategies matched to the psychomotor domain would require the teacher to first demonstrate the skill , permit learners to practise that for some time before making them perform the skill for assessment (O'Sullivan & Bruce, 2014). It should be noted that the above suggested teaching strategies, according to domain, are not exhaustive as teachers can employ other strategies. Project-based learning requires time for learners to investigate because it calls for in-depth inquiry (MoPSE,2015). Project-based learning facilitates the development of such competences as problem-solving, critical thinking, collaboration, communication and creativity. Learners usually do project-based learning as a group, which Mandeville, Ho and Valdez (2017) refer to as "peer collaboration" that must be optimised in the classroom for effective learning experience. At the end of it all, learners present their work to other people, beyond their teacher and classmates. This element of project-based learning challenges learners to prove personal learning because the ability to present their work effectively shows that the acquired information, knowledge and skills have become an integral part of their personal body of knowledge and competences (O'Sullivan & Bruce, 2014).

The problem-solving method, or problem-based learning, enables learners to conduct research and to apply knowledge and skills to develop a viable solution to a defined problem (Savery, 2015). The method employs the strategy of starting with an ill-defined problem Savery (2015), which requires learners to think critically so as to provide a reasoned argument to support the solution that they generate (Hmelo Silver & Barrow, 2006). Problem-based learning is justified to have a place among teaching and learning methods because this is how human beings have been learning in the past, although this is changing with the introduction of classroom learning (Chappell & Hager, 1995). However, it has been observed that the teacher-centred approach to teaching and learning was not yielding the desired results, as the products from schools lacked the required competences needed in real life and the field of work. Problem-based learning has two features, among others, which have resulted in Ho and Chan (2015) developing a model for PBL. The features relate to learners taking responsibility for their learning and integrating the learning process from a wide range of disciplines and involve information sharing and self and peer assessment (Brilingaite, Bukauskas & Juškevičienė, 2018).

In terms of general competences, PBL strengthens such skills as problem-solving, independent learning and teamwork, cooperation and collaboration (Prince *et al*., 2005). In addition to these competences, PBL also facilitates the development of key professional competencies such as critical thinking, communication skills, interpersonal relations and self-assessment (Chaves, Baker, Chaves & Fisher, 2006). However, student centred problem-based learning does not mean leaving the student alone (Brilingaite *et al*., 2018) on the pretext of independent learning and teamwork.

From the discussion of teaching and learning methods of CBE, it can be argued that there is no one method that can be said to be the best compared to the others. All three methods (discovery learning, problem-based learning and project-based learning) aim to develop the same knowledge and competences in the learners, for example, problem-solving, critical thinking, collaboration, communication and creativity. For this reason, these three methods fall under one umbrella term – inquiry-based learning.

2.2.2.3 Assessment and learning

The last characteristic of CBC is assessment and learning, as outlined in the CFPSE (2015-2022). The three characteristics of CBC are entwined to such an extent that competence-based assessment is linked to competence development (discussed in Section 2.2.2.1). In this section, the concept of assessment needs to be distinguished from evaluation as both are linked to CBC implementation. It must, however, be stressed that the distinction is merely in terms of the usage of the terms, which is often confused. The focus of this section is to discuss assessment as it is widely recognised as an on-going process aimed at understanding and improving student learning (Yambi, 2018). Evaluation will be discussed as it pertains to teachers evaluating the product, which will in turn help them innovate and regulate their pedagogical practices (Munoz & Araya, 2017) and as feedback to policy makers in the macrosystem level of the ecological systems model. Evaluation and assessment have been used differently in different countries and contexts (Sadler, 2012). To support the notion that the terms are sometimes considered synonymous but also in corroboration with Sadler's assertion, Yambi (2018) states that assessment and evaluation may be treated as synonymous or distinctly different concepts depending on the area of study, authority or reference consulted. Assessment and evaluation in the context of this study and going by Yambi's above assertion, mean distinctly differently things wherein assessment is concerned with measuring learner performance against the set standards as defined by the curriculum (MoPSE, 2015). Gonczi, Hager and Athanasou (1993) define competence-based assessment as the assessment of a person's competence against prescribed standards of performance. In corroboration, Alvarez and Villardon (2006) state that competence-based assessment is a set of activities for gathering information, which must then be analysed and interpreted in order to issue judgements (or to make decisions) on the actions carried out by the subject.

Evaluation is a much broader concept than assessment as it refers to measuring the value of educational activities, programmes and curricular (Gibbs, Brigden & Hellenberg, 2006). In this study evaluation of CBC implementation as a curriculum reform is needed from the participants to give an insight on whether or not the CBC is being implemented well.

There are several differences between assessment and evaluation, but chief among them are the eight depicted in Table 2.1.

Table 2. 1 Key differences between assessment and evaluation (adapted from Yambi, 2018)

ASSESSMENT	EVALUATION
• The process if collecting, reviewing & using data for purpose of improvement in the current performance.	• A process of passing judgement, on the basis of defined criteria & evidence.
• Assessment is diagnostic in nature as it tends to identify areas of improvement.	• Evaluation is judgemental because it aims at providing an overall grade.
• The assessment provides feedback on performance and ways to enhance performance in future.	• Evaluation ascertains whether the standards are met or not.
• The purpose of assessment is formative, that is, to increase quality.	• Evaluation is all about judging quality, therefore, the purpose is summative.
• Assessment is concerned with process.	• Evaluation focuses on product.
• In assessment, the feedback is based on observation and positive and negative points.	• In evaluation, feedback relies on the level of quality as per set standard.
• In assessment, the relationship between assessor and assessee is reflective, that is, the criteria are defined internally.	• The evaluator and evaluatee share prescriptive relationship, wherein the standards are imposed externally.
• The criteria for assessment are set by both parties jointly.	The criteria for evaluation are set by the evaluator.

From the table, it can be deduced that both assessment and evaluation can contribute to a considerable extent to effective teaching and learning practices in schools (Wong, 2020). Competence-based assessment (CBA) assists teachers in decision-making of, for example, the selection of learners to represent the school in various sporting disciplines or science exhibition competitions because they have all the information about each learner from observation and records (profiles and portfolios). Moreso, competence-based assessment plays a role in developing talented learners (Van der Merwe, 2002) whose potential is identified during the process of describing, collecting, recording, scoring and interpreting information about learning (Pennsylvania State University, 2017).

During CBA "students must have control of their own learning process, of their strengths and weakness, to self-regulate their errors, strengthen them and participate in the preparation of improvement plans" (Darling-Hammond, 2006). The evaluative procedures implemented by the teachers also allow reflecting on one's pedagogical practice with the purpose of getting a glimpse of the aspects that must be reformulated to strengthen the new requirements proposed by the competences (Munoz, 2017).

It needs to be highlighted that a link exists between competence development and competence assessment, which are both characteristics of competence-based-curriculum. Figure 2.1 shows that competence assessment and continuous development are on-going processess (Wong, 2020). The developed competency information must be organised and presented in an appropriate and clear manner to serve competency assessment purposes (Ibid).

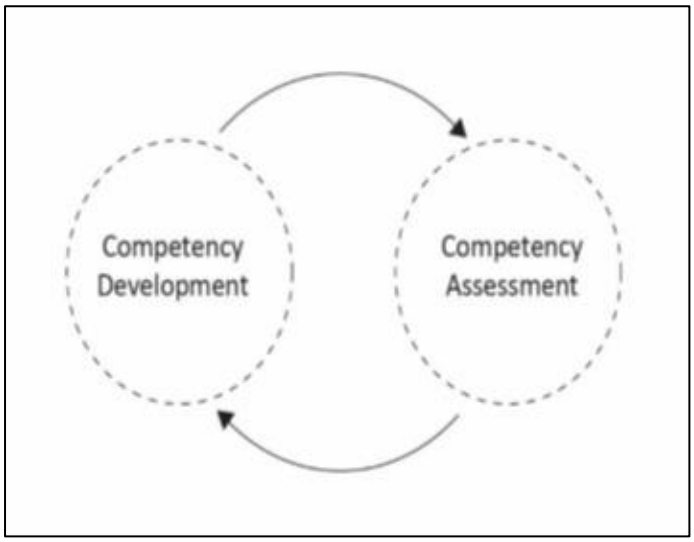

Figure 2.1 From competency development to competency assessment: a continuous loop.

(Adapted from Wong, 2020:15)

The concepts of assessment and evaluation are important in this study because the researcher intends to explore the experiences of school leaders and teachers on how assessment is being done and their evaluation of this process of competence-based assessment (CBA). There are, however, challenges that need to be considered with competence-based assessment. According to Kim (2015), one of the biggest challenges posed by CBC is the development of robust assessment to measure competency. This is so because there many questions asked about the integrity of the assessments such as how the reviewers know what scores indicate that a student has mastered a competency (Mc Clarty & Gaertner, 2015). In

trying to address this question, those developing assessments for a CBE program must be able to demonstrate that the assessment is measuring the required knowledge, skills and ability for that competency rather than some other irrelevant trait (Ibid). Validity studies must be performed to answer such questions as what scores actually mean in competence-based assessment. Mc Clarty and Gaertner (2015) argue that a proper validity study will provide the evidence required to demonstrate that a student has the knowledge and skills necessary for the competency.

Another challenge with competence-based assessment, according to Kim (2015), is that competences are dynamic and evolving. The researcher argues that while this challenge may be true for jobs and the workforce, it may not be so true for school settings because curricula take years to change and also that assessment in schools just focuses on basic knowledge and merely passing learners for the world of work.

2.3 Historical context of competence-based curriculum

The CBC is not a new phenomenon in the education circles, as mentioned earlier. The need to study the historical context of the CBC is a precursor to understand and evolve the present CBC practices to cater to the present scenario (Thakra, 2015). The discussion of the historical context of CBC commences with a critical engagement about the origins of competence-based curriculum in the West, then proceeds to show developing countries in Africa that borrowed the idea and how they applied and contextualised it.

There is a general consensus among researchers that modern CBE began with the United States of America's efforts to reform teacher education and training in the 1960s (Ford, 2014). As adoption of any teaching/learning approach, such as CBE, is a policy issue, it is imperative to briefly discuss policy adoption before addressing the origins of CBE in the West. A brief discussion will follow on how CBE expanded internationally and the possible reasons that motivated policy makers of the various Western countries that later adopted it. The adoption of CBE in countries like Germany in the 1970s and UK in 1981 reveals the link between policy adoption and the systems theory, which will be discussed below in detail. In the discussion of the ecological systems theory discussion, it will be shown how the international level of this concentric system influences curriculum adoption and implementation of various countries.

According to Anderson-Levitt (2017) ideas that influence policy makers to adopt policies from outside their countries' borders, travel through individuals or through social networks such as conferences, refereed journals, glossy reports or sophisticated websites. Another dimension to do with policy adoption relates to foreign aid whereby sometimes lenders take the initiative of policy adoption in countries they give development aid (Steiner-Khamsi, 2006). This is done either through force or through soft-power (see

section 2.9.5) (Steiner-Khamsi, 2006; Quist, 2000). This scenario is most prevalent in developing countries as shall be observed in the discussion below on lessons learnt about CBC from other countries.

Contrary to the notion that lenders can influence policy adoption, there is also the view that the users of a policy that originates from another country may take the initiative to import a policy as when USA school districts developed a passion for "lesson study" from Japan (Anderson-Levitt, 2017). There are several reactions by users of an adopted education policy such as that they fully appreciate the policy; master the policy making it theirs; "creolize" it to suit their needs; adopt it in name only or reject it outright (Ibid). South Africa, for instance, borrowed OBE (which underpinned its Curriculum 2005) in 1997 but abandoned it completely thirteen years later in 2010 (Chisholm, 2007).

Having discussed how policy ideas are adopted and adapted and the possible reasons that motivate adoption, the following discussion traces the origins of CBE in developed countries such as USA, France, UK, Australia and Germany. In Africa focus will be on countries that adopted CBC such as Kenya, Rwanda, Ghana, Tanzania and Ethiopia. The discussion will not be so much in chronological order of which country embraced CBE or CBC earlier than the other, but emphasis is on highlighting reasons in some cases that motivated the adoption of CBE or CBC policies in the respective countries.

Ford (2007) refers to generational development of the concept of "competences" on which educational approaches such as mastery learning, outcome-based education (OBE), competence-based education (CBE) and competence-based curriculum (CBC) found their roots. The first generation was the application of scientific management to work roles, whilst the second was the development of mastery learning models in the USA during the 1920s and 1930s (Ford, 2007). The third generation of competency-based approaches had mainly to do with vocational education and training. The teacher education movement in the USA represented the fourth generation, moving beyond vocational training to education (Ford, 2007). It is during this fourth generation in the 1960s that the term "competency" began to be used widely in association with this model of instruction and learning (Ford, 2007).

France's 1992 adoption of competences as an educational policy was not a result of international influence, but was a result of her internal political struggles and as a reaction to the high youth unemployment rate (Anderson-Levitt, 2017). Most African nations that adopted CBC, mainly as borrowers, did so to address high unemployment rates that persisted within these individual countries, just as France. However, France's 2005 reform was a result of international influence from two sources. The first influence was from other European countries as part of a wider movement by Britain, Portugal, Switzerland and Canada (Anderson-Levitt, 2017). This signifies that in the aforementioned European countries and Canada, CBE was being practised and France reacted to this wave and borrowed the policy.

The second source of influence to the 2005 reform were international assessments e.g. the Programme for International Student Assessment (PISA) and OECDs Definition and Selection of Competence (DeSeCo)

reports as well as Unesco reports (Gordon, Halasz, Krawczyk, Leney, Michel, Pepper & Wiśniewski, 2009). These reports are similar to glossy reports mentioned above.

In the UK "Competence-Based Education and Training (CBET) appeared to have first entered official thinking in the context of the problems posed by the development of the Youth Training Scheme, created in 1981 partly in response to escalating youth unemployment" (Bates, 2002:5). In Australia, the CBC was a result of the government directive, having observed weaknesses in the skills levels of the Australian workforce (Ibid). Similarly, CBE first appeared in the 1970s in Germany (Weigel *et al*., 2007).

Curriculum reform in general for all African countries has one commonality, that it was a move away from the inherited colonial education system, which was discriminatory. Curriculum reform specific to CBC is seemingly for almost the same reasons based on the literature on CBC. The reasons for the adoption of CBC, while similar for most developing countries, are not the usual dislike for colonial education. The adoption of CBC is a result of globalisation - a phenomenon, which has turned the world into a global village, making them apply almost the same education policies. Globalisation, if linked to the systems theory (see Chapter 3), is like input from the external environment of the macrosystem level (Section 2.6). According to the system theory, this is really from the outer layers to the inner layers and that is why it was not internally motivated; therefore, this may cause challenges and resistance to the implementation of curricula drawn from external policies adopted by these developing countries like Zimbabwe.

Some countries in Africa, such as Kenya, Rwanda, Ghana, Tanzania and Ethiopia adopted CBC on the factor that competent students have specific skills and knowledge required for effectively performing a real-life task (Cheptoo & Ramadas, 2019). In 1997, South Africa adopted and implemented a curriculum known as Curriculum2005 (C2005). Underpinning this curriculum was outcome-based education (OBE), which promoted skills and competences so that learners could cope with the challenging issues of the 21st century (Chisholm, 2007). The need to cope with the challenges of the 21st century is one of the contexts in which the Zimbabwean government developed the CBC. Tanzania, according to Justin (2013), introduced the CBC in 2005, in response to its blue print Tanzania Development Vision 2025 and the Education Development Sector Programme. Next to launch the CBC in Africa was Rwanda in 2015 and implementation commenced in 2016. Rwanda changed to CBC to attain education transformation to link school and the world of work (Cheptoo & Ramadas, 2019). Further still, in Rwanda, the CBC was aligned to national development goals (Mulenga & Kabombwe, 2019). This assertion is similar to the Zimbabwe situation in which the CBC is aligned to "the Zimbabwe Agenda for Socio-economic Transformation (ZIM-ASSET) and sections 27 and 75 of the Zimbabwe Constitution" (MoPSE, 2015:5). The researcher, however, notes a difference in approach to implementation of the CBC between Rwanda and Zimbabwe. The Rwandian government urged teachers to embrace the new curriculum with an open mind as it was projected that it would yield great results and benefits for both teachers and students (Mulenga & Kabombwe, 2019). In Zimbabwe, the then minister of Primary and Secondary Education and initiator of

this CBC, Lazarus Dokora, was quoted in a Newsday article issuing a “stark warning to non-performance and teachers with little appreciation of the new curriculum,” (Chidza, 2017:2). One government is urging its teachers; the other is threatening its teachers to embrace a similar new programme.

The Kenyan Institute of Curriculum Development (KICD) adopted a competence-based approach (CBA) based on findings of the needs assessment studies carried out in 2016 (Mulemba & Kabombwe, 2019). In Zimbabwe, this is similar to the findings obtained by the Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (CIET) or the Nziramasanga Commission (MoPSE, 2015). The Zambian education system adopted the CBC in 2013 (review period) and gradually implemented it until 2017. The Ministry of General Education (MoGE) (2013) asserts that the rationale for the change from content-based curriculum to CBC was to have a responsive curriculum to societal. Similarly Cameroon’s introduction of the CBC was created by the need to produce school leavers who could solve their social and economic challenges (Cheptoo & Ramadas, 2019).

The literature on CBC also reveals that this pedagogical idea has been adopted by several other countries in Africa including those former French colonies. In 2008-2009, for example, the French International Centre for Pedagogical Studies (CIEPS), initiated curriculum reform in Cameroon, Gabon, Mali, Senegal and Tunisia (Gauthier, 2013). The curriculum reform for these countries was the adoption of competence-based approach – a pedagogical proposal intended to promote progress in education (Ibid). It is not clear whether these former French colonies adopted this educational policy reform through voluntary borrowing of the idea or that it was lent to them through coercion or soft power. What appears apparent is that the idea of competence-based approach was introduced to these countries because, as Gauthier (2013:431) further states, the international financing by the French Development Agency (AFD) and the African Development Bank (ADB) that came with curriculum reform enabled some countries to start the corresponding reform process. Zimbabwe embarked on the CBC reform programme without external assistance, but sought assistance from stakeholders in the provision of resources.

2.3.1 Zimbabwe’s historical context of CBC

When independence was obtained in 1980, Zimbabwe inherited a largely content-based education curriculum, which was also sadly biased in favour of the minority whites in terms of financial and learning resources. This assertion is confirmed by the then president of Zimbabwe, Robert Mugabe, in the foreword of the CFPSE (2015: i):

> At independence in 1980, our nation inherited legacies of discrimination, pyramidal structure in education and unequal investment in the education sector which was carved along racial lines.

In 1998, the then president assigned a CIET to look into the structure and content of education. The recommendations of CIET culminated into the curriculum framework (2015), which ushered in the CBC in

2017. The CBC was also adopted in Zimbabwe in the context of government's focus on preparing Zimbabwean learners for the needs of the 21st century

Concerns amongst policy makers and key stakeholders refer to the voices raised by the ZANU (PF) party and government (policy makers) and "parents, professional associations, industry and commerce, education partners such as UNICEF" (MoPSE, 2015:47). The inclusion of UNICEF as education partners who also raised critical voices concerning the old curriculum, is a clear indication that it influenced adoption of the CBC since it funds a lot of development projects in the country, including provision of educational materials like textbooks. The argument above, referring to voices raised by policy makers and stakeholders leading to the development and adoption of the CBC in Zimbabwe, once again links with the systems theory to be discussed later (see 3.2). Parents and aforementioned stakeholders on one hand are the custodians of norms, values and beliefs that should be integrated into any country's curriculum. These people are part of the exosystem level of the ecological systems model; hence, their input in curriculum adoption is being realised in the above argument.

Policy makers and international organisations, on the other hand, constitute the macrosystem level of the ecological system model (see Figure 2.3 below). It is at this international level where policy adoption takes place and international organisations have a profound influence in policy adoption (Section 2.3 on lenders and borrowers of policy). This discussion shows that policy adoption is from the outer layers to the inner layers of the system; hence, it can result in challenges and resistance to implementation because the policy is not internally motivated.

The 2013, the ZANU PF Election Manifesto, from which most of the current country's policies emanate, reflects on skills development:

> The ZANU PF Government will address the challenge of technical capacity and human skills at various levels by initiating requisite training schemes and working closely with relevant national professional associations… (ZANU PF Election Manifesto, 2013:6).

The lack of competence-based skills, for example, is reason why in part there is unemployment rate of about 60% in the country, of which the majority are youths between 15 and 30 years of age (ZANU PF Election Manifesto 2013) and the abundance of vendors on the streets of towns and cities nationwide. If school leavers had competence-based skills for real life and the field of work, the unemployment rate and number of vendors would have been significantly less, not to be considered a threat to the stability and sovereignty of the country (ZANU PF Election Manifesto, 2013).

The researcher observed that there seem to be two common elements among all the countries that adopted the CBC, be it in Oceania, America, Europe and Africa, including Zimbabwe. First, there was some dissatisfaction with the existing curriculum at the time, which was viewed to be content-based.

Second, all the governments wanted to address the development needs of their countries. A critique of the effectiveness of CBE, which assessed the effectiveness of CBE as seen by policy-makers states that:

> The staggering conclusion of this exercise is that there is hardly any evidence for effectiveness of CBE despite the long period since the 1970s the approach came up in the US (Lussnigg, 2015:5)

Lussnigg (2015), however, recommends initiatives to prove or disprove the effectiveness of CBE.

2.3.2 Lessons learnt about the CBC from other countries

There are numerous lessons learnt from developing and western countries, which adopted CBC with respect to implementation and leadership. Starting in the late 1990s, no western country was able to show how this approach had improved its education policy and its students' attainment (Gauthier, 2013). To African governments, the idea of a competence-based approach looked enticing for reasons that when compared with an assessment of objectives-based school programmes, it (CBC) was seen to "resolve the problem of students being offered abstract and fragmented knowledge, from real life and to offer a better response to the diversity of students' contextual needs" (Gauthier, 2013: 431).

With regard to implementation, one lesson learnt is that the idea of a competence-based approach lacked the general clarity even at policy level (Cheptoo & Ramadas, 2019; Gauthier, 2013). Hanekom, Rowland and Bain (1987) share the same view when they state that inadequate or vague communication of policy directives provides implementers the opportunity to use their discretion as they attempt to turn general policy directives into specific programmes of action. For this reason, the CBC implementation in schools had some challenges because teachers and school leaders also lacked the general clarity of the CBC. This insinuation buttresses Anderson-Levitt's (2017) assertion that borrowers of an educational policy may master the policy without making it their own probably, as the above statement appears to suggest, because the borrowers do not fully appreciate the policy.

Other lessons were that general implementation followed before pilot studies were done, teacher training was often badly designed, education systems continued to use existing certification tests after introducing the CBC and budgetary allocation and management were inadequate (Gauthier, 2013).

From the above, it can be deduced that policy makers should give adequate time to pilot exercises on a curriculum reform before actual implementation. Hogwood and Gunn (1984) buttress this assertion when they state that often too much is expected too soon and often politicians (who are mainly the policy makers) are concerned with the end and not the means. In Zimbabwe, the few identified pilot schools implementing the CBC had less than a year to do so before schools were instructed to begin implementing the new curriculum. The view that political and administrative procedures for guidance do not always adapt to the national context is an advice to policy makers need to take into consideration. Where policy makers

choose to embark on a curriculum reform with external assistance of the project, they need to consider whether the reforms are adapted to their national contexts. This is what Anderson-Levitt (2017) referred to as “creolizing” a policy to blend with local practices. Cheptoo and Ramadas (2019) weigh in by arguing that it does not make sense that an educational approach with Nordic origins, such as competences, which is based on the changing context of work in countries of the North, is being applied without good reason in countries in the South, which do not share the same economic history. Policy makers need to bring this to the attention of curriculum reform financiers so that they do not just adopt reforms that are not suited to their national contexts in the name of being assisted.

The above example of countries in the South applying reforms not suited to their contexts without good reason is manifestation of challenges caused by external assistance to reforms in developing countries. The need for aid has forced the poorer countries to submit to the dictates of the richer countries, according to Kabonga (2017). The theory of dependency/assistance speaks to donor aid and has Singer and Prebisch as the progenitors who argue that resources are extracted from the poorer countries to enrich the rich countries under the cover of donor aid (Kabonga, 2017). Foreign aid is defined as a mutual transfer of resources from one country to another with the aim of benefitting the country receiving the aid (Easterly, 2006).

While Todaro (2003) views aid as a financial donation from developed countries to less developed countries for which the donor is least expected to accrue commercial benefits, Kabonga (2017) sees it differently. Kabonga (2017:31) argues that “it is not an exaggeration that donor money that is being extended to Third World (developing) countries, has created more employment, demand for goods and services in richer countries than in poorer countries, thus perpetuating underdevelopment in the latter”. What this suggests is that when aid is given for curriculum reform, for example, the country that gives financial assistance creates employment for its own people who come to give technical assistance and to monitor proper use of their money. It is this technical assistance that results in the receiving countries adopting curriculum changes that do not suit their national contexts, it can be concluded.

As highlighted above, Zimbabwe was not financed for curriculum reform, but what policy makers seemingly overlooked in terms of context, was to consider the school’s situated, professional, material and external contexts when they introduced the CBC. In other words, Zimbabwean policy makers did not “creolize” the adopted policy to blend with local practices (Anderson-Levitt, 2017:50). By way of example, all Grade 7 learners are going to sit for their first Junior Certificate examination in 2021, in line with the CBC, regardless of their situated contexts – rural or urban. Most rural schools and some urban ones have no computer laboratories, let alone computers and trained ICT teachers, yet all the Grade 7 candidates are expected to sit for the same examination which has ICT as one of the examinable learning areas.

From the lived experiences of the researcher as an educator and school leader, Gauthier’s observation

that teacher training was often badly designed, matches what prevails in Zimbabwe in respect of implementation of the CBC. Also, evidenced by the lack of government support in the provision of resources for learners, it shows that budgetary allocation for the CBC implementation is inadequate. It can be argued that Zimbabwe is going to use new certification tests this year (2021) from the researcher's observation of the registration process of Grade 7 candidates who are going to sit for their first Junior Certificate examination in line with the CBC, as stated above.

2.4 21st Century skills and values education: a critical analysis

According to Rotherham and Willingham (2009) learners should have 21st century skills if they are to fit in today's world. The skills include creativity and innovation, critical thinking, problem solving, metacognition, information and ICT literacy, citizenship, communication and collaboration (Suto, 2013) (Section 2.2.2.2). Rotherham and Willingham (2009), however, argue that the skills students need in the 21st century are not new, citing critical thinking and problem solving as having been components of human progress throughout history. Of late, these skills have been linked to future economic prosperity for individuals and nations, as they provide key qualities required to succeed in the global skills race (Development Economics, 2015).

According to Hirschmana and Wood (2018), globalisation and knowledge economy are conditions under which 21st century learning emerged because the concepts are linked to future economic growth for both individuals and countries. Green (2006) views globalisation as something that is bringing in the idea of a global village where there are no longer any boundaries in the world. What this implies is that while physical demarcations among nations may exist, in terms of policy formulation on, for example education practices, there are no borders because of globalisation. This kind of change in the environment in which education policy is formed, evaluated and implemented (Rizvi & Lingard,2009) means that where policy was once developed in a solely national sphere, it is now affected by imperatives of the global economy due to globalising processes (Hirschmana & Wood, 2018). Zimbabwe's CFPSE (2015) places a lot of emphasis on relevance and preparing learners for a globalised world in the 21st century as if to endorse the above insinuation. Critics of globalisation, however, argue that the formation of education policies in post-national spaces (Rizvi and Lingard,2009) has given rise to globalisation of capitalism (Ball, 1994) and neoliberal market capitalism (Sellar & Lingard, 2013). This argument is in line with neoliberalism, which has become hegemonic as a mode of discourse (Harvey, 2005).

Stevenson (2007) argues that there is a fundamental contradiction in purpose between what schools do, and issues confronting the globe. To critics of the capitalist ideology, there is no need for 21st century skills as they perpetuate capitalism, but instead there should be "critical education whose goal is to empower learners to identify the social and cultural issues that lead to such exploitation and to change things for the

better" (Elliot & Davis, 2018: 16). Thus neoliberalisation has served as a potential antidote to threats to the capitalist social order and is a solution to capitalism's ills (Harvey, 2005).

The second condition under which 21st century learning emerged is knowledge economy. The need for skilled workers in all countries prompted the need for government policies to focus on upgrading their human capital (OECD, 2019). The argument was that in order to remain competitive for the needs of a global economy (Rizvi & Lingard, 2009), there was need for the economic commoditisation of knowledge and "the primary source of all future economic growth" (Gilbert, 2005: 25). Both globalisation and knowledge economy discourses have perpetuated a neoliberal approach to education and have facilitated the emergence of the 21st century learner in order to meet the growing requirements for flexible, digitally-oriented workers for the global marketplace (Hirschmana & Wood, 2018).

Closely linked to 21st century learning is the idea if values education which has been one of the major findings of CIET (1999) (Section 2.6.4). One of the major philosophies of the Zimbabwe's education is *unhu/Ubuntu/vumunhu* which speaks to the behaviour of oneself among others (Section 2.6.4). Over and above CBC equipping learners with 21st century skills, parents in particular, expected the new curriculum to inculcate in learners values that make them fit in society as acceptable citizens.

2.4. 1 Limitations and challenges of 21st century skills in economically developing countries

Since 21st century learning is heavily linked to various forms of ICT and digital technologies, there is a challenge that, due to social inequity and digital divides, not all students are able to acquire these skills. The assumption that all learners can access information equally and are fluent in technology use (Hirschmana & Wood, 2018) does not hold much water because of social inequity and digital divides. Social inequity is a social phenomenon, which refers to classes that exist in society where there are rich and poor people. Reasons why some people are rich and others are poor are outside the scope of this thesis, but what is of relevance to this discussion is that social inequity impacts negatively on some learners in as far as access to information and digital technologies are concerned.

One form of digital divide is access, according to Adhikari *et al*. (2016). Access distinguishes between those who have access to various forms of ICT and digital technologies and those who do not. Hartnett (2017) argues that socio-economic status (SES) is influential in determining digital access, which suggests that learners from higher SES gain greater digital skills than those without digital access. In most developing countries, including Zimbabwe, SES impacts negatively on digital access because the majority of schools are in rural settings where there are parents of low SES who cannot afford to buy computers for use by their children in schools. Aspiring for the development of 21st century skills in learners against a background of low SES of the general populace, coupled with government inability to provide ICT equipment, is a far-fetched dream.

The other digital divide is the capability, use or skill divide, which focuses on both students and teachers (Starkey, Sylvester & Johnstone, 2017). It is one matter offering access to ICT and a completely different matter to be able to use the medium appropriately (Adhikari et al., 2016). What the above argument seems to suggest is that both students and teachers should be capable to use ICT to be abreast with 21st century skills. The situation in Zimbabwe is that the majority of learners, especially those in rural areas and most of the practising teachers who trained long ago, are "digital immigrants" who are adapting to use the new technology (Prensky, 2001). The young teachers who have recently graduated from colleges and most urban school learners are computer literate as they are digitally-agile learners (Ibid).

The need to make learners acquire 21st century skills has essential implications for teacher training. This suggests that there should be a well thought-out plan by which teachers can succeed where previous generations have failed (Rotherham & Willingham, 2009). The notion of "where previous generations have failed" seemingly implies that previous teachers have failed before to effectively teach 21st century skills because of the teaching approaches used by those teachers. While advocates of 21st century skills favour the widely acclaimed student-centred methods – for example, problem-based learning and project-based learning (discussed in Section 2.2.1.2) – that allow students to collaborate and work on authentic problems (Rotherham & Willingham, 2009), teachers do not use these approaches although they are aware of the approaches and appreciate their efficacy. Shapson, Wright, Eason and Fitzgerald (1980) assert that teachers do not change their teaching strategies or use these student-centred methods, even when class sizes are reduced.

Research has also shown that the reasons why teachers are not so keen to use learner-centred approaches to teaching 21st century skills have to do with the content knowledge the teacher should have and classroom management (Rotherham and Willingham, 2009 There is a solution, however, to these challenges in the form of a more robust training for teachers and support (Ibid).

2.5 Framework for curriculum implementation

According to Sabola (2017), this framework is an adaptation of the one developed by Rogan and Aldous (2005), which is based on the theory of curriculum implementation developed by Rogan and Grayson (2003).

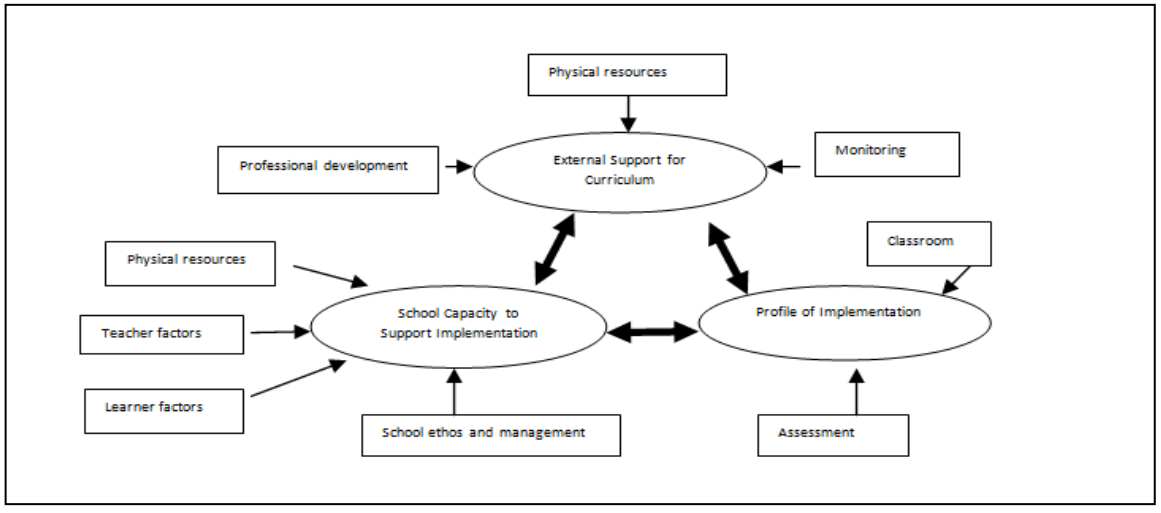

Figure 2. 2 Framework for curriculum implementation (Adapted from Sabola, 2017: 4)

The framework for implementation above has three main constructs, namely profile of implementation, school capacity to support implementation and external support for curriculum.

2.5.1 Profile of implementation: roadmap of learning areas and ways of implementing

Profile of implementation is a construct that helps one to comprehend, analyse and express the extent to which the ideals of a set of curriculum proposals can be put into practice (Sabola, 2017). The set of curriculum proposals are in other words, the intended curriculum and putting them into practice is the operational curriculum (Phaeton & Stears, 2016). In other words, the profile of implementation offers a roadmap of the learning areas and the various ways of operationalising the curriculum. This process is enacted at the school level with teachers as the main implementation agents. In this study CFPSE provides a medium-to-long term policy direction to make improvements to the CBC. Two of the contents sections of CFPSE address profile of implementation. These have been discussed in the previous section and they are “Teaching and learning methods” and “Assessment and learning” (See Sections 2.2.1.2 and 2.2.1.3).

The literature reveals that the profile of implementation relies heavily on documents produced to spell out the intentions of those who developed the curriculum. These documents are, for example, the Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education (CFPSE) 2015-2022, in the case of this study, official syllabi and practical guides, which are officially approved by the department (Phaeton & Stears, 2016). While documents may sound important , as highlighted above, implementation of the intended curriculum may fail to be effectively done since it relies on the expertise of teachers in interpreting the official syllabi as well as being able to change the mind-set of the learner (Phaeton & Stears, 2016).

2.5.2 Four Indicators to school capacity to support implementation

School capacity to support implementation construct has four indicators or sub-constructs to the capacity to support implementation. These indicators namely physical resources, teacher factors, learner factors and school ethos and management, can either support or hinder the effective implementation of the curriculum. A lack of physical resources such as textbooks and conducive classrooms impacts negatively on effective curriculum implementation. In support, Sabola (2017) argues that poor resources, unavailability or inadequate resources has a negative influence on the performance of even the best of

teachers and learners. OECD (2019) speak of schools closing down as a result of lack of resources to further endorse Sabola's (2017) above comments regarding inadequate resources. The factor school ethos refers to the characteristic spirit or attitude of a system – in this case it refers to the attitude of the teachers, the school leaders and even the learners towards the new CBC. A positive attitude towards the CBC by the role players culminates in the curriculum being implemented well because it has gained favour with the implementers. The reverse is equally true that a negative attitude towards the CBC impacts negatively on its effective implementation.

2.5.3 Professional development, physical resources and monitoring as external support for curriculum

The framework indicates that external support occurs in the form of professional development, monitoring and the provision of physical resources. These sub-constructs (professional development, monitoring and physical resources) are addressed in Zimbabwe's CFPSE 2015-2022. According to Marishane (2020), the concept of professional development has different interpretations of its meaning which depend on perspective, context and purpose. In education, it is defined in terms of development of an individual teacher's skills, knowledge and expertise (Caena, 2011), which is the purpose of professional development.

It is worth noting that professional development is context-specific, which suggests that it is bound to the situation in which teachers train to teach (Marishane, 2020). The context of professional development in this study is that it is expected to occur formally as a reaction to the demands of curriculum change to competence-based curriculum. Zimbabwean primary school teachers need professional development so that they are abreast with the new teaching and learning methods of the CBC. While professional development may occur incidentally rather than intentionally to individual teachers and unstructured externally for all teachers (Marishane, 2020), the situation of teachers in this study context is that professional development should be intentional and externally structured for all teachers. It is intentional in the sense that there is a known need to develop teachers in line with the CBC and this professional development should be organised by ministry for all practising teachers; hence, externally structured. The MoPSE (2015) states that the training programme launched in 2014 remains a permanent feature in capacitating human resources for curriculum implementation and innovation. However, the researcher observed that the capacitation programme referred to in the framework is not specific to the CBC as its "thrust is to encourage and structure progression of teacher status from diploma to a minimum first degree in Education" (MoPSE, 2015:59).

As external support, physical resources refer to buildings, grounds, budget and infrastructure and technological equipment (Marishane, 2020). In respect of physical resources the curriculum framework suggests that there should be adequate resource mobilisation through government and stakeholder

participation. Stakeholder participation points to external support to the school from parents for these resources. School leaders solicit for the resources from parents through their elected representatives, but provision depends on the situated contexts of individual schools. According to Marishane (2020), situated contexts are defined as situational and locational factors such as school's history and setting. In light of this, most rural schools tend to lag behind because of their setting.

Monitoring is viewed in this thesis as the policy-analytic method used to produce information about competence-based curriculum implementation. The CBC is an education policy, which requires monitoring progress of its implementation, evaluate the reported results and recommend necessary policy reform (Kapfunde, 2004). Kapfunde further states that monitoring and feedback are tools that decision-makers use to watch progress of implementation plans.

As external support for curriculum, monitoring is not an option; it has to be conducted to ensure that progress is reported against set targets. To this end, MoPSE (2015) states that this (monitoring) will require ministry officials visibility in schools where curriculum implementation takes place. The researcher, as school principal, observed that since inception of the CBC in 2017 such monitoring visits by ministry officials are very rare and no periodic feedbacks have been publicised.

2.5.4 Complexity of the three main constructs of curriculum implementation in interaction

An analysis of the above framework for curriculum implementation (Figure 2.2) reveals that the three main constructs interact with each other. The dynamics and interactions among the three constructs are depicted by the two-way arrows in the figure. Profile of implementation construct is heavily influenced by the school's capacity to support implementation. According to Sabola (2017), the general ecology and management of schools, which rests mainly with school leadership, either hinders or promotes effective new curriculum implementation (Section 2.4.2). As shall be observed in Section 2.5, the profile of implementation is like the microsystem level of the ecological systems model, which speaks of interactions that take place in the classroom. The interaction between profile of implementation and school capacity to support implementation is not without flaws and challenges as highlighted in Section 2.4.2 above. If, for example, the principal does not take initiatives to ensure that teachers have adequate and appropriate teaching and learning resources, this impacts negatively on curriculum implementation. The principal is, however, limited in the provision of resources by such factors as school setting and capacity of the mesosystem (local agencies) to mobilise adequate teaching and learning materials. Where a school's setting is in a community of parents of low SES (Hartnett, 2017), the principal is unable to avail adequate resources to teachers because the parents cannot afford to pay high fees that can then be used to buy the required teaching and learning materials (see Section 2.4.1 on digital divides). Principals are also unable to provide teachers with adequate requirements if local education agencies, that is, the district and provincial levels in the Zimbabwean context, are not forthcoming in providing the resources to the

microsystem level (see Section 2.6.2). Where resistance to the new curriculum appears to be there from the teachers, the principal has a role to play in changing the mindset of teachers and influence them towards the goal of new curriculum implementation.

The external support for curriculum construct relates to the other two constructs in the sense that both profile of implementation and school capacity to support implementation need external support in terms of monitoring the implementation and provision of professional development and physical resources. Section 2.4.3 indicates that external support points to government support for curriculum implementation by way of providing experts to monitor implementation, staff development of current practising teachers and the training new teachers on the new curriculum and, finally, providing physical resources to schools. This construct (external support for curriculum implementation) can be equated to the macrosystem level of the ecological systems model (Figure 2.3). It is at this level where policies to support profile of implementation are made. Schools capacity to support implementation also rely in part on decisions made at the macrosystem level because schools on their own cannot train teachers on the new curriculum, let alone provide all the required resources without the external support from government.

There are challenges to both profile of implementation and school capacity to support curriculum if government fails to meet its obligations. One ,of the challenges associated with policies to support implementation is that they may be influenced by international organisations who may advocate for reforms that do not suit the situated contexts of countries adopting the curriculum reform (Marishane, 2020) (Section 2.5.3). By way of example, globalisation has influenced curricula internationally to be strongly linked to various forms of ICT and digital technologies (Section 2.4.1). In the case of Zimbabwe, however, most principals fail to provide their teachers and learners with computers because of, not only the situated contexts of their schools, but also lack of external support from the macrosystem and mesosystem levels. It can be observed that the framework for curriculum implementation is closely linked to the ecological systems model as well as education system layers to be discussed below.

2.6 Ecological systems theory

The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) (2020:6) provides an ecological systems approach to curriculum change. This ecological systems theory developed by Bronfenbrenner (1979) shows how the different contexts in which a child lives influence the child's development either, directly or indirectly(Paquette & Ryan, 2001) Bronfenbrenner's theory defines complex layers of the environment (microsystem, mesosystem, macrosystem and exosystem), each having an effect on the child's development. As shall be discussed in greater detail in Chapter 3, this ecological systems model helps us understand implementation of the CBC better. It shows how the various levels interact with each other in the implementation process of the CBC. As an example the macrosystem interacts with the microsystem level by generating policies that guide curriculum implementation at the school (microsystem)

level. Challenges with implementation such as resistance by teachers and lack of adequate resources also surface as these levels interact. Policy makers at the macrosystem level face resistance from teachers at the microsystem level when, for example, the curriculum is imposed from the top without proper communication. Failure by the macrosystem to provide the required material and human resources for use in the teaching and learning process at the microsystem level culminates into ineffective curriculum implementation (Spreen & Knapezyk, 2017; OECD, 2020) (Section 2.5.2).

This theory, "born out of developmental psychology, can be adapted as a useful heuristic for mapping out the role that different levels of the education system play in influencing curriculum implementation and ultimately student outcomes" (OECD, 2020:5). For this reason, discussion of the systems theory will be linked to the different levels of the education system to show how it (theory) relates to education system levels. Figure 2.3 depicts how implementation of curricular innovation appears like using an ecological systems model. .

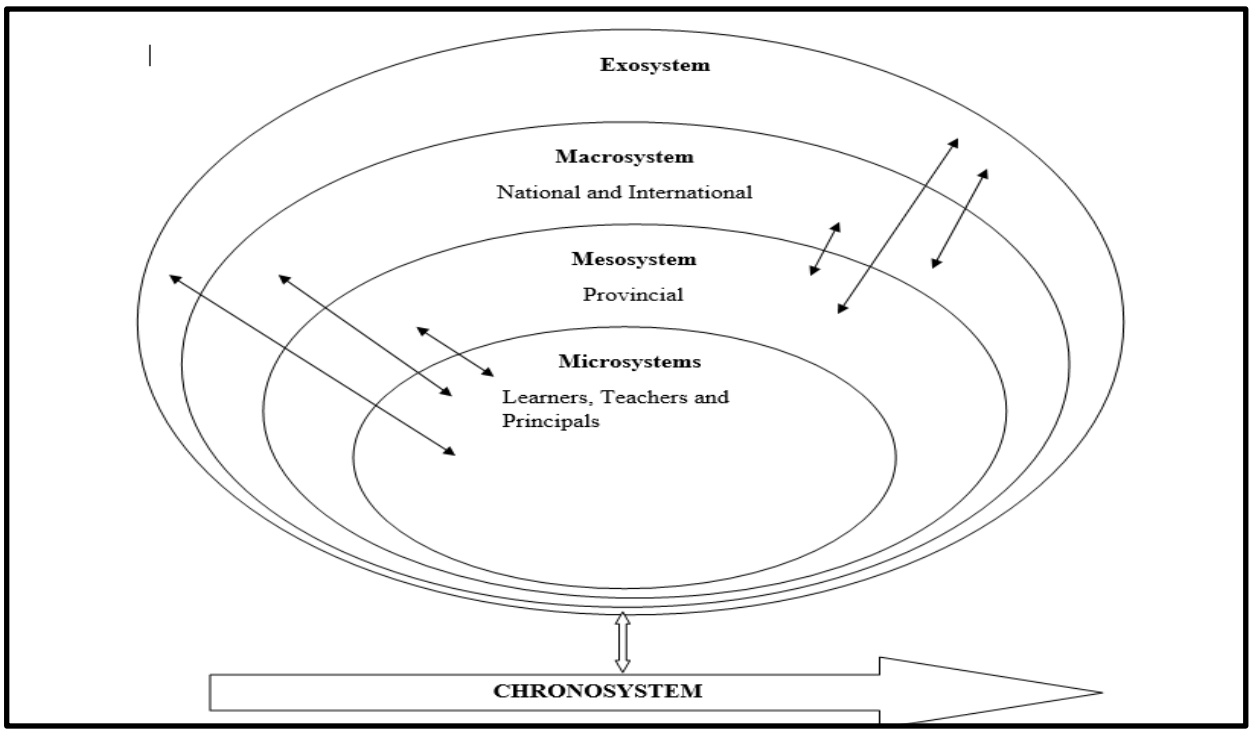

Figure 2. 3: Ecological System Model (adapted from OECD 2019:6)

The five levels of the ecological system model interact with each other; the macrosystem, seemingly the highest level and the microsystem, the lowest level. In the Zimbabwean context, the macrosystem is at the national level where policies are made that govern curriculum implementation at the mesosystem level (provincial and district) and microsystem (school) level. The chronosystem level gives timelines of curriculum implementation, which are determined at the macrosystem level. In coming up with curriculum

change policies, it should be realised that the macrosystem level encompasses the broader societal and cultural beliefs of key stakeholders such as parents, industry and commerce and church organisations who constitute the exosystem level. The discussion that follows shows how the various levels are linked.

2.6.1 Microsystem

The microsystem is the layer which is nearest to the child showing such structures as the family, school, the neighbourhood and early childhood learning centres that a child relates and interacts with (Paquette & Ryan, 2001; Berk, 2000). The microsystem comprises learners, teachers and principals, (Figure 2.3) hence interest is on how students actually experience an intended curriculum and whether they exhibit the desired outcomes (OECD, 2020). OECD (2020) further states that the ways in which students interact with the curriculum is dependent upon teachers' background and motivation (Section 2.5.2).It becomes a challenge if, for example, teachers, are not familiar with the teaching methods. This challenge to pedagogical practice by teachers requires teachers to have the expertise of the teachers in interpreting syllabi content and teach it, as well as to change the mind-set of learners (Phaeton & Stears, 2017). This is endorsed by Bantwini (2010) whose findings were that teachers in the Eastern Cape province were themselves not familiar with the research projects method they were expected to assist learners with following the introduction of Curriculum 2005.

This study's case is that most of the practising teachers are trying to acquaint themselves with the new learning areas such as ICT, Physical Education Sport and Mass Displays (PESMD) and Visual and Performing Arts (VPA). Teachers are not conversant with the content of these new learning areas, which compromises their teaching and interaction with learners. While teachers are aware of child-centred approaches and believe they are effective (Rotherham & Willingham, 2009), they do not use them. They continue to use the old teacher-centred methods and again this compromises how they make learners interact with the curriculum. Motivation to teach the CBC is person-specific, that is, it depends on the teacher's knowledge, experience, skills and attitudes (Marishane, 2020).

Figure 2.4 shows how learners actually experience the CBC through such aspects as an enabling learning climate, interactive pedagogy, meaningful learning and fair, relevant and reliable assessment. As in the ecological systems approach figure, the learner is at the centre in this figure, indicating the centrality of the learner in the learning and teaching process. This view is shared by Mkonongwa (2016), who argues that competence-based teaching and learning focuses on the learner as one of its key features.

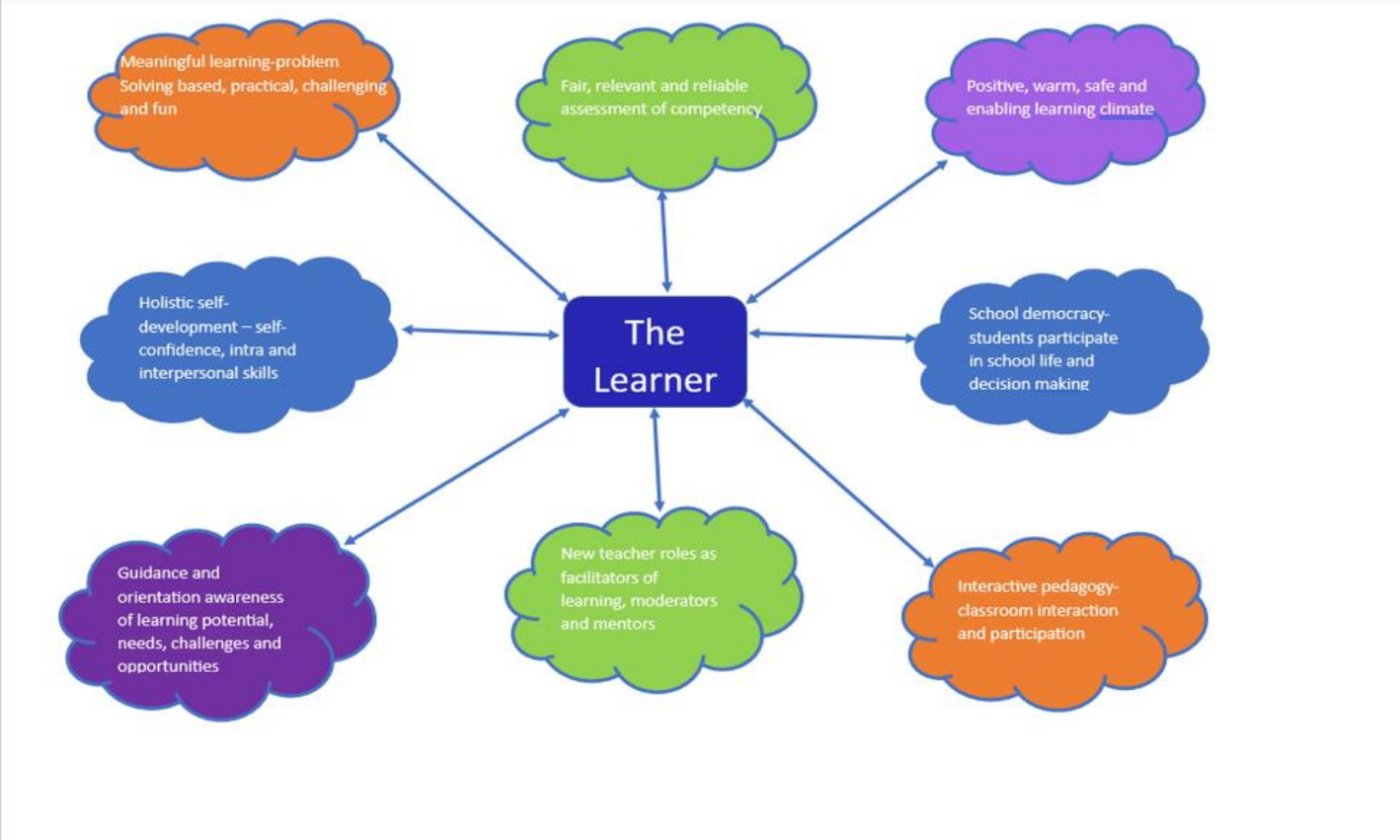

Figure 2. 4: The learner at the centre of learning and teaching (Adapted from MoPSE, 2015:41)

Figure 2.4 is particularly important to school leaders as it helps them understand the principles of teaching and learning the CBC and how the curriculum should be implemented at the micro (school) level. The figure indicates that the curriculum framework stresses learner-centred approaches with teachers acting as co-explorers and facilitators in knowledge discovery and arrival at an objective understanding of the content and demonstration of skills so acquired (MoPSE, 2015). Such knowledge by school leaders helps them understand what to expect from teachers and learners during the implementation process of the CBC.

While Figure 2.4 depicts the learner at the centre of learning, which may be the initial focus of the OECD, cited above in this section, this study's focus is on the experiences of school leaders' understanding of the development of the curriculum and specifically the potential challenges at the micro level for them (principals), the teachers and the learners. As highlighted above in this section, the potential challenges for teachers and consequently for principals and learners, are lack of understanding of the concepts covered in the curriculum and how to teach them, access to relevant instructional materials and their motivation to teach it (OECD, 2020). These challenges for teachers also become challenges for principals because, for example, lack of content and instructional knowledge of the new learning areas by practising teachers is cause for concern for principals who lead and manage the implementation of the CBC at the microsystem level. That teachers do not have adequate content and pedagogical knowledge becomes a challenge for

learners because it compromises how they interact with the curriculum. This study is expected to come up with other challenges for principals, teachers and learners, which are specific to the Zimbabwean context, over and above these ones from the related literature.

2.6.2 Mesosystem

In the mesosystem, the activities are to do with policy making and the officials interact amongst themselves to determine policies that are ideal for curriculum implementation. The mesosystem level resembles the local education agencies level, which is above the school level in hierarchical order. It makes local level policies on guidelines relating to training, time and instructional materials that teachers have (OECD, 2020). In the Zimbabwean education system, the local level refers to the provincial office and district office, led by the Provincial Education Director (PED) and District Schools Inspector (DSI) respectively. The actors at this level also use policy instruments to promote intended curriculum implementation (Ibid). They do this by utilising external organisations.

Universities and NGOs are, for example, external organisations, that assist curriculum implementation indirectly by having teachers trained, giving grants and technical support (OECD, 2020). The issue of external organisations raised in this macrosystem level buttresses the link between the Ecological System Approach and Education System Layers. External organisations in the form of NGOs giving assistance, have been discussed in relation to the Theory of Assistance or Dependence (Section 2.3.2). UNICEF is one NGO that takes active participation in supporting education in Zimbabwe.

In Zimbabwe, most teachers are trained in teachers' colleges but certificates are issued by the University of Zimbabwe. A good number of local universities such as Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU), Women's University and Great Zimbabwe University have also assumed the role of Teachers Colleges by training teachers. From the discussion on lessons learnt about CBC from other African countries (Section 2.3.2), it was highlighted that teacher training was often badly designed. Zimbabwe is no exception as it is observed that teachers completing their training show lack of content knowledge of new CBC learning areas, which is an indication of no synchronisation of the CBC with teacher training institutions.

The mesosystem level can also be discussed in terms of how the role players at this level interact with principals during new curriculum implementation. In this instance, other role players at this level are community organisations and parents. During curriculum implementation principals interact with parent representative bodies such as School Development Committees (SDCs) in the case of Zimbabwe. SDCs work with principals in, for example, drawing up development plans for their respective schools and they play a pivotal role in the recommendation of the provision of teaching and learning materials and even the hiring of expert teachers for the school where ministry is unable to provide the teachers. The principals also interact with parents during annual general meetings where issues about the new curriculum are discussed and they (parents) are encouraged to support the implementation process by paying fees and

buying learning materials requested by the teachers for their children.

Hindering factors of curriculum implementation at this level include lack of resources, mainly as a result of failure to provide funding for supplies, staff and professional development (Smith & Their, 2017). This is the reason why the local education agencies have the authority to seek assistance from stakeholders. This authority is not limited to PEDs and DSIs, but is extended to principals who can source for donations from their local communities. However, policy requires schools to seek permission from ministry before receiving any donation.

2.6.3 Macrosystem

Involved in the macrosystem are policy activities at national level. Thijs and van der Akker (cited by Phaeton & Stears, 2016) regard this level of curriculum as intended, that is, the level where political and administrative decisions and the conceptualisation of the curriculum are made. The main actors at this level are national policy makers and international organisation representatives. This level is likened to the national level of education system layers. National government officials and agencies at national level determine standards for teaching and learning and utilise policy instruments to promote implementation (Mc Donnel & Elmore, 1987). Use of policy instruments to promote implementation is characterised by a bureaucratic and closed systems of education, which seek to have uniformity in organisations. In the case of Zimbabwe, these are policy activities that take place at national level, which are cascaded to other lower levels such as the provincial, district and school levels. As has been highlighted above, these stated levels have legal authority to come up with policies, which impact directly on curriculum implementation such as training, time, guidelines and instructional materials that teachers need to enact a curriculum (OECD, 2020). At school level, for example, the principal and his/her teachers draw up school-based timetables that suit their situated contexts but in line with the national curriculum time allocations for each learning area.

Legitimate authority is closely linked to decision making, hierarchy and power (Huther & Krucken, 2013). This is particularly applicable in the private sector where there is an allocation of authority and influence to formal positions within the organisational chart (Leithwood, Jantzi & Steinbach, 1999). In the Zimbabwean education system context, the notion of legitimate authority is generally accepted as teachers, for example, have been made to accept orders from the principal because the position of principal carries with it legitimate authority in terms of policy. The macrosystem level of this ecological system approach is observed to depict hierarchies that exist in the education systems of many countries and the power relations prevailing. While schools have legal authority to make school policies on curriculum implementation, they are guided by provincial policies on the same goal of curriculum implementation. In the same vein, provincial policies are guided by national policies. In the case of Zimbabwe, the Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education (CFPSE) 2015-2022 is the national curriculum on the

CBC, which guides other policies that can be made at provincial, district and school levels in that top-down hierarchical order.

International organisation's representatives who constitute the macrosystem level of the ecological systems model have a big influence on policy activities at the national level. This justifies why this macrosystem also has international as one of its components. The OECD and World Bank are, for example, international organisations that indirectly impact policies of countries they give assistance such as advocating for curriculum reform. Advocating for curriculum reforms speaks of influencing policy formulation such that, through use of soft power, to be discussed in Section 2.9.2, benefiting countries end up borrowing their curricula ideas, which may not be ideal for the countries' contexts (Section 2.3.2 on lessons learnt about the CBC from other countries).

2.6.4 Exosystem

The exosystem illustrates broader societal and cultural beliefs about the purpose, or goals, of education (OECD, 2020). These societal and cultural beliefs are not the same for countries hence there are disagreements on which ones to adopt. Societal and cultural beliefs strongly influence content to be taught and how this content is taught (pedagogy) (Spring, 2010). Issues that surround societal and cultural beliefs are manifested in a number of questions: such as whether learners should be trained for job in a knowledge-based economy (OECD, 2020). As a response to the question, both developed and developing countries had knowledge economy as one of the conditions under which 21st century learning emerged because of the need for skilled workers (Hirschmana & Wood, 2018). Globalisation and knowledge economy discourses, discussed in Section 2.3.3, have influenced the curriculum of both developed and developing countries in line with 21st century skills, although developing countries have been observed to have challenges resulting from social inequity and digital divides (Section 2.3.3.1). Although CFPSE 2015-2022 has as one of its aims, " fostering life-long learning in line with the opportunities and challenges of knowledge society through learning-to-learn, embracing ICTs and e-learning" (MoPSE, 2015:6), I believe that issues of social inequity and digital divides still remain challenges in a country like Zimbabwe.

The underlying philosophy of education in Zimbabwe, and thus also of the new CBC, is *unhu/ubuntu/vumunhu* (MoPSE Curriculum Implementation Training Manual, 2018:5). By *ubuntu* is meant the quality of being human. In support of this assertion, CFPSE 2015-2022 has this aim: "to promote and cherish the Zimbabwean identity in particular patriotism, self-respect and respect for others (*unhu/ubuntu/vumunhu*) …" (MoPSE, 2015). Beliefs and values underpinning the curriculum include "sovereignty, inter-dependence, mutual support, respect, discipline and readiness to help others. Further moral uprightness and pride in Zimbabwean identity and heritage permeate the curriculum" (Curriculum Implementation Training Manual, 2018:5). An aim of the CBC that relates to these beliefs and values, according to MoPSE (2015), is to prepare learners for participatory citizenship, peace and sustainable

development.

2.6.5 Chronosystem

According to the OECD (2019:7),

> The chronosystem identifies when in the policy process implementation activities are happening. Time points in the chronosystem may occur before a new curriculum is officially passed or mandated, the year after a curriculum change is adopted, three years after a curriculum change is adopted, or a decade after a curriculum change is first introduced.

In the Zimbabwean context, a phased approach was adopted for the smooth change over from the existing to the revised curriculum.

- The inception phase was from 22nd September to 31st December 2015.
- Phase 1 was from January to December 2016, when syllabi were developed.
- Phase 2 was from January 2017, when implementation took place in three out of nine grades for the primary level (ECD A, Grade 1 and Grade 3). Implementation will continue until 2022 when the last primary class (Grade 7) sit for their first Junior Certificate examination, based on the new CBC (MoPSE Curriculum Implementation Training Manual, 2018).

The research is being carried out during the implementation phase; hence, the researcher explored school leaders and teachers' experiences of, for example, whether the time frames stipulated in the curriculum framework are being adhered to, in their own opinions. The researcher has, however, observed, as a principal involved in running final examinations at his school, that the first Junior Certificate examination was in 2021 instead of 2022, as stated in the curriculum framework timeline.

2.7 Link between open and closed systems and ecological systems theory layers

The open and closed system aspect of systems theory shows that there is interaction between the different layers of the ecological systems theory. Open systems are systems that regularly exchange feedback with their external environments implying that they have porous boundaries. On the contrary, closed systems are not porous, meaning that there is very little exchange of information. Closed systems such as bureaucracies, monopolies and stagnating systems are not very healthy because they allow little information to filter in and out of the system (Kapsali, 2009). Based on the definition of bureaucracy and the situation obtaining on the ground, it can be argued that Zimbabwe's education system is bureaucratic; hence, a closed system.

Bureaucratic systems are controlled and seek uniformity at the operations level (Kapsali, 2009), which

implies that at all levels in the education hierarchy- provincial, district and school levels. Uniformity is guaranteed by operating guidelines that come as policy circulars at each level. Kapsali (2009) states that the idea is that by creating uniformity on the environment outside, uniformity and order will be created inside the system. This is one advantage of bureaucracy to which can be added guaranteeing efficacy, consistency and efficiency in managing large organisations as ministries (Wart, 2013) (see Section 3.7.3). While the nested levels in the education system interact with each other Neal and Neal (2013) as shown by the multi-directional arrows, which are not necessarily hierarchical Datnow, Borman and Stringfield (2002), uniformity of implementing the CBC is guaranteed by operating guidelines that come as policy circulars at each level.

The national Department of education as part of the macrosystem interacts with all system levels in the sense that it is the level, which makes policies that are followed by all levels below it in the hierarchy. As stated in Section 2.5.3, the macrosystem level of this ecological system approach is observed to depict hierarchies that exist in the education systems of many countries and the power relations prevailing. While schools have legal authority to make school policies on curriculum implementation, they are guided by provincial policies on the same goal of curriculum implementation. In the same vein, provincial policies are guided by national policies. This, therefore, explains the power levels and how decision-making takes place in this ecological systems model. It also explains how closed systems ensure there is uniformity within the system.

The above argument seems to suggest that a closed system does have all the components of an open system – the input, process, output, boundary, feedback and environment. The major difference between the two systems is on the boundaries. Open systems have boundaries open to external influences, which should be managed through boundary management. Closed systems impose bureaucratic communication mechanisms in boundary management, making it rigid and difficult to accommodate change when it is needed (Kapsali, 2009). Boundary management procedures in closed systems are used mainly as monitoring mechanisms in order to control or avoid unauthorised change in project activities (Ibid). In the case of this study, as mentioned above in Section 2.4.3, implementation of the CBC would be monitored by ministry officials such as DSIs and SIs (MoPSE, 2015). The researcher has, however, observed that due to the shortage of monitoring manpower, DSIs recruit the most senior and experienced principals in the district to assist them during their supervision visits to schools. The challenge with this kind of arrangement is one principal is going to supervise another principal who has not been selected to be in the supervision team. This compromises the monitoring exercise as some principals are not so keen to have their schools monitored by other principals whose schools also need to be supervised and may not be performing well in implementing the CBC.

Boundary management is about managing relationships, inputs and outputs across system boundaries (Kapsali, 2009). Figure 2.5 below on the open system model depicts boundary management as a practice

to corroborate Kapsali's above assertion.

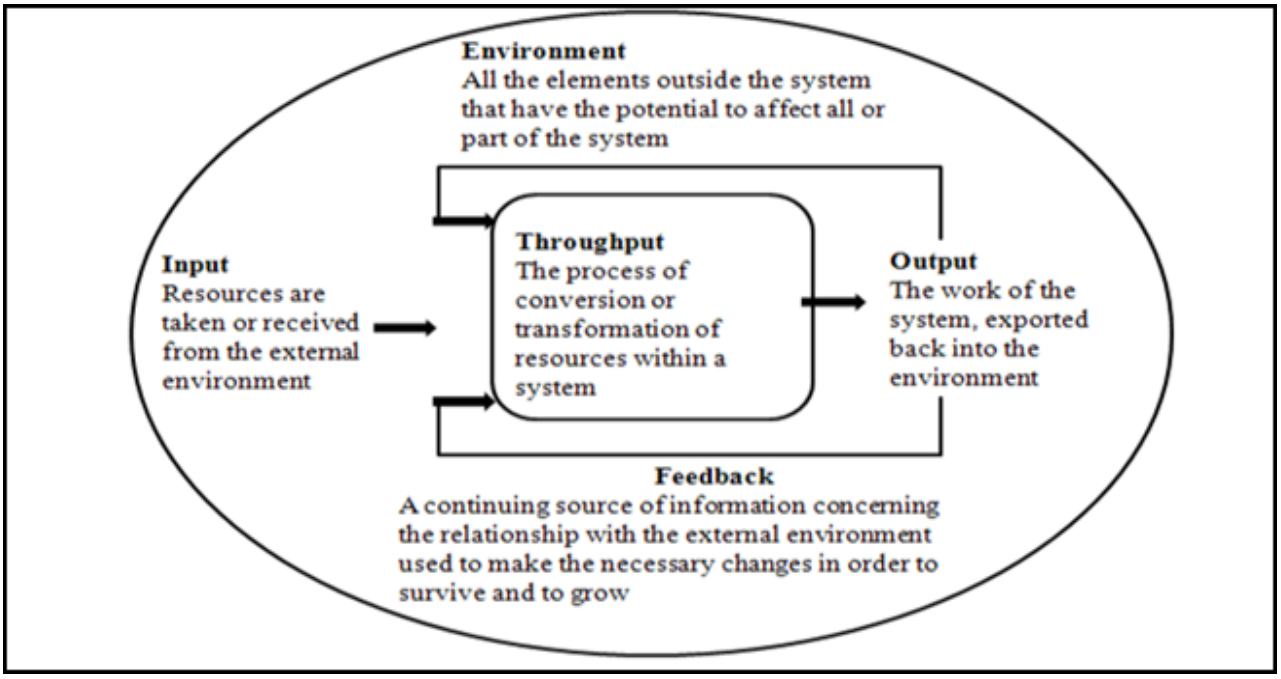

Figure 2. 5: Katz and Kahn Open System Model (Adapted from Ramosaj as cited in Berisha [2014:61])

The figure not only indicates how the different parts of the system influence one another with regard to policy implementation, but also how it influence the management of relationships, inputs and outputs in the system. It follows that in terms of policy implementation, the macro (national) level crafts curriculum policies, which constitute the intended curriculum. These are the policies that will cascade down the ladder from provincial to the micro (school) level. What takes place at school in the classroom is the implemented curriculum but it is influenced by policies at the national level. It is so difficult for individual schools to deviate from the intended curriculum, that is, make unauthorised change (Kapsali, 2009) because of the monitoring mechanisms.

The input throughput output part of the open systems theory in Figure 2.5 indicates that there is input in the system in the form of the intended curriculum. The intended curriculum are policies developed as a result of concerns raised by education stakeholders such as parents and industry and commerce (the environment). There is also the process, which takes place in the school as the implemented curriculum. The outputs are competence-based curriculum learners from the schools.

While the above analogy appears very logical as it links with the input throughput output model, in real terms it is not that simplistic. Although Zimbabwe's education system is closed, the acknowledgements section of the CFPSE gives a long list of stakeholders whose collaborative work produced this curriculum framework (MoPSE, 2015: viii). It identifies the participation of government officials from other ministries,

NGOs, organisations of principals of schools- National Association of Primary Heads (NAPH) and National Association of Secondary Heads (NASH) and organisations of teachers such as Zimbabwe Teachers' Association (ZIMTA) and Progressive Teachers' Union of Zimbabwe (PTUZ). Also acknowledged were all those Zimbabwean nationals who participated in giving their views on the type of curriculum they wanted (Ibid). From the aforementioned acknowledgement, it is only just to argue that democracy was exercised in coming up with the intended curriculum as there was participation by various stakeholders. However, as Gory et al. (2021) argues, the ministry did not continuously engage all stakeholders throughout the reform. As a result some teachers and parents were not satisfied, arguing that the reform was hastily done.

Further, in spite of having been part of the panellists in the development of CBC, teachers contend that some of the syllabus content is far above the chronological age of primary school learners and, as a result, most parents are unable to assist their children with their homework. Because the education system is a bureaucracy, these concerns by some teachers are not being addressed. Policy makers are mainly concerned with ensuring that implementers strictly follow laid down rules and procedures (Magadzire, 2012) of the intended curriculum. Monitoring is thus meant to ensure that there is no deviation the intended curriculum and that there is uniformity in implementation – a characteristic of closed systems. Implementers (teachers) may view this as imposition from the top of a curriculum, thereby, creating a challenge of resistance to the new curriculum.

2.8 Education system layers showing hierarchy

Education system layers can be depicted in the form of a triangle to bring in the concepts of hierarchy, power and decision making, which are relevant to the ecological systems theory of Bronfenbrenner. Figure 2.6 indicates hierarchy in the whole system, from the country (national) right down to the teacher in the classroom and the learner. The concepts of macro, meso and micro can be linked to both figures 2.6 and 2.8. Figure 2.6 shows the research unit of analysis, which is the broader picture of the aforementioned concepts (macro, meso and micro). Thus Figure 2.6 is about the biggest part of the education system wherein the microsystem level comprises the principal and the local school, the mesosystem comprises the district, province and local communities and then the macrosystem refers to the national and international levels in the case of Zimbabwe. This is, however, not the only hierarchy that exists in the system as there is also hierarchy in the micro level, that is, in the school where, for example in Zimbabwe's primary schools there is the head (principal), the deputy, the teacher-in-charge (TIC), teachers, the senior master/ mistress, teachers then learners in that order Figure 2.8. Although the school level is the microsystem level of the broader picture, the concepts of macro, meso and micro also apply at this level. In this case, the principal, the deputy principal, TIC and SDC (parents representative body) make up the macrosystem, the senior master/ mistress and chairpersons of various subject committees constitute the mesosystem level and lastly teachers constitute the microsystem level (Vengesayi, 1995). In this school level hierarchy, power and decision making about the implemented curriculum rest largely with the

principal although teachers, as controllers of their classes, may choose not to teach a particular learning area for the day for reasons best known to them although it is on the time table, but later teach it.

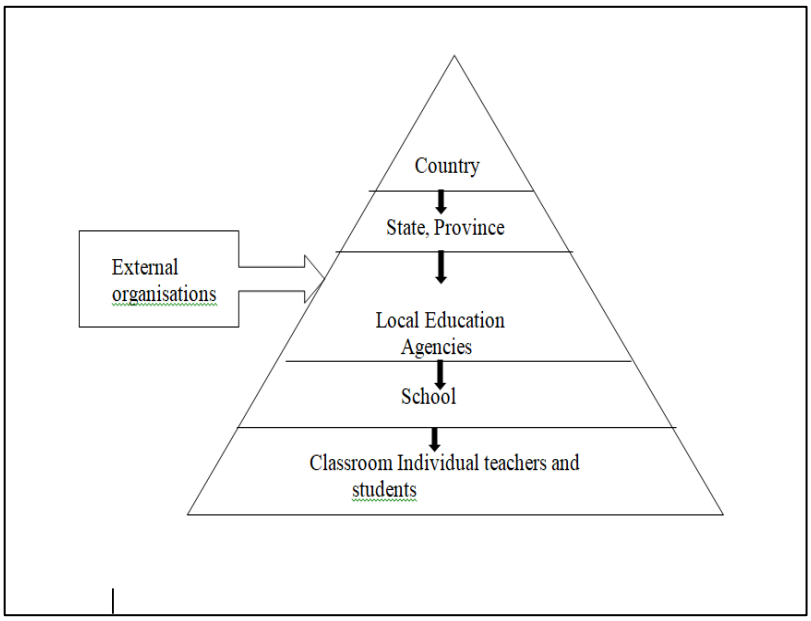

Figure 2. 6: Education system layers showing hierarchy, power and decision-making

The figure above has arrows pointing down in one direction, to indicate some hierarchy and subsequently power and decision making. It shows a top-down approach to decision making, that is, decisions are made at the top, cascading downwards in that order. The figure is narrow at the top to indicate that decision makers are few at the highest level compared to the implementers at the bottom end of the system layers. Power and decision making rests with the person/s in the level above. School leaders (principals) for example have power over teachers and learners at the school level and their decisions on the implemented curriculum influence the intended curriculum positively or negatively. The power that principals have is, however, limited in the sense that Zimbabwe's education system is bureaucratic in which everything in the system is done according to laid down rules (Magadzire, 2012). This means that principals do not have much choice other than to ensure that the intended curriculum is implemented because there is a level above them who come to supervise them just as they supervise their teachers.

While the figure above shows arrows pointing downwards to indicate hierarchy, power and decision making, these did not influence much the drafting of the curriculum as various stakeholders were involved (Section 2.7). However, there was seemingly lack of wider consultation with the same stakeholders on the content to be taught, especially with the implementers at the micro level to accept or reject. MoPSE, as the decision makers by virtue of the being at the top of the hierarchical system, decided that the new curriculum implementation should commence in 2017. The fact that there are some sections of society, including some key stakeholders (teachers), who did not quite receive the reform, signifies that some form of coercion was used (Section 1.4). Although consultations were undeniably made (MoPSE, 2015), it can

be argued that power and decision making were used to effect implementation of the CBC. This shows that persons in the highest positions in the hierarchy have power to make decisions that may not be favourable to stakeholders in some cases.

In this hierarchy in the education system where power and decision making is top-down, there is no guarantee that the intended curriculum will be effectively translated into implemented curriculum because of some challenges faced by implementers. The challenges may relate to factors that are beyond the control of principals while other factors border around the principal. At the school level, school leaders may not give the required support for curriculum implementation by not availing adequate resources and time for preparing lessons to be taught. Lack of training for teachers and school leaders on new reforms is also a hindering factor (OECD, 2020). In corroboration with OECD and with reference to Zimbabwe, Gory *et al.* (2021) cited challenges to do with lack of adequate resources such as textbooks for some learning areas and the view that CBC implementation had been rushed. The literature has evidence that lack of school leadership support hinders curriculum implementation (OECD, 2020). Lack of school leadership support implies that principals fail to provide enabling conditions for curriculum implementation as a result of lack of knowledge and training in the curriculum and paying little attention to what teachers need as what findings (at a low implementing school in South Africa revealed (Datnow, 2000).

Paying little attention to teachers' needs by the principal demotivates teachers resulting in a negative impact on the implemented curriculum and the blame here lies with the principal. This assertion is also echoed by Karakus (2021) who implored school leaders to maintain close proximity with their teachers and to strive to make available their professional and needs If principals do not accord due attention to teachers, the notion of demotivation creeps in and, as Karakus (2021:593) further argues, "teachers with low motivation think that school administration and society do not support them, they think their efforts go unnoticed and they feel limited". Where the challenge has to do with lack of resources and training of teachers and school leaders themselves on the new reforms, it can be argued that school principals cannot be found wanting for failure of the implemented curriculum. Rather, it is the prerogative of the local education agencies to organise in-service training of both teachers and principals on the new reforms. Resource mobilisation cannot be left to schools alone as most of them are situated in communities of low socio-economic status who cannot afford to pay for all the required resources (Marishane, 2020) (Section 2.5.3). Policy makers at the country level should, therefore, draw up policies that influence the national budget to allocate adequate funds to support the new education reforms that they will have introduced. It would not make logical sense for policy makers to introduce reforms without considering financial capacity to support those reforms.

2.9 The role of hierarchy, power and decision-making in social systems

Hierarchy, power and decision-making are of relevance to the ecological systems theory of

Bronfenbrenner, which has been discussed above. While the ecological system does not show hierarchy, Romme (2021) indicates systems as hierarchies. After defining hierarchy using a typology developed by Romme, an attempt will be made to merge the idea of the ecological system with the idea of hierarchy. Before discussing Romme's four types of hierarchy, it is necessary at this point to make a distinction between hierarchy and bureaucracy (Section 3.6.3), as these concepts are linked.

2.9.1 Hierarchy and bureaucracy: similarities and differences

Hierarchy is commonly understood if it is defined as a sequence of levels of formal authority, that is, the vertical official positions in an organisational structure in which each position is under the supervision and control of the higher one(Romme, 2021). . Hierarchy can, therefore, be viewed as a ladder of command. Bureaucracy on the other hand is an approach to leadership, which relies on a clear chain of command, strict regulations and conformation by its followers (Lee, 2020).

It can be observed from the definitions of these two concepts that they are related one way or the other although they have differences. Bureaucracy is a leadership approach or style but hierarchy is not. Instead, hierarchy is a bureaucratic characteristic or tenet. What this means is that one can distinguish bureaucratic leadership from other leadership approaches through hierarchy and other tenets such as division of labour, formal selection, career orientation, rules and regulations and impersonality (Lee, 2020).

However, the two concepts (hierarchy and bureaucracy) are similar when it comes to chain of command. Figures 2.7 and 2.8 depict hierarchy and decision-making authority at the macro level and micro (school) level respectively.

In this study, bureaucracy refers to the leadership approach as it is practised by MoPSE at the macrosystem level. Hierarchy is used to refer to the chain of command as it prevails in the whole education system (Figure 2.7) and as it exists at the school level (Figure 2.8).

2.9.2 Romme's four types of hierarchy

There are four types of hierarchy that can be merged to the idea of ecological systems theory, namely ladder of decision-making authority, ladder of achieved status or informal hierarchy levels, ladder of responsibility and ladder of ideology.

2.9.2.1 Ladder of decision-making authority

A ladder of authority involves the vertical formal integration of official positions within a single organisational structure, in which each position is under the supervision and control of a higher one, also known as the ladder of command (Romme, 2021). An example of a ladder that systematically differentiates authority but not related to education systems is as follows: the board of directors, CEO,

division managers, heads of department, team leaders and operational workers (Romme, 2021). Such a ladder for the whole education system, namely macrosystem, mesosystem and microsystem in the Zimbabwean context would be depicted diagrammatically as in Figure 2.7.

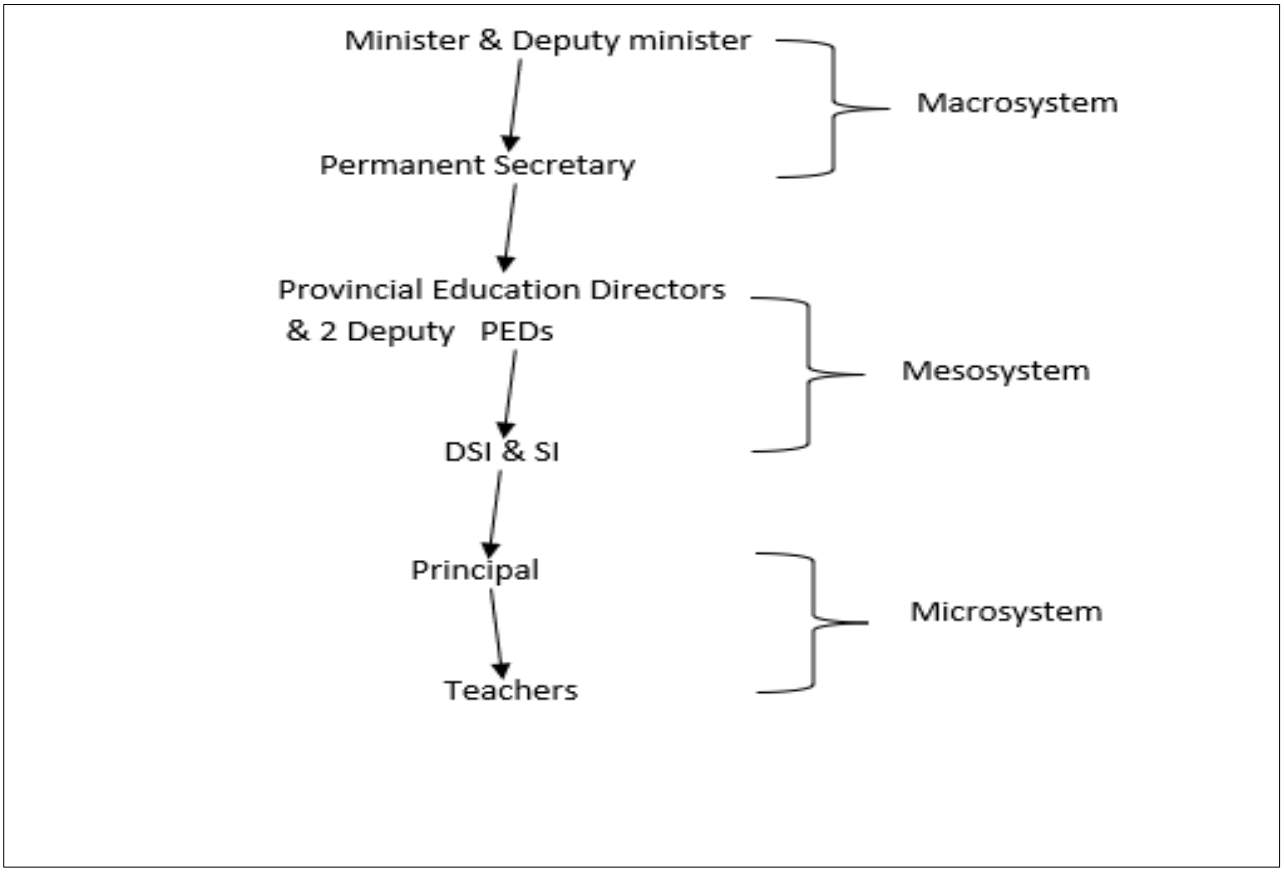

Figure 2. 7: Ladder of authority at the macro, meso and micro level (Adapted from Romme, 2021:5)

Figure 2.7 shows hierarchy and decision-making on a bigger picture but since the school is also a system, the same structure is also applicable. At the micro or school level of the ecological system, the ladder in the example above is similar to: the principal, deputy, TIC, senior master/mistress, teachers and learners.

Diagrammatically, the micro (school) level ladder of decision-making authority would be represented as shown below.

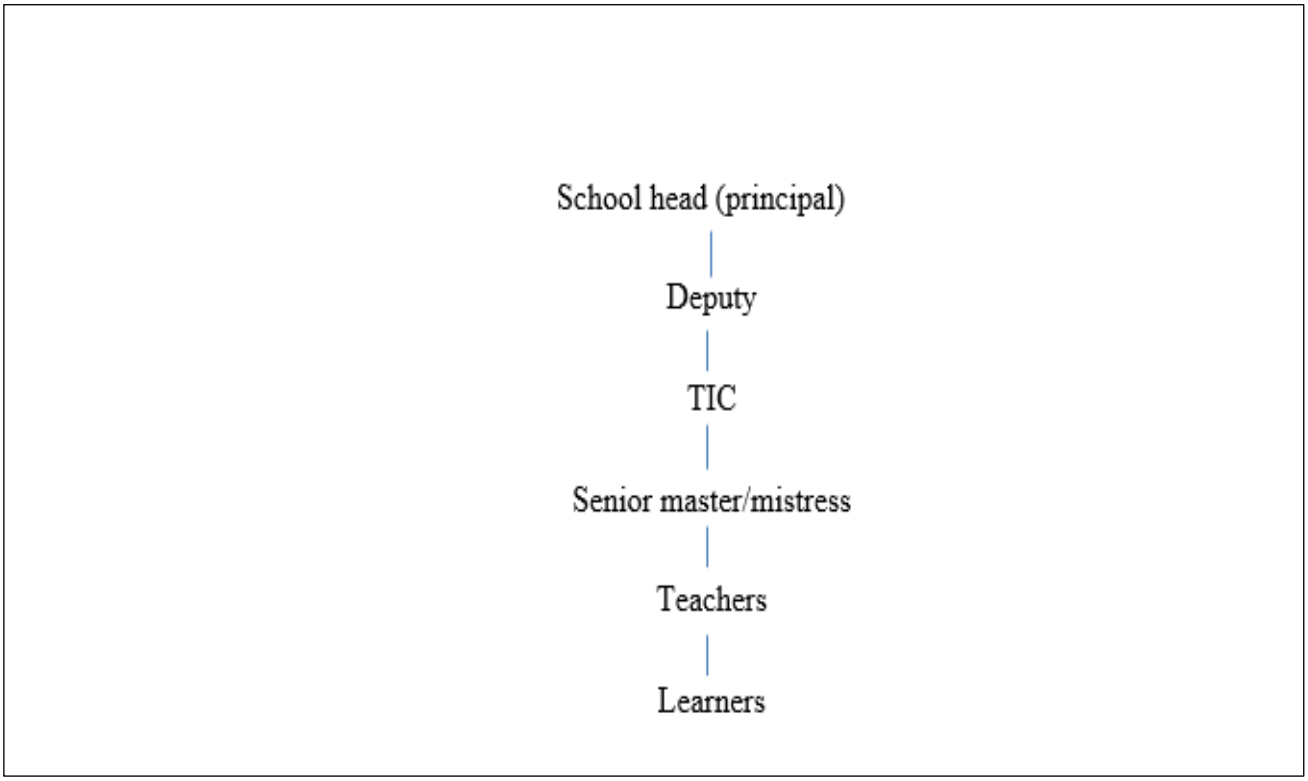

Figure 2. 8: Ladder of authority at micro (school) level (Adapted from Romme, 2021:5)

Romme's ladder of authority (Figures 2.7 and 2.8) is a typical bureaucratic leadership and organisational process. Any ladder of authority is legitimised by the constitution or statutes of the incumbent organisation (Romme, 2021). As such The author further states that a key constitutional or statutory principle is that people at the top of the authority ladder have the right to determine what should be done and must be obeyed (Ibid). With regard to Figure 2.8 above, decision-making authority to do with the implemented curriculum in the school, is concentrated at the principal who is at the top of the ladder. As highlighted in Section 2,5.1, the intended curriculum is backed by national policies since it is determined by the educational organisational system (macro level) of many countries of the world (Cil & Cepri, 2014; Phaeton & Stears, 2017).. In other words the intended curriculum standardises what is to be learnt in schools because it is an official document that is documented. This is reason why decision-making authority relating to the intended curriculum (Figure 2.6) is said to be concentrated at the macro level of the education system because that is where there are people at the top of the ladder.

Decision-making authority on the implemented curriculum rests with principals at the school (micro) level because schools on implementing the intentions and goals of the intended curriculum (Cil & Cepni, 2014). However, the decision-making authority of principals regarding the implemented curriculum is also monitored by policy makers through use of their monitoring agents at the mesosystem level such as the Provincial Education Directors (PEDs), DSIs and SIs. It should be understood that while the various levels of the education system are in interaction, it is more of a one directional interaction with decision-making

just going downwards in that hierarchical order.

2.9.2.2 Hierarchy as a ladder of status

According to Romme (2021), status refers to one's social standing or professional position relative to those of others or the respect one has in the eyes of others. What this suggests is that status is a socially constructed phenomenon, which is drawn on shared cultural beliefs of people in the same organisation and these beliefs make status differences appear natural and fair (Ibid). Any ladder of status is, therefore, unlike the ladder of authority in the sense that the former is socially constructed while the latter largely arises from the statutes of the organisation. The ladder of status is thus unfixed and adjustable as the status of people change compared to its authority-driven counterpart (Romme, 2021).

The ladder of status is not that relevant to this discussion on hierarchy, power and decision-making because it is socially constructed, without much power to make decisions on curriculum implementation. To a lesser extent, however, in a school setting, the chairperson of a learning area committee, who has been selected by other teachers on the basis of seniority, can make some decisions on the setting of, for example, end of term tests. Such decisions may have to do with who should set tests for which grade level and other members respect the decision because they are the ones who endorsed him or her as chairperson of the learning area. That way the ladder of status can be viewed as possessing decision-making power, although, the principal has the final decision on everything that is taking place in the school.

2.9.2.3 Hierarchy as ladder of responsibility

The ladder of responsibility, described by Romme (2021) as agile and/or holacratic forms of organising that exercise "real" rather than formal authority (p. 5), has not much relevance to the discussion of hierarchy, power and decision-making. This is so because the ladder of responsibility is a feature of cooperatives and the so-called sociocratic organisations that draw on a circular hierarchy of double-linked circles (Romme, 2021) something that does not exist in the education system. While responsibilities are there in the education system where in some cases a responsibility allowance can be paid, this responsibility is allocated to a person by someone above in the hierarchy.

In a school setting, for example, a teacher may be given the responsibility to be the sports director over and above his/her normal classroom duties. This extra responsibility to run the school's co-curricular activities comes with some authority to make decisions concerning sports, although the principal should be aware of the decisions, some of which can be reversed. By way of example, the sports director has power to organise friendly matches with other schools, in consultation with team managers, to prepare teams for a major tournament. However, permission to either to go or invite other schools for friendlies is granted by the principal.

2.9.2.4 Hierarchy as ladder of ideology

The ladder of ideology is applicable to the discussion of curriculum implementation in as far as it relates to the prevailing political and religious values and beliefs regarding how the organisation (education system in the case of this study) should operate (Romme, 2021). Ideally a ladder of ideology is a hierarchy in which leadership is established through use an ideology to justify the hierarchical relationships between higher and lower levels (Ibid). This ladder mainly applies to politics and religion where leaders are believed to have a vision to create political change or has access to higher levels of spirituality (Romme, 2021).

In the context of this study, ladder of ideology is linked to political leaders who are in the macrosystem level of the education system whose political values and beliefs are enshrined in the CFPSE 2015-2022. These values and beliefs are not only from policy makers but also from stakeholders such as parents and church organisations who constitute the exosystem level of the ecological systems model. In this regard, MoPSE (2015:13) states that Zimbabwean beliefs and values underpinning the curriculum include: "sovereignty, inter-dependence, mutual support, respect, discipline, readiness to help others and *Unhu/ Ubuntu/ Vumunhu"* (Section 2.3.1). Over and above the aforementioned values and beliefs, moral uprightness and pride in Zimbabwean identity permeate the curriculum (Ibid). The assertion that "Zimbabwean rootedness in the foregoing beliefs and values reflects pan-Africanist philosophy even in the face of globalisation" by MoPSE (2015:13), seemingly endorses the influence of international organisations in policy formulation of various developing and developed countries (Section 2.3.2). Thus, the ladder of ideology is observed to be applicable to this discussion on CBC implementation.

2.9.3 The concept of power

Closely linked to the hierarchy construct is the concept of power. The power of superordinates is based on "their ability and willingness to sanction others – to provide or withhold rewards and penalties" (Scott,1981:276). This is corroborated by Huther & Krucken (2013) who refer to the existence of power when someone can either control or influence something that other people want (desire). There are many power relations based on many desires in organisations. As an example, relations based on power between superordinates and subordinates can be observed when the latter back up the decisions made by the former for fear of negative sanctions or hope for rewards. As highlighted above, the idea of hierarchy is linked to power in the sense that people who are legally at the top of the authority ladder have the right to dictate targets and are supposed to be obeyed (Romme, 2021).

However, it is not always the case that power relations between superordinates and subordinates favours superordinates. Support units (teachers in this instance) have power. The principal or the role players higher up in the hierarchy may have all the plans and the curriculum but if the subordinates, that is teachers, do not implement the policy for whatever reason then they may have the power to make the principal look bad or the whole implementation will not be done. The problem is that it is difficult to manage

the subordinates who are not willing to comply and, therefore, they do have specific power.

Huther and Krucken (2013) assert that power is linked with decision-making processes in the organisations and this is supported by Romme's (2021) assertion that the top echelon are the rightful holders of the power to make key decisions. This implies that principals have power to make key decisions about the implemented curriculum at school level – decisions such as when teachers are expected to have covered the whole syllabus at each grade level in time for final examinations. Decision-making is seen, essentially, as involving the making of a choice from among several alternative actions (Palmer, 1992). This definition is much like that of Stoner and Freeman (1989) who state that decision-making is the identification and subsequent selection of a course of action. In Stoner and Freeman's definition, it can be observed that decision-making is a process where, in this context, school heads, when faced with an opportunity or a problem, propose and analyse alternative courses of action are proposed and make choices that are likely to move the school in the direction of its mission and goals (Vengesayi, 1995a). It follows that decision-making is an important element of leadership and management of schools because all other activities in the school are implemented because of the decisions that the head makes.

As stated above, principals, however, do not have much decision-making power in the intended curriculum because they cannot deviate from what is intended by the national curriculum developers or policy makers. While heads may have decision-making power in their schools concerning the implemented curriculum, this is in areas such as allocating teachers to classes to teach, deciding when to do class supervision visits, draw up timetables on the prescribed learning areas of the intended curriculum in line with their situated contexts. What they cannot do is to decide not to have the learning areas of the intended curriculum taught in their schools, much as they may not like the learning areas. Their negative attitude towards the intended curriculum may be manifested in the ineffective implementation of the intended curriculum but they can never openly state that they do not want the curriculum. Saying so would result in one being dismissed from the service.

Hierarchy, as a stable decision-making mechanism attached to formal positions, can only work if the members of the organisation are convinced that their superiors in the hierarchy have both negative sanctions and positive incentives (power) at their disposal to increase the likelihood of desired behaviour (Huther & Krucken, 2013). The above assertion sums up the relationship and role of the three concepts – hierarchy, power and decision-making in social systems. Put differently, the link can be abstracted thus, "hierarchy requires power in the background as institutional preconditions; otherwise the enforcement of decisions made is in the hierarchy is not assumed" (Huther & Krucken, 2013:314).

2.9.4 Four types of power as preconditions for hierarchical governance

There are five basic sources of managerial power that have been accepted by the literature, namely legitimate, reward power, coercive power, expert power and referent power (Singh, 2009). Magadzire

(2012) refers to these sources as power bases, which implies that the aforementioned are fundamental or underlying principles by which a person exercises power. Of these five, four of them (legitimate power, reward power, coercive power and expert power) are relevant to this discussion as preconditions for hierarchical governance. Referent power, as defined by Magadzire, seemingly does not qualify as precondition for hierarchical governance. Identification of the person with this power base is based on that person's personal characteristics such as charisma or "reciprocal identification based on friendship, association, sharing information, common interests, values and preferences" (Magadzire, 2012:202). This power base is, therefore, not significant in hierarchical governance of curriculum implementation because it is based on the person's characteristics.

2.9.4.1 Legitimate power as precondition for hierarchical governance

Legitimate power is formal power and authority legitimately granted to the manager (principal, in this context) under the charter by the organisation's peers (Singh, 2009). As highlighted above in Section 2.9, in relation to subordinates possessing power over superordinates, legitimacy has the implication that subordinates must accept or legitimise the power of the leader. It should be understood that where the legitimate power is not legitimised by the subordinates, the legitimate power may not be valuable. By way of example, in Zimbabwean primary schools, TICs have legitimate power to lead the infant department (ECD- Grade 2) in schools. But because being a TIC is not a substantive post, for which post holders get a responsibility allowance from ministry, some teachers do not legitimise the legitimate power of TICs and, as a result, they tend to snub their authority or even turn down the offer to be a TIC.

As stated above, legitimate power refers to the formal power bestowed on principals by statutes of the organisation such as the MoPSE, in the case of Zimbabwe. This formal power gives principals the legitimacy to make decisions relating to the implemented curriculum. However, while the macro (national) level has a legal position to make decisions on the implemented intended curriculum, it does not follow that teachers, who are the implementers, accept that decision-making power as legitimate. This is so especially when the teachers were not involved in the development of the intended curriculum. If teachers do not experience the decision-making power as legitimate, they may not be willing to implement the curriculum. This argument is supported by Huther and Krucker (2013), who state that power is an institutional precondition, otherwise the enforcement of decisions made in the hierarchy is not assumed. So if the power of policy makers is not considered legitimate because of lack of teacher involvement in decision-making, the crafted policies may not be implemented effectively.

2.9.4.2 Coercive power as precondition for hierarchical governance

Coercive power is predicted entirely upon fear of being : deprived of something for none compliance (Singh, 2009). The notion that principals can, for example, withhold promotion of aspiring teachers who need to be promoted, serves as coercive power to induce fear so that the implemented curriculum yields

the desired results as is expected by the curriculum developers. As has been attested above, coercive power means instilling fear in subordinates for non-compliance (Sullivan, 2012) – see also Section 3.7.1.3. In the process of implementing the new curriculum, coercive power means making schools implement the curriculum regardless of whether practising teachers and their principals have been adequately in-serviced or not, whether there are enough teaching and learning resources or not and whether implementers like or not. Coercive power does not take into consideration the challenges with curriculum implementation such as the ones stated above (lack of training of teachers in the new learning areas, unavailability of resources and willingness to implement). Fear of losing one's job makes both principals and teachers implement the curriculum under these circumstances.

2.9.4.3 Reward power as precondition for hierarchical governance

Reward power is the ability of the manager to confer or withhold rewards such as money, privileges, promotion, or status (Magadzire, 2012). From the researcher's experience and allocated position in the organisational hierarchy of MoPSE as school principal, power over resources does not have much impact as a precondition for hierarchical governance in Zimbabwean education system. Argument for this is that while national policy makers do possess reward power, it would only be sensible to allocate all schools with resources to use as a gesture to encourage schools to implement the new curriculum, which is the main goal. The aforementioned argument is also true for principals whose reward power in terms of resource allocation would reap positive curriculum implementation results if that power is used to fairly allocate resources to teachers so that the curriculum reform implementation is successful. It should, however, be realised that the national or provincial level of the system have power of resources, which they can use to either allocate more resources, especially to high-performing schools, or to withdraw resources from schools that seem not to put resources to effective use. The same is true for principals at the school level. On a more positive perspective, MoPSE could use its reward power to motivate principals and teachers who are implementing the curriculum through improving their salaries as well as their living and working conditions. In support of this assertion, Mokhele (2012) states that teacher's morale should be high, working conditions should be improved for effective curriculum implementation. These concerns were raised during interviews wherein participants complained about their poor salaries against a background of an increased workload resulting from the introduction of the CBC.

In light of the above, use of reward power by national policy makers to deprive resources does not generate the desired impact in the Zimbabwe context. The researcher feels that since all schools are implementing the CBC, the MoPSE has no reason to cut allocation of resources for use. Rather, the prevailing situation is that government is finding it difficult to provide adequate teaching and learning resources for the CBC. With regards financial rewards, the system of performance-related-pay to teachers was abandoned in the mid-1990s (Samkange, 2013). This assertion was one of CIETs (1999) findings that it, CIET, had learnt that an appraisal that was introduced in 1990 was being phased out. The phasing out

of this reward system was good news for most teachers who alleged that the approach lacked objectivity and was liable to abuse by principals of schools (Ibid). In place of the aforementioned appraisal system, the performance management appraisal system, also known as the result-based management (RBM) system, was introduced. Although year in, year out, teachers are made to complete RBM forms where they are rated, there is no salary change in line with the ratings. As a result, teachers no longer feel threatened by performance-related pay because their experience over the years tells them that this does not apply and government has no capacity to do that. While government has the power to reward teachers financially according to performance, it has no capacity to use that power because it does not have the money to sustain its reward power. Lack of money to sustain teachers' salaries comes as a challenge for government as confirmed by CIET (1999:153) that Zimbabwe faces the challenge "to allocate sufficient funds to meet recurrent expenditure costs in education provision, such as salaries, supervision, housing and allowances for teachers". However, despite all the reservations teachers and other respondents had on merit-related pay, there was consensus that good performance by teachers should be rewarded (Ibid).

2.9.4.4 Expert power as precondition for hierarchical governance

Expert power refers to possession of specialised knowledge valued by others, used to help others and given freely when solicited (Magadzire, 2012). In this instance, expertise is viewed as positive such as when a teacher leads a learning area or department because of specialised knowledge in that field. However, expert power can be perceived as negative when unsolicited expertise creates barriers. As Magadzire (2012:202) argues, "expertise offered condescendly is coercive" because an element of high-handedness exists where it is not necessary.

In the context of this study, the coercive and negative aspect of expert power can be likened to a school situation where the sole ICT teacher refuses or gives lame excuses to staff develop other teachers in his area of specialisation demanding the school to pay him an allowance for each staff development session. The new CBC has ICT as one of its core learning areas in line with globalisation yet there are very few primary school teachers in Zimbabwe who are computer literate (Section 2.10.3). It has been observed in some schools that some ICT teachers who lack professionalism coerce principals to succumb to their demands. While the above examples are isolated cases, they serve to attest instances of negative expert power used to arm twist others or create barriers.

2.9.5 Soft power: What it is and how it works in CBC implementation

Soft power is a phrase coined and made popular by Joseph Nye in the late 1980s (Wang & Lu, 2008; Trunkos, 2013). The earlier version of Nye's soft power definition was "the ability to get what you want through attraction rather than coercion and payment, which included culture, values and foreign policies" (Trunkos, 2013:3). Later, Nye extended his definition into "the ability to affect others through co-optive means of framing the agenda, persuading and eliciting positive attraction in order to obtain positive

outcomes" (Ibid). These are the strategies used by the more powerful countries and organisations to influence, for example, curriculum reform in nations to which they give aid – Zimbabwe, being one of them.

At the international level, soft power works by the use of attraction and persuasion instead of using force, (Pudaruth. 2017). This attractiveness rests on a country's material and non-material resources such as culture, ideology, institutions, values and foreign policies (Wang & Lu, 2008; Trunkos, 2013; Pudaruth, 2017). More specifically, soft power works by persuading others with reason and convincing others with moral principles as viewed by Chinese scholars (Wang & Lu, 2008). Soft power might also refer to influence, through persuasion, of nations, organisations as well as societies (Ibid). This, therefore, implies that soft power applies not only to nations, but also regions, organisations and even individuals (Wang & Lu, 2008). Taken to apply to individuals, the conception of soft power can be linked to CBC implementation in the Zimbabwean context.

In what the researcher observes to be a situation non-existent of this conception, the MoPSE is expected to have used soft power to attract teachers to embrace the CBC instead of "twisting their arms" (Pudaruth, 2017) by just making them implement the reform without adequate content and teaching knowledge of some of the new learning areas and relevant teaching and learning resources, for example. Through use of soft power, which could have been in the form of activities involving the CBC-branding, MoPSE could have persuaded teachers to want the CBC implementation. According to interview responses of principals and teachers, the CBC-brand is attractive because a good number of the participants confessed that the new curriculum was good in itself. By deducing from the concept of nation-brand (Pudaruth, 2017), CBC-brand is the sum total of perceptions stakeholders have with regard to the image of the CBC. As aforementioned, principals and teachers perceive the CBC as a better curriculum compared to the previous one. However, it appears that what needs to be improved upon is CBC-branding.

Further deducing from the concept of nation-branding (Pudaruth, 2017), the CBC-branding refers to the continued effort of the MoPSE to market the concept of the CBC to various stakeholders, particularly the main implementers who are teachers and school leaders. The negative reception of the CBC alluded to in Section 1.4 could have been a result of lack of proper CBC-branding by the MoPSE at the initial stages of implementation. Since the CBC-branding is a conscious and perpetual (continuous) process, there is room for the MoPSE to adopt use of soft power to get principals and teachers want what it wants, that is, effective implementation of the CBC. MoPSE, with financial support from government, can attract the CBC implementers to produce the desired outcomes by, for example, paying teachers handsome salaries to motivate them, availing adequate resources, in-servicing practising teachers in the new learning areas and training new teachers in line with the demands of the CBC. The researcher feels that the government is capable of doing all this, judging by the nation's abundant tangible resources such as minerals and tobacco, which can be generated into financial resources to support the CBC implementation among many other national programmes that need financial support.

This section links Chapter 2 to Chapter 3, which will discuss leadership and management during curriculum implementation. The concepts of power, hierarchy and decision-making will still be relevant in the discussion of leadership styles such as shared or participative leadership and bureaucratic leadership. It will be seen how shared leadership can be part of curriculum implementation in a system perceived to be bureaucratically and hierarchically governed.

2.10 Challenges and gaps created by implementing new CBC

The implementation of the new CBC in Zimbabwe has created gaps and challenges in the education system. With reference to equity gaps, Ziegler, Kuo, Eu, Gläser-Zikuda, Nuñez, Yu and Harder (2021) refer to "gap" as identifiable systematic differences between groups. Seen in this light and in the context of this study, a gap is taken to refer to identifiable systematic differences between policy intend and policy implementation of the CBC. Policy intend refers to the intended curriculum by policy makers while policy implementation refers to the implemented curriculum as it is operationalised in schools. Challenges, on the other hand, are viewed as obstacles to curriculum implementation (Bennie & Newstead, 1999). Literally challenges are difficulties or problems to implementing the new CBC.

While there appears to be a difference in meaning between gaps and challenges, in this thesis, the perceived gaps are viewed as closely linked to challenges because, for example, a void in research skills by practising teachers turns out to be a challenge in curriculum implementation for not only teachers, but also principals and MoPSE. For this reason, the discussion will identify gaps created and go further to spell out the resultant challenges created by the gaps in curriculum implementation. According to OECD (2019), studies on new curriculum implementation have found that there are gaps and challenges to any curriculum reform. The next sub-sections discuss some of these gaps and challenges as they apply to Zimbabwe specifically and to other countries in general.

2.10.1 Human and material resources gaps and challenges to CBC implementation

There are identifiable systematic differences between policy intend and policy implementation with regard to human and material resources such that introduction of the CBC has created a gap in this regard. It is expected that schools should have infrastructural resources such as ICT labs, resource centres, agricultural fields and sporting fields (MoPSE, 2015) in line with the CBC. While some affluent schools may already have been having these resources before the introduction of the new CBC, the majority of schools, especially those situated in rural do not have these resources. A gap has, therefore, been created between the intended curriculum and the implemented curriculum. Of serious concern is the shortage or non-existence of computers in most schools, which compromises policy intend to prepare Zimbabwean learners for the needs of the 21st century (MoPSE, 2015). Curriculum implementation in the area of ICT is thus heavily affected in the sense that the challenge of lack of computers in schools is compounded by lack of content and pedagogical knowledge by most practising teachers. A shortage of adequate textbooks

for the new learning areas is another challenge for principals and teachers, which again negatively impacts both intended and implemented curriculum.

The reason why there are serious shortages of resources to support implementation of the CBC is lack of funding by government. This assertion is buttressed in the CIET (1999) report wherein it is stated that "Zimbabwe is facing economic problems that have led to a decline (in real terms) in public funding" (p. 153). However, it is argued that since education is a public good, government has the obligation to take the lead in funding education, though with the assistance from other stakeholders such as parents and NGOs, in spite of its economic challenges. Concerning the already existing assistance from parents and companies to the education of learners, CIET (1999) state that the assistance is a case of cost sharing, whereby the beneficiaries of education should also contribute to its cost. The importance of teaching and learning resources in curriculum implementation stressed by Karakus (2021) in the assertion that there will be difficulties in implementation regardless of the no matter how talented the teachers might have.

The identifiable systematic differences between policy intend and policy implementation in terms of human resources is that there is no harmonisation between teacher education curriculum and the school curriculum, in particular, the CBC. While the Zimbabwean education system already has practising teachers, this crop of teachers was not trained in line with the demands of the new CBC; hence, the gap. This gap has brought with it challenges for school principals who are finding in difficult to find specialist teachers for new learning areas such as ICT, Physical Education, Sport and Mass Display (PESMD), Visual and Performing Arts (VPA). A Report on Teacher Education and School Curriculum Harmonisation in Zimbabwe recognises that there is a gap when it states that there is a medium-to-long term solution to this human resources gap (Chivore, 2019). The pronouncement of medium-to-long term solution to the human resources gap was made in 2017, when it became evident during the initial implementation stages that practising teachers had no content knowledge of the new learning areas (Ibid). Medium-to-long term refers to a period over which operations are conducted or results contemplated. In this instance the medium term is the period between the short term and the long term. The long term is that period that ranges between five to ten years, because ideally, a curriculum should be reviewed every ten years (Magadzire, 2012). The chronosystem in the context of this study outlines a phased approach of the implementation activities of the CBC (Section 2.6.5), but is silent about timelines to do with training of teachers in line with the curriculum reform.

In the foreword of the report mentioned above, both ministers of education – Murirwa (Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development) and Mavhima (Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education) – concur that "the harmonisation framework of teacher education curriculum and the school curriculum is crucial since both curricular are in sync with the competence based primary and secondary school curriculum" (Chivore, 2019:vii). In the same foreword the permanent secretary for Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE), Thabela, is quoted stating that "the key priority for the

transformation of the Teacher Curriculum rests on the gap that has developed between the school curriculum and teacher education curriculum", (Chivore, 2019:ix). The gap she refers to is between the introduction of the new CBC and the need for the specialist teachers in primary schools. The gap will see the introduction of subject specialisation in primary school colleges of education, where students who train as primary teachers should specialise in the subjects they teach as opposed to the current (2018) situation, whereby would-be primary teachers are expected to teach all the subjects (Chivore, 2019).

2.10.2 Knowledge and practice gaps created by introduction of a CBC

Linked to the human resources gaps are knowledge and practice gaps. There are identifiable systematic differences in terms of teachers' knowledge and practice between the previous curriculum and the new CBC. The CBC created a knowledge gap with spillover effects on teaching practice. The current practising educators have no content knowledge of a good number of the CBC learning areas as well as knowledge of the teaching methods for these learning areas (practice gaps). As highlighted in Section 1.4, for example, research studies carried out locally this far point to teachers' lack of knowledge of the content of the new learning areas, among other problems, as a challenge to the CBC implementation (Esau & Mpofu, 2017). The need for teachers to have content knowledge is supported by Calderhead (1997), who argues that the teacher as a professional is required to have a body of specialised knowledge for the teaching practice to be professional. Further to this, Bennin and Newstead (1999) make reference to studies that bring out the strong link that exists between teacher content knowledge and proper classroom instruction. Sahin (2012) explains the aforementioned body of professional knowledge in three domains of content knowledge: a) subject matter content knowledge, b) pedagogical content knowledge and c) curricular knowledge. By implication subject matter content knowledge means that teachers must both be capable of defining for students the accepted truths in a domain and also be able to explain why a particular knowledge is worthy knowing and how it relates to other pieces of knowledge, both in theory and practice (Sahin, 2012). Pedagogical content knowledge refers to "the particular form content knowledge that embodies the aspects of content knowledge most germane to its teachability" (Shulman, 1997:85). Lastly, curricular knowledge refers to the knowledge expected of teachers regarding curricular alternatives and the associated materials available for instruction of a specific topic (Ibid).

Challenges created by knowledge and practice gaps relate to teachers, principals and MoPSE. A good number of practising teachers in Zimbabwe lack knowledge of the aforementioned new learning areas and this negatively affects how they teach these learning areas. The CBC requires that teachers change to facilitators of learning, that is, change from the behaviourist approach to the constructivist approach of teaching (Section 2.2.2.2). Such challenges for teachers result in resistance to either the new curriculum or the teaching methods. The resistance comes mainly from experienced teachers who have been in the service for a long time, so they think that traditional methods are better (Karakus, 2021). This they do with the belief that the curriculum change is there for a short while and will eventually return to traditional

(Ibid).The challenges to new curriculum implementation as a result of teachers' lack of content knowledge of new learning areas is not unique to Zimbabwe. Findings of a research in South Africa with regard to Curriculum 2005, for example, revealed that teachers did not have adequate knowledge of the concepts hence they made a lot of errors in their lessen presentations (Bennie & Newstead, 1999).

The above stated challenges for teachers incidentally turn out to be challenges for principals and MoPSE. The fact that teachers do not have content knowledge and subsequently pedagogical knowledge to teach the new learning areas makes it a challenge for both principals and the ministry. In the event of teachers resisting the new CBC because of the aforementioned challenges specific to teachers, it becomes a challenge for principals to break this resistance and to convince teachers that the curriculum should be implemented fully (Karakus, 2021). It is indeed a challenge for principals if teachers do not agree to implement it exactly as specified – what Karakus (2021:595) refers to as "fidelity to curriculum".

The proposed harmonisation of the teacher education curriculum and school curriculum is a capacity development measure to bridge these gaps through subject specialisation as teachers will gain adequate learning content and teaching methods of their areas of specialisation during training at college. This measure by the two sister ministries is an acknowledgement that it is indeed a challenge to them, which needs to be addressed. However, the researcher is of the view that this harmonisation should have come first before the implementation of the CBC. This situation appears to authenticate what Gauthier (2013) observed as challenges in various African countries that adopted curriculum reforms (see Section 2.3.2). The observation was that teacher training was badly designed and this is the same situation in Zimbabwe where the CBC was introduced in schools before harmonising it with teachers' colleges.

For practising teachers, one way of easing their lack of content knowledge would be in-service training because they need help to reconceptualise the manner in which they make sense of their new roles. Such a view resonates with that of Tobin and Dawson (1992:81) who state that "teacher education is a critical component of curriculum change so that they become educated in the use of resources to facilitate learning for students in their classrooms". For content knowledge, another mitigating measure in the absence of specialised education is that practising teachers should rely on syllabi and new curriculum textbooks, which are currently being published.

This approach by teachers can be viewed as self-development, which should be considered important in view of the existing knowledge and practise gaps. Research studies have shown that self-development can be done collaboratively at school level if time for collaborative professional training is allocated by principals (OECD, 2019). During these collaborative professional training sessions, teachers share ideas on syllabus interpretation and teaching methods, for example. In support of this team spirit and collaboration among teachers OECD (2019) cites a comparative case study of two urban school districts in the USA implementing new curriculum mathematics. Findings of the study revealed qualitative differences

in teachers' understanding of new ways of teaching mathematics – a sign of the positive impact of collaborative professional development as opposed to specialised education.

2.10.3 Lack of research skills by practising teachers as a gap created by the new CBC

One policy regarding the CBC is the preparation of Zimbabwean learners to meet the needs of the 21st century (MoPSE, 2015). This policy intend focuses on making technology take centre stage, assumption being that the educators have ICT and research skills to assist learners. The identifiable, systematic differences between the intended curriculum and the implemented curriculum is that the majority of teachers, especially those trained long ago, do not possess ICT skills; hence, they cannot effectively teach their learners research skills. While the intended curriculum would want to prepare learners for the needs of the 21st century, this is not hundred percent possible because the implementers (teachers) do not have the requisite technological skills.

This gap is confirmed by a survey conducted by the Teacher Education Review Committee (TERC), which found that practising teachers lack skills in research (Chivore, 2019). The reason for this is that most of the practising teachers are not ICT literate and can hardly use computers. The committee thus recommended that research be done as a stand-alone subject, which is compulsory for all student teachers. According to the Report on Teacher Education and School Curriculum harmonisation in Zimbabwe, 2018, research should be introduced to pupils at a tender age starting at ECD level, but the challenge is that teachers in schools do not have skills in research to enable them to impart such skills to their pupils (Chivore, 2019). This gap translates into a challenge for practising teachers in the sense that while they are expected to teach learners ICT skills such as research, they cannot implement that part of the curriculum because they too do not have the skills. Lack of ICT skills by practising teachers is also a challenge for school principals because it is a problem for them as leaders that some learning areas like ICT are not being practically taught due to teachers not having the skills. Most of the principals also do not have ICT skills, a problem that compromises their supervision of the learning area because they are not aware of what to expect when observing teachers conducting a lesson. This gap negatively impacts the CBC implementation in that, in the absence of specialist teachers and adequate textbooks, practising teachers would benefit learners if they had research skills. The report recommends bridging the gap by conducting in-service training for teachers as well as having research as a stand-alone subject in Colleges of Education.

2.11 Summary

This chapter addressed the CBC meanings, development and implementation by first giving the historical background of the CBC. This entailed identifying its origins and countries that adopted it in the Americas, Oceania, Europe and in Africa. The discussion then centred on Zimbabwe's historical context of the CBC as it is the country under research. In the process, characteristics of the CBC were outlined in the Zimbabwean context vis-à-vis other countries, which adopted it. Curriculum implementation as a key term

in the research topic was discussed. First, curriculum implementation was discussed using a curriculum framework adapted from Rogan and Aldous, 2005. The three main constructs of this framework, namely school capacity to support implementation, external support for implementation and profile of implementation, were unpacked. Reference was made to the policy document for curriculum implementation to show the link between the adopted framework by Rogan and Aldous (2005) and what is contained in the Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education (CFPSE) policy document. This chapter applied Rogan and Aldous's curriculum implementation framework, which is underpinned by Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory. The other theory used in this chapter to explain curriculum implementation is the input and output theory. The chapter also cited studies carried out in other countries in respect of how each level influenced curriculum implementation and known similar cases in the Zimbabwean context were cited. Issues of hierarchy, power and decision-making in the various levels of the ecological system layers as well as challenges or gaps created by the introduction of the new curriculum were also addressed. Chapter 3 will focus on leadership and the CBC implementation.

CHAPTER 3 LEADERSHIP AND THE IMPLEMENTATION OF A COMPETENCE-BASED CURRICULUM

3.1 Introduction

This chapter discusses leadership and the implementation of a CBC. There is leadership at three of the levels of the ecological systems model as described in Section 2.6. These levels are the macrosystem, the mesosystem and the microsystem level. In the Zimbabwean education system, most policies and decisions to do with the CBC implementation are made by the Department of Education (MoPSE, 2015), which can be equated to the macrosystem level of the ecological systems model. The aforementioned policies and decisions relate to those developed by the Department of Education as they pertain to the operationalisation of the CBC. However, there are other policies at the national level that have been developed with input from various stakeholders such as NGOs, parents, industry and commerce (sections 1.3 and 2.3.1). The mesosystem, as discussed in Section 2.6, is also a policy formulation level but which is guided by macrosystem policies. The study investigates whether the leadership style of the CBC implementation is authoritarian or not at the macrosystem level. This is done through establishing if school leaders have any decision-making input relating to curriculum implementation or whether it is just ministry dictating all the work methods and processes relating to the CBC implementation. Authoritarianism is very much linked to bureaucracy – a system that emphasises hierarchy and lines of decision-making authority (Romme, 2021) (Section 2.9.1.1). School principals, for example, have decision-making authority because of their formal position in the hierarchy of the education system.

The chapter commences by discussing the systems theory and the need for synergy in implementing the CBC. While Chapter 2 discussed the ecological systems theory developed by Bronfenbrenner (1979), Chapter Three has bearing on organisations with reference to managerial issues, educational inputs and outputs that relate to leadership implementation of the CBC. This chapter also discusses systems theory in respect of these features: input and output relating to and emerging from the CBC, relationship between input throughput output with different levels of the system and how feedback takes place in the different levels. Theoretical perspectives of educational leadership guiding the study, namely Mc Gregor's theory X and theory Y, are presented together with related leadership styles, namely autocratic and democratic styles. The duality and overlap between leadership and management in curriculum implementation is analysed to show how complementary these concepts are. Curriculum leadership as a domain of leadership styles is discussed with the focus on its related perspectives and practices expected of school leaders. This is linked with the motivational theory of Herzberg, which is important during curriculum implementation process.

In order to link the literature with the research questions, some sections of the chapter discuss school leaders' and teachers' experiences of curriculum implementation (see section 3.5) and the influence of

curriculum change on leadership practices (roles) (see section 3.6.2). As this study is on implementation of a curriculum innovation, the concept of change is discussed with special attention being given to related theories of change, namely rational empirical, normative re-educative and power coercive. Attention is also given on to how a change in curriculum influences leadership roles of practising school leaders. Since the organisational structure of the education system in Zimbabwe is undeniably bureaucratic, the chapter discusses how bureaucracy characteristics relate to other leadership styles in this curriculum change process.

3.2 The systems theory and the need for synergy in implementing the CBC

The systems theory visualised in Figure 3.1 differs from the one discussed in Chapter 2 (see Section 2.6) in that the one in Chapter 2 mainly focused on boundary management as a practice and spoke of input in the system in the form of the intended curriculum only. In this chapter, the focus will be on the origins of the systems theory, identifying educational inputs and outputs, discussing feedback in the education system and linking each of the parts of the systems theory to the CBC implementation process.

The systems theory can be traced back to Luduring von Bertalanffy, a biologist in the 1960s who pioneered it as the general systems theory, according to Wang (2004). The biologist observed that all the systems studied by physicists are closed and, therefore, do not interact with the outside world (Heylighen & Joslyn, 2002). This observation of closed systems studied by physicists draws attention to the notion of systems theory that brings out differences of the open, closed and isolated systems (Mele, Pels & Polese, 2010). This broad classification of the systems theory as closed systems and open systems is a way by which scholars have attempted to characterise organisations in order to view them more scientifically depending on their presumptions (Thompson as cited by Allen & Sawhney, 2018). From a systems point of view an organisation is a set of interacting functions that receives inputs from the environment, process them and then send back the output to the external environment (Daft, 2008). Figure 3.1 below depicts a systems view of organisations.

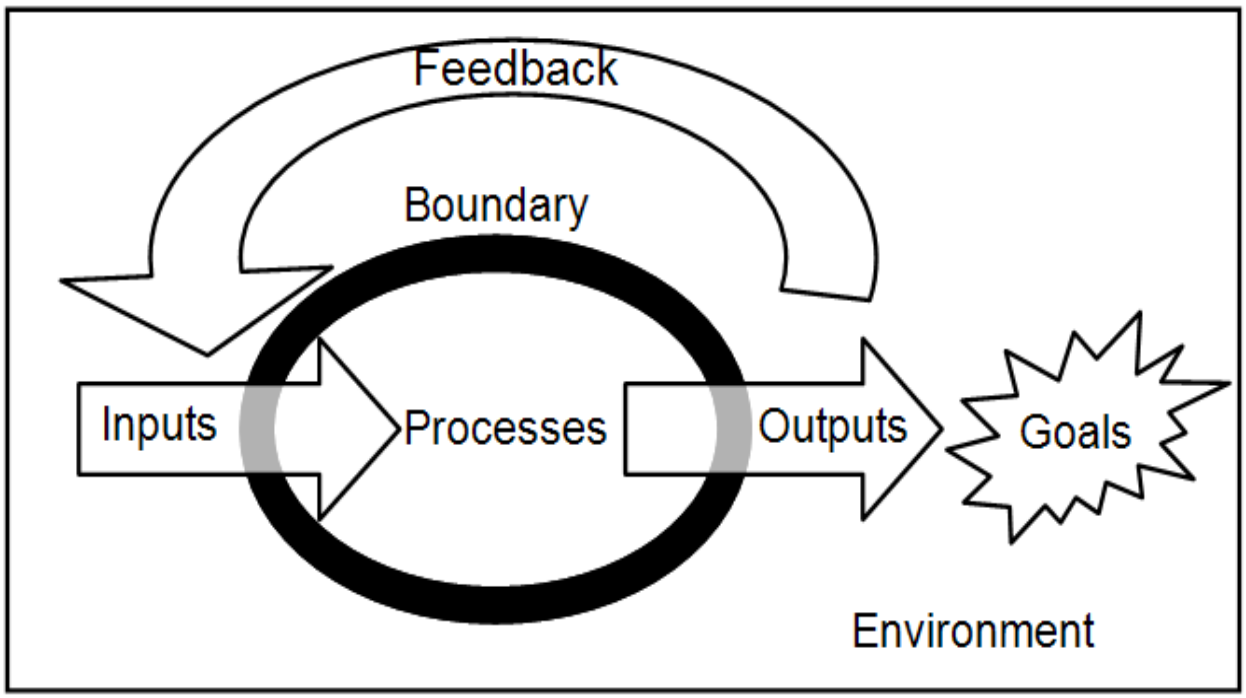

Figure 3. 1: Systems view of organisations (Adapted from Haines, 1972:1)

Closed system models can be distinguished from the other models in that they depend on internal organisational processes instead of the external environment for explanations or solutions to managerial issues (Daft, 2008). The main objective of closed systems is efficiency in the operations of the organisation (Ibid). In this hypothetical situation related to this study, for example, if the CBC implementation fails to reach the expected standards of policy makers at the macro level, a closed system approach would look for explanations from within the schools and adopt correctional measures. This means that the ministry would not seek solutions from stakeholders such as parents and industry and commerce (external environment). At the school (micro) level, implication is that school leaders would seek solutions for the failure of the CBC implementation from teachers and learners only and be closed for parents because the leaders assume that the parents are not capable of making meaningful contributions. In this case, a closed system approach would not pay attention to the external environment to identify causes of the failure (Allen & Sawhney, 2018).

However, the literature in general indicates that both the macrosystem and microsystem levels are not closed as there is interaction between the various systems levels (Section 2.6). The literature specific to Zimbabwe also indicates that MoPSE (the macro level) is not that closed for the external environment as it sought the views of stakeholders about the proposed curriculum in the initial stages of the CBC formulation (MoPSE, 2015). In the same curriculum framework, parental support during the CBC implementation is called for, indication that the school as a system is not closed for external environment. Findings of the study should reveal whether the macrosystem and microsystem are closed or not.

Closed system models, also called classical/traditional models, have three subfields that fall under this perspective namely scientific management, administrative management and bureaucratic management (Allen & Sawhney, 2018). While closed systems models speak of organisations operating like well-oiled machines, open systems models have a humanistic perspective of management which is enshrined in human relations theories such as the total quality management (TQM) model and the supply chain/synergy model, which are not the focus of this discussion (Chingara, 2019; Allen & Sawhney, 2018). .

The above description of open and closed systems have some limitations in real life situations. As Heil (2017:2) puts it:

> A true closed system is considered to be purely hypothetical, meaning that they can only exist in theory because every system needs some sought of input and output functions. However, on the opposite side, there are no perfectly open systems either. Open systems do have some point of closing or restriction in place to maintain balance through the self-regulating process.

Of major interest, however, is the idea that the external variables or events play a significant role in explaining what is happening within the organisation. Revisiting the example of the CBC implementation failing to reach the expected standards, that has been discussed above under closed system model, an open system approach would look for internal as well as external reasons for the failure. This implies that the open system models are more realistic in identifying workable solutions as compared to closed system models, but they are extremely difficult to interpret due to dynamic interactions among the external variables (Allen & Sawhney, 2018). As highlighted above in this section and as shall be observed from conclusions on the findings, Zimbabwe's education system is classified as neither perfectly closed nor perfectly open.

Another feature of the systems theory is that systems are made up of parts, which then make up a whole and these parts are in interaction with each other. Aristotle's Holism, according to Mele, Pelo and Polose (2010), views knowledge as coming from looking at the whole thing not from looking at the individual parts that make up the whole. Conversely, according to Gorbinelli (2009), the interaction of the parts themselves and the events and knowledge they produce through their interaction become much more important resulting in the conclusion that systems parts are rationally connected towards a shared purpose. In this study the relationships between the various parts of the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MoPSE) and their interaction are rationally connected towards a shared purpose of successful new CBC implementation.

Based on what has been discussed in respect of the systems theory, a system can be viewed as something that is consistent or a unit which is a coherent whole (Ng, Maull & Yip, 2009). The concept of `a

whole` can be deduced to imply that a system is made up parts that then constitute a whole. Mutekwe (2019) reinforces this by speaking to the existence of boundaries around a system that distinguish internal and external elements and identify input and output relating to and emerging from the entity. A systems theory is therefore a “theoretical perspective that analyses a phenomenon seen as a whole and not simply the sum of elementary parts” (Mutekwe, 2019:5) contrary to Aristotle’s Holism. This view is shared by Mele *et al.* (2010) who state that a systems theory is an intellectual view that examines an occurrence or experience taken in its entirety and not as merely the sum total of its constituent parts. Emphasis of the systems theory, however, is on how the parts interact and relate to each other in order to understand how the entity functions.

Drawing from the definition of systems theory by Mele *et al.* (2010), the implementation of the new CBC is taken to be the occurrence or experience, which is being examined in this study in its entirety. The system herein is the MoPSE whose constituent parts are, for example, schools (where the better part of implementation takes place), the district and provinces.

3.2.1 Input and output relating to and emerging from the CBC

Input is what is put in or taken in by a process or system to come up with an output. Specific to this study, the process of CBC implementation by Zimbabwe’s education system requires many inputs to create an output which Otara and Niyirora (2016) refer to as the student and his knowledge. The inputs are in the form of infrastructure aligned to the CBC, teaching and learning materials, teachers and educational funding. Learning can occur anywhere, but the positive learning outcomes sought by educational systems, such as those sought by MoPSE, happen in qualitative and conducive learning environments (Otara & Niyirora, 2016). It means, therefore, that school infrastructure (physical learning environments), as input where formal learning takes place, should be modern and well-equipped buildings to qualify as conducive learning environments.

Examples of teaching and learning materials inputs are books, computers and furniture, which when inadequately provided, can compromise the CBC implementation. Human resources as inputs to curriculum implementation refer to teachers, principals and non-teaching staff, with teachers as the main input because they impact implementation of the CBC in a significant way. The educational funding input comes from various sources such as the government, school fees/levies and NGOs like World Vision, which at times contributes in terms of instructional materials, finances and equipment (Otara & Niyirora, 2016).

Over and above these inputs, some studies include at the microsystem level intangible inputs such as student-teacher ratios, teacher quality and other school and student characteristics as strong predictors for educational improvement (Connell-Farrow, 2019). Student characteristic speak to differences in for example, cognitive skills, levels of motivation and backgrounds (Ibid), which affect positively or negatively

their interaction with teachers in the implementation of the CBC. Similarly, high student-teacher ratios as intangible inputs in schools affect negatively the interaction between learners and the other inputs such as teachers, books, buildings, computers and furniture resulting in ineffective curriculum implementation. If a teacher has too many learners in her class, she is unable to give adequate individual attention to all learners; too large a class needs other adequate inputs such as textbooks, computers and furniture so that learners do not scramble for them, damaging them in the process.

Teacher quality, as an intangible input, refers to academic qualification, pedagogical training, content knowledge, ability and years of experience of individual teachers (Ankomah, Koomson, Bosu & Oduro 2005). In this study, practising teachers lack pedagogical training and content knowledge of most of the new learning areas of the CBC. School characteristics as intangible inputs refer to the school's setting (urban or rural) and the ability of the school's parents body to support curriculum implementation. Interaction among inputs at the school level should be such that it favours effective curriculum implementation so that the output is well-educated learners with the requisite skills and competences needed in the world of work. Output emerging from the interaction of the various inputs relating to the CBC implementation, as stated above by Otara and Niyirora (2016), are educated learners.

3.2.2 Relationship between input, throughput and output with different levels of the system

The above discussion in Section 3.2.1 focused on how the microsystem level receives inputs from the other levels of the ecological systems model. As a level, its input is transforming the inputs given to it during the teaching and learning process. Its outputs in the form of educated learners serve as input to other levels as shall be discussed in Section 3.2.3 on feedback. As has been highlighted in Section 2.6.2, the input from the mesosystem level are policies generated at the local level such as the District and Provincial levels in the Zimbabwean context. It should, however, be noted that policies made at this level are guided by those made at the macrosystem level.

The macrosystem level inputs are not only policies, but also funding and provision of material and human resources, all things being equal, because that is the national level guiding everything that has to do with curriculum implementation. The policies generated at this level cascade down the mesosystem level to the microsystem level and the policies are those that determine standards of teaching and learning as well as those that promote implementation (Section 2.6.3). Trained teachers (human resources) are another input from the macrosystem level in partnership with external organisations such as teachers' colleges and universities. Yet another input from this level is funding through educational grants and teaching and learning materials with the aid of NGOs. However, in Zimbabwe, per capita grant or grant-in-aid to schools has since been abandoned. What has been adopted is the Basic Education Assistance Module (BEAM) programme, which is meant to assist orphans and vulnerable children with fees (Gory et al., 2021).

However, the researcher observed that this money takes a lot of time to be distributed to schools by the Social Welfare Department and some schools do not even benefit from the programme.

Again, as highlighted in Section 2.6.4, input to the system from the exosystem level are broad societal and cultural beliefs about the purpose, or goals of education and they vary within countries (OECD, 2020; Spring, 2010). This input influences policy makers in the macrosystem level as they design the curriculum because they have to take heed of what society wants lest they face resistance to their curriculum from parents of learners. Also influenced by the exosystem level input are teachers at the microsystem level in the sense that what teachers have to teach and how they teach it is dictated by societal and cultural beliefs (OECD, 2020 ; Spring, 2010). While this argument appears to hold water, intangible teacher personal factors such as knowledge, experience, skills and attitudes that teachers bring to the job Marishane (2020) may impact negatively on the above exosystem input on teachers if there is no motivation to teach.

3.2.3 How feedback links to different levels of the system

The concept of feedback is important in understanding how a system maintains a steady state or equilibrium (Haines, 1972). If schooling is considered a production process, which indeed it is, educational inputs are transformed into educated learners with skills and competences (Cornell-Farrow, 2019). Productivity in the education sector describes how efficiently these inputs are transformed into educated learners. This analysis of productivity is of importance to the education sector where the results translate into policy (Ibid). By implication this means that the results of an analysis of what takes place in the microsystem (school) level turns out to be feedback to the macrosystem whose actors receive this feedback as input from schools and utilise the feedback to craft policies that keep the system in homeostasis (Mele, et al., 2010).

The system is preoccupied with negative and positive feedback mechanisms during the learning process (Lai & Lin, 2017). Negative feedback is there to correct errors in order to maintain the current state of the system while positive feedback is to change the system through improvement or growth (Ibid). It needs to be highlighted that feedback that this study focuses on is that which policy makers need to correct errors to maintain the status quo or to change through improvement of the CBC implementation process. It is not the kind of feedback learners would want from their teacher after having been given a task. It is the feedback teachers and principals (microsystem level actors) and examination boards (external organisation) get after assessing learners' skills and competence levels that is important to policy makers. This assessment of learners (Section 2.2.2.3) together with principals' experiences of how the CBC is being implemented in schools amount to feedback that policy makers need to prescribe new policies on the CBC.

According to Heil (2017), a good system will seek homeostasis by interchanging with its environment through feedback loops that inform the system on how and what to change to maintain homeostasis. The

case of Zimbabwe's education system, the way the researcher observes, is that schools are required to make returns on what the mesosystem wants pertaining CBC such moderated Continuous Assessment Learner Activities (CALA) scores for onward transmission to ZIMSEC- the local examination board for grading learners. Schools are not given room to inform the system on how the moderation was done by untrained moderators some of whom lacked content knowledge of the learning areas they moderated at school level. Learners had very little time to work on their CALAs so were the moderators who had little time to work on the learners' projects. If there was proper communication between the macrosystem and the microsystem (feedback loops), for 2021, final examination results for all examination classes should not have included CALA scores because the whole CALA process was rushed and is not a true reflection of what learners actually did. Because the system is closed, the decision to include CALA marks will be upheld.

When organisational system such as the MoPSE is operating efficiently, that is indicative of the presence of synergy which is described by Heil (2017) as the combined effect of a system working together where the combined result is greater or more powerful than that of the individual components. The synergy is made possible by communication channels that are open in a properly functioning system (Ibid). To support the notion of communication channels in organisational context, Lai and Lin (2017) speak of communication networks as classified in two ways: formal communication networks and informal communication networks. The formal network refers to communication that involves roles and positions in the system and informal networks are those that emerge in interaction. The communication network perspective portrays a picture of fluid boundaries across units within the organisations (Lai & Lin, 2017). Communication networks in the Zimbabwean education system are formal, which means the system is hierarchical in structure and roles and the boundaries within units such as schools, districts, provinces and national level are not that fluid (see Section 2.9). Communication on the CBC is, therefore, top-down, that is, one directional, across boundaries within the aforementioned units.

Heil (2017) states that when feedback channels are used to effectively measure organisational progress, and then the organisation adapts to those suggested changes, homeostasis is achieved in that organisation. Failure by a system is a result of either a feedback channel is not working or the adaptation cycle is being ignored (Ibid). Results and recommendations of this study on the CBC implementation are going to serve as a feedback channel and it is to be observed whether the adaptation cycle will be ignored if there is need for change.

3.3 Theoretical perspectives of educational leadership guiding the study

The literature on educational leadership is awash with general theories of leadership. Table 3.1 below introduces the most influential of these general theories of leadership.

Table 3.1 Sustainability Leadership (CISL) (2014:5)

Theory/school	*Description*	*References*
Great Man or Trait school	Celebrates outstanding individual leaders (in the heroic tradition) and studies their traits or characteristics to understand their accomplishments as leaders.	Stodgill, 1948; Tannenbaum and Schmidt, 1973; CEML, 2002; Harter, 2008
Behavioural or Styles school	Describes leadership in terms of people- and task-orientation, suggesting that different combinations of these produce different styles of leadership.	Lewin et al., 1939; Blake and Mouton, 1964, 1985; Kouzes and Posner, 1995
Situational or Context school	Emphasises the importance of context in shaping leaders' responses to be more relationship or task motivated, or more authoritative or participative.	Hersey and Blanchard, 1969, 1974; Vroom and Yetton, 1973; Graeff, 1983
Contingency or Interactionist school	Proposes that leaders' influence is contingent on various factors (like positional power), which in turn determines appropriate leadership styles.	Fiedler, 1967; House and Mitchell, 1974; Barbour, 2008
Transactional or Transformational school	Contrasts leadership as a negotiated cost-benefit exchange and as an appeal to self-transcendent values of pursuing shared goals for the common good.	Bass, 1974; Burns, 1978; Price, 2003

General theories of leadership: Adapted from: University of Cambridge Institute of Sustainability Leadership (CISL) (2014:5)

Of the general theories of leadership in Table 3.1, this study discusses behavioural or styles theories, situational or context theories and contingency or interactionist styles, because the theories are relevant to this study. As shall be observed in the next sections, leadership styles that shall be made reference to in the chapter, such as shared or participative, fall under these broad general theories of leadership.

3.3.1 Behavioural or styles theories

As Table 3.1 depicts, behavioural or styles theories describe leadership in terms of people and task-orientation, suggesting that different combinations of these produce different styles of leadership (Kouzes, 1995). Literally, orientation refers to a person's attitude or adjustment in relation to circumstances. Therefore, task orientation is viewed to mean a person's attitude in relation to duty, assignment, role or function (task). In the context of this study and at the micro (school) level, where most of CBC implementation takes place, task-orientation would mean teachers' attitudes in relation to CBC implementation. Teachers' attitudes to CBC can be manifested in their behaviour during implementation, which can be either positive or negative. As stated above it is these attitudes by teachers that influence the various leadership styles principals employ, such as autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, participative or

situational (Dubrin, 2001). The attitudes of teachers in relation to tasks may require school principals as leaders to adopt motivational or organisational development theories to contain the behaviour of subordinates. It comes as a challenge for employers to devise appropriate mechanisms for motivating their workers; hence, it is important for employers and principals (in the context of this study) to have knowledge of motivation theories. Examples of such motivational theories are Douglas Mc Gregor's Theory X and Theory Y and Herzberg Motivation/Hygiene Theory (Tedla, Redda & Gaikar, 2021).

3.3.1.1 Mc Gregor's Theory X and Theory Y of leadership

These theories assist in comprehending the relationship between leadership styles and school performance or curriculum implementation in the case of this research. Tedla *et al.* (2021), states that this theory has two extreme suppositions which are based on human nature's productivity. Theory X-conditioned leaders take a negative approach and tend to make the assumption that people do not want to perform their duties unless they are closely monitored to achieve organisational goals. This view is similar to one of the characteristics of autocratic leadership style, which will be discussed in Section 3.3.2.

Theory Y-oriented leaders are more positive and believe that employees merely need to be motivated for them to work supervision (Tedla *et al*., 2021). The theory also assumes that organisational members have an opportunity to be engaged in the decision-making process within the organisation (Ghasemy & Husin, 2014). School principals who believe in Theory X tend to be authoritarian while those who believe in Theory Y tend to implement a democratic leadership style (Tedla *et al*., 2021). However, some school principals might employ a combination of both.

3.3.1.2 Herzberg Motivation/Hygiene Theory

Herzberg's motivation/hygiene theory or two-factor theory (Haque *et al*., 2014) has its roots in the Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs (Ibid). Herzberg conducted a survey whose findings revealed that what makes people happy is what they do or how they are utilised and what made them unhappy is how they are treated (Haque *et al*., 2014). Based on these findings Herzberg created a theory of motivators and hygiene factors, both of which can motivate workers but work for different reasons.

Motivators, or satisfiers (see Table 3.2 below), are those factors that cause satisfaction at work (Haque et al., 2014). In the context of this study, recognition of teachers' efforts to implement the CBC in the absence of adequate in-service training in the new learning areas, by way of financial or non-financial rewards or incentives, will go a long way in motivating these teachers. This added responsibility in the form of an increased workload as a result of the introduction of CBC, if rewarded fairly and adequately commensurate with teachers' effort, commitment, loyalty and trust, will motivate them (Haque *et al*., 2014). Motivators are those that come from within the person and give rise to the employee's satisfaction if they are valued (Bogardus, 2007 as cited in Haque *et al*., 2014). The role of managers (principals) is, therefore, to

investigate behavioural differences of employees then influence the employees towards the attainment of organisational goals (Haque et al., 2014).

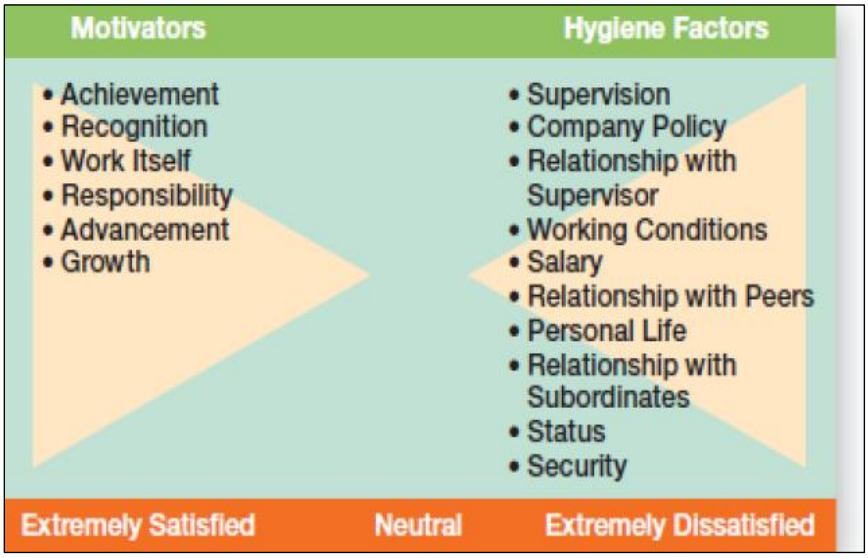

Table 3. 2: Herzberg's two factor theory (Adapted from Haque *et al*., 2014:65)

Hygiene factors are those factors that the employee expects to be in good condition As Haque *et al.* (2014:65) puts it, "motivators are those at present cause satisfaction, hygiene factors are those that don't cause satisfaction but if they are lacking, it causes job dissatisfaction". The following extract provides examples of factors related to the content of work, which end to eliminate job dissatisfaction.

> Salaries or wages must be equivalent to those salaries that other people in the same industry or geographical area get. The status of the person must be recognised and maintained. Employees must feel that their job is as secured as it is possible in the current economic situation. The working conditions should be clean, sufficiently lit and safe in other way. Sufficient amount of fringe benefits like health, pension and child care must be provided and compensation in general equivalent to amount of work (Haque *et al*., 2014:65).

In the Zimbabwean context, working conditions for teachers are not that favourable, salaries are far below those of other teachers in the Southern Africa Development Community (SADC) region and there are no or very little benefits on health and child care. In terms of health, what the government does is to contribute a small percentage of what each teacher or civil servant contributes monthly to Premier Services Medical Aid Society (PSMAS) – a government parastatal, which deals with medical issues for all civil servants. The status of teachers has been eroded as they have become a laughing stock in society because their salaries equated to what some vendors take home at the end of each day. However, with regard to job security and pension, these are guaranteed although the current inflation rate tends to erode the terminal benefits of those retiring and those on pension. The failure by government to adequately do public funding

does not come as a surprise following CIET (1999:153) findings that Zimbabwe faces the challenge to allocate sufficient funds to meet recurrent expenditure costs in education provision, such as salaries, supervision, housing and allowances for teachers.

The discussion on theories of leadership leads us to a discussion on leadership styles so as to show the relationship that exists between the two (theories and leadership styles). The two classic and original approaches of how one leads that are linked to the above theories are autocratic and democratic leadership styles.

3.3.2 Leadership styles

According to Dubrin (2001), the notion of leadership style refers to the pattern of behaviour that a leader exhibits in influencing subordinates towards the goals of the organisation. In education, leadership style has its origins in scientific management theory (Tedla *et al*., 2021). Several leadership styles have brought on board by researchers, namely autocratic, democratic, participative and situational styles, which this study are going to adopt among others. Autocratic and democratic leadership styles have a strong link with hierarchy and decision-making, which have been discussed in greater detail in Chapter 2. Hierarchy and decision-making are also linked to the systems theory, which underpins this study (Section 2.9.1). Contingency and situational styles, will also be discussed since they link directly or indirectly with autocratic and democratic leadership styles.

3.3.2.1 Autocratic leadership style

Autocratic leadership, also known as authoritarian or directive leadership, is one in which the autocratic leader retains most of the authority for himself/herself (Dubrin, 2001). Autocratic leadership is concerned about the accomplishment of tasks because “such leaders often approach situations with the attitude that other people are innately unwilling to get involved and are basically unreliable” (as indicated in the McGregor theory) (Kolzow, 2014:30). With regard to policies and decision-making, it is the leader who determines the policies without the input, during decision-making, of others. This view is also shared by Dessler and Starke (2004), who state that the autocratic leader would generally solve an issue and make decisions for the group.

According to Jdetawy (2018:24351), some of the characteristics of autocratic leadership are:

- "Little or no input from group members
- Leaders make almost all of the decisions
- Group leaders dictate all the work methods and processes
- Group members are rarely trusted with decisions or important tasks
- Work tends to be highly structured and very rigid

- Creativity and out-of-the box thinking tend to be discouraged
- Rules are important and tend to be clearly outlined and communicated."

In the Zimbabwean context, bureaucracy is more prevalent at the macro level of the education system. MoPSE retains the authority to control and manage the implementation of the CBC in schools. This is bureaucracy where certain policies and decisions are made but this should not be viewed to mean that the leaders in the bureaucracy at the macro level are autocratic leaders. The following examples, which are a result of decisions made in a bureaucracy, can be misinterpreted as autocratic leadership. Grade 7, O and A Level examination classes for the year 2021 had to present Continuous Assessment Learning Activities (CALA) projects as part of their final grading in spite of being ill-prepared due to the COVID-19 pandemic, which cut learning time by almost half a year. MoPSE also made the bold decision to begin implementing the CBC in 2017 without trained teachers in the new learning areas.

In spite of the seemingly negative characteristics of autocratic leadership, there are situations when autocratic leadership is found to be effective. When there is trust in the organisation the autocratic leader can afford to make unilateral decisions because he knows people have trust in him (Kolzow, 2014). However, the autocratic leader may need to change his/her leadership style to democratic leadership because of the element of trust that exists between the leader and subordinates. This change in style as a result of the trust resembles situational leadership styles wherein leaders adapt their leadership style according to the prevailing situation (Blanchard, 2019). Similarly when those decisions need to be made quickly where the leader has been given responsibility for directing action Kolzow (2014), autocratic leadership thrives in those situations. The view of quick decision-making by a leader can be linked to contingency approach and this is also shared by Peretomode (2012) who attests that contingency approach demands quick action in correcting a situation (Section 3.3.2.2). It is also easy for the autocratic leader to make decisions without consulting other members if the task at stake is easy because members will have no difficulty in performing the task (Jdetway, 2018). If the task at stake is easy, a more democratic or even laissez-faire approach is recommended instead of the autocratic approach. Laissez-faire implies that the leader abdicates responsibility because subordinates seem to know what they will be doing with regard to the task/s before them (Tedla *et al*., 2021).

Unfortunately, it is not the case with CBC implementation in this study. The task is complicated for both teachers and principals in the sense that both have no content knowledge of the new learning areas and, worse still for practising teachers who have not been in-serviced on the new teaching methods. In such a scenario, where there is a lot of uncertainty, it will be an advantage to be more autocratic so that the principal explains what needs to be done. In support of this advantage of autocratic leadership, Dyczkowska and Dyczkowski (2018) argue that the autocratic leader gives precise instructions helps them to perform tasks effectively. Since autocratic leaders are viewed to be task oriented rather than employee oriented, it becomes an advantage of autocratic leadership that by giving clear instructions to subordinates

they meet set deadlines especially where time is a critical factor (Ibid). In terms of decision-making, autocratic leadership is found to be very useful because the leader can make a decision quickly without notice and action is taken (Jafaar, Zambi & Fathil, 2021). In spite of these advantages autocratic leadership also has some disadvantages.

One of the dangers in authoritarian leadership is its tendency toward negative motivation such as using threats as a means to achieve results (Kolzow, 2014; Jafaar, Zambi & Fathil, 2021). This can create a culture of crisis in the organisation, with the leader regarded as either oppressor or rescuer or both (Ibid). The crisis that is created is that of resentment among members, which can hurt the organisation in the end. Other drawbacks of autocratic leadership are that it tends to discourage group input, to overlook the knowledge and expertise that group members bring to the organisation and to impair the morale of the group in the cases leaders do not allow input from team members (Jdetawy, 2018). The danger associated with this kind of situation is that subordinates are demoralised, which can contribute to absenteeism and increased turnover (Jafaar, Zambi & Fathil, 2021).

3.2.2.2 Democratic leadership style

Democratic leadership is also described as participative leadership, distributed leadership or shared leadership. It is a leadership approach where subordinates are involved in decision-making (Dubrin, 2001). Kolzow (2014) states that the democratic leadership style assumes that the power of leaders is derived from people who are basically self-directed and creative if they are motivated to do so (Section 3.3.1.2). This assertion by Kolzow appears to confirm the human relations aspect that underlies the democratic leadership style. The other view of democratic leaders is given by Dessler and Starke (2004) who assert that democratic leaders were those who took a very relaxed yet in-control approach to leading the group. Participative leaders normally consult the group when approaching an issue and consider their suggestions, but at the same time retain the final say (Ibid).

As with autocratic leadership, there are features of the democratic leadership style. Some of these primary features, according to Jdetawy (2018), are engagement of group members in decision making through sharing of ideas and opinions which are creative, although the leader has the final decision over the decisions.

In addition to these characteristics of the democratic leadership style, Jdetawy (2018) outlines particular attributes that democratic leaders should possess that include honesty, intelligence, courage, creativity, competence and fairness (Section 3.3.1.2).

While democratic leadership is considered an effective leadership style, it does have weaknesses such as communication failures in cases where there is no clarity of roles and when urgent decision making is required (Jdetawy, 2018). It is also a challenge for democratic leadership when a decision is expected

from group members who do not have expert knowledge about what needs to be decided on. Where some members' opinions are not taken into account probably because the leader has decided otherwise since he has the final say, some members may feel that they have been let down and that may lower employee satisfaction and morale (Ibid).

The above discussion on possible weaknesses of democratic leadership, attest that democratic leadership works effectively in situations: where group members are skilled and eager to share their knowledge and where the flow of work in an organisation needs to allow time to allow people to contribute, develop a plan and then decide on the best course of action (Kolzow, 2014). Kolzow's argument is aligned to the situational or contingency theories to be discussed in sections 3.3.2.1 and 3.3.2.2. In these theories (situational and contingency), there is an interchange between autocratic and democratic leadership styles.

The discussion of leadership styles can be wrapped up by pointing out thatchronologically , effective leadership has incorporated features of both autocratic and democratic leadership styles. Because there is no single leadership style that is ideal or applicable all the time for all situations, situational leadership style should be exercised to suit the prevailin situation came into existence for practice (Tedla *et al*., 2021; Ghazzawi et al., 2017). The following section discusses situational and contingency theories.

3.3.2.2 Situational leadership theories

Situational leadership theories presume that leadership is relatively flexible enough for a leader to move along a continuum front and back so as to enable him/her cope with different situations (Peretomode, 2012). In support of this assertion, Blanchard (2019) avers that the situational approach to leadership is premised on the idea that a leader must adapt their leadership style to fit a given situation. The claim that situational leadership is relatively flexible implies that it is possible for an autocratic to change their style to become a democratic or employee oriented leader as the situation changes (Peretomode, 2012).

Situational leadership is premised on the idea that leadership has both directive and supportive behaviour aspects , which make up the style of a leader (Blanchard, 2019). This implies that the leader can direct or support followers depending on the situation. This division of directive and supportive behaviours has served to create a spectrum of four styles for leaders, namely supporting, coaching, delegating and directing (Ibid). Fielder (as cited in Ghazzawi, El Shoughan & El Osta, 2017) divided leaders into two kinds: task oriented and relation oriented. When the task behaviour is high, leadership behaviours will tend to focus on planning for activities at hand, clarifying tasks (such as when teachers do not have content and pedagogical knowledge of new learning areas of the CBC, in the context of this study), setting goals and roles and monitoring performance (Blanchard & Hersey, 2008). High level relationship behaviours of situational leaders will result in the provision of support, recognition, followers' skills confidence development, involvement in problem solving and decision-making (Ibid). The efficacy of leaders,

therefore, hinges on successfully diagnosing where subordinates are on the development continuum and adopting their leadership style as accordingly.

Situational leadership theories have some limitations. One such limitation is that there is no time frame given or prescribed for this change to take place (Peretomode, 2012). The expected change, however, also relies on personal attributes of the leader which include maturity level, the leader's intelligence and sensitivity to events taking place (Ibid). If the aforementioned factors are on the low side, this can compromise the leader's ability to change their leadership style.

3.3.2.3 Contingency leadership theories

Fred Fiedler developed the contingency theory (CT) in 1958 and from it emerged , theories and models such as situational leadership (Blanchard, 2018). CT is underpinned by the idea that the effectiveness of a leader is dependent upon how well their leadership style matches a given situation (Ibid). What this implies is that if, for example, a leader employs autocratic leadership style, the question would be how well this autocratic leadership style matches given situations. Realistically, autocratic leadership, as the adopted style of the leader, will not match all situations that the leader may come across- Section 3.4.2.1. One distinctive characteristic between situational leadership and contingency leadership is in respect of rigidity of leadership styles (Peretomode, 2012). From Blanchard's argument above, there is an element of rigidity in contingency leadership because it is premised on how well the already preferred leadership style of the leader matches given situations.

Based on the premise that contingency leadership styles are fairly rigid or relatively inflexible, chances of such leaders adopting the participative approach to accommodate employees' needs are slim (Peretomode, 2012). This is why the contingency approach may be desirable in this hypothetical situation where a school is underperforming in implementing the CBC. The contingency approach demands quick action to correcting a situation (Peretomode, 2012), implying the MoPSE would need to source from its pool of principals, goal oriented principals and deploy them to such schools to go and turn around those underperforming schools. If, on the other hand, MoPSE officials believe in situational leadership, it means they will wait and watch hoping that the concerned school principals would gradually change to the required task oriented leadership style to fit the situation (Peretomode, 2012). As stated above, the contingency approach would be needed to salvage a worsening situation.

3.3.3 Leadership and management in curriculum implementation

Leadership is a process of influence and involves motivating and supporting others towards a whole vision for the school (Nagaraju, 2015). On the other hand, management is the realisation of the policies of the school current activities. According to Nagaraju (2015:2), some people say "Managers manage tasks, but leaders lead people" and "Management is doing things right, but leadership is doing the right things". In

spite of these seemingly irreconcilable differences, Kolodziejczyk (2015) stresses that leadership and management complement each other in the operations of an organisation. By way of distinction of the two concepts, leadership puts emphasis on vision, motivation , team building in a school as well as schools set academic standards, goals and models of behaviour (Ibid). Tedla's view of leadership is shared by Kotter (2001), who also speaks of leadership as involving setting direction, communicating effectively with employees and motivating them. The processes above that make up leadership influence the creation of change in an organisation (Ibid), indication that leadership accommodates change in organisations. This, however, is not to suggest that managers are not able to bring about change. They can, but differently from leaders. While leaders motivate and help subordinates to embrace change, managers use policy as "force" or motivation in the change process.

On the contrary, management is a series of actions and tasks relevant to highly well-organised and effectual application of resources within the organisation in order to attain organisational objectives (Ghasemy & Hussin, 2014). Kotter (2001) avers that management concentrates on the creation of stability in organisational activities by way of dealing with complexity. Tedla *et al*. (2021)associates management with planning, budgeting, evaluating and implementing daily activities. Management and leadership may overlap at times but management can be argued to be more aligned to autocratic leadership in the sense that autocratic leadership, for example, dictates all the organisation's processes and work tends to be highly structured and rigid, just as with management (Jdetway, 2018) (Section 2.4.3). This helps schools maintain an order, direction and eventually achieve anticipated goals (Gyasi, Xi & Ampomah, 2016). Just as there are leadership theories (discussed in Section 3.4.1), there are management theories. A brief discussion of relevant educational management theories will go a long way in showing the duality and overlap that exists between management and leadership.

3.3.3.1 Theories of educational management linked to the study

There are a number of educational management models in literature which are categorised into six clusters, namely formal, collegial, political, subjective, ambiguity and cultural (Bush, 2010). Of the six models, formal and collegial models are linked to this study Formal models of educational management include structural, systems, bureaucratic, rational and hierarchical (Ghasemy & Husin, 2014). These models assume that the structure of organisations is hierarchical and predefined objectives are pursued based on a rational method (Ibid). Formal models of educational management are linked with managerial leadership style (Bush, 2010). This style of leadership has some assumptions such as concentration on execution of action, tasks as well as activities proficiently as a means of facilitation of other organisational members' activities, high degree of rationality in the behaviour of organisational members and allocation of authority and influence to formal positions within the organisational chart (Leithwood *et al*., 1999). Managerial leadership, unlike most of the leadership styles, does not encompass vision as a core concept

since it is focused on successful management of existing activities rather than focusing on a better future for the educational organisation (Bush, 2010).

3.3.3.2 Duality and overlap of management and leadership roles of principals

The concept of management overlaps with other similar terms namely leadership and administration. Management is widely used in, for example, Great Britain, Europe as well as in Africa while the concept of leadership is widely used in most of the developed world countries (Izhar, 2009). The study of management was popular in most of the world, specific to Great Britain, until 1988 when they had new legislation and then they changed to preference for leadership, while America and some other countries still use administration (Ibid). There is an overlap and duality in assumptions of educational leadership theories and educational management theories. For example, there is a resemblance in assumptions of Mc Gregor's theory X and theory Y of leadership with assumptions of formal and collegial management theories (Section 3.3.1.1). Theory X, linked to autocratic leadership, assumes that people are unwilling to work unless they are being ordered, supervised or monitored to achieve organisational goals (Tedla *et al*., 2021) (Section 3.4.1). The formal model of educational management, linked to the managerial leadership style speaks of concentration on execution of action, tasks as well as activities proficiently as a means of facilitation of other organisational members' activities. By concentration on execution of tasks, it is meant the focus of the managerial leader is to supervise and monitor how work is done. The similarity of these assumptions is a clear indication of the overlap and duality that exists in the roles of a principal as a leader and as manager.

Similarly, Mc Gregor's Theory Y linked to the democratic leadership style assumes, among many other assumptions, that organisational members are free to take part in the decision-making process of the organisation. This assumption also exists in the collegial theory of educational management, which is linked to the participative leadership style. As stated in Section 3.4.3.1, one major assumption of collegial models is "decision-making based on a process of discussions, agreements and consensus" (Ghasemy & Hussin, 2014:4). Again this similarity in assumptions of leadership theories and management theories shows that there is indeed an overlap and duality in the leadership and management practice of school principals. The above discussion appears to portray a picture that the overlap and duality of the two concepts is more to do with styles.

The notion that the bureaucratic model, which is more of management, assumes that the education structure is hierarchical, implies that the curriculum implementation process has been handed down from the top and principals and teachers must implement what has been decided on what they received. Bureaucracy is thus a management and policy-driven process. In support of points raised above, Bush (2010) states that the authority and power of principals is a product of their formal positions.

The leadership role of principals in this overlap and duality comes in when the leader must motivate the staff members and create a new vision for them to accept the new curriculum. The principals may not even believe in the new curriculum, but because they have the formal post of principal, they must implement and, therefore, convince the teachers to do it as well as they can. That overlap and duality of leadership and management may also be part of the challenges, which principals experience in the CBC implementation as was discussed in Chapter 2, Section 2.10. Issues surrounding the predicament of overlap and duality are further addressed in the next sections, which deal on bureaucracy characteristics and leadership styles and the specific kind of change and leadership expected for effective CBC implementation.

3.4 Curriculum leadership: Perspectives and practices

Having discussed leadership styles, the discussion now turns to curriculum leadership, which is the main leadership domain of the aforementioned leadership styles. It is important at this point to make this distinction that curriculum leadership is not a leadership style. Rather it is a domain for leadership. A leadership style or approach is how one does the leadership. Curriculum leadership is where you practise the leadership. For example, leadership can either be autocratic or democratic, implying that autocratic leadership and democratic leadership are leadership styles. Within curriculum leadership as a domain, autocratic leadership is an approach. How does one practice his curriculum leadership, for example? The curriculum leadership can be viewed as autocratic or democratic, whatever the case may be. Curriculum leadership role in the context of this study is as it is carried out by principals, deputy principals and TICs. It is not as the role by teachers who will have gone for training in curriculum development and return to their schools to work closely with colleagues (Wiles, 2009) as subject committee leaders.

3.4.1 Two perspectives of curriculum leadership in the implementation of a CBC

Curriculum leadership can be viewed from two perspectives, namely the centralised model and the decentralised model (Law &Wan, 2006). The centralised model of curriculum decision-making neglects the essential role of teachers in making curriculum decision in relation to teaching and learning within a learning centred community (school) (Ibid). Further to the above, it means teachers are being neglected to either mere implementers of the official curriculum guidelines or the enactors of the decisions of the school principal (Law & Waan, 2006). In support of aforementioned, Jorgensen (2012) asserts that curriculum leadership may become the sole responsibility of the principal, taken to imply that the principal becomes the sole leader of matters to do with the curriculum.

The decentralised model of curriculum leadership is akin to the distributed theory of leadership, which recognises that leadership overlooks hierarchy and formal roles of authority and permit principals to incorporate teachers to take part in decision-making particularly in areas they have expertise. (De

Matthews, 2014). This is linked to the democratic leadership style discussed in Section 3.4.2 as well as the systems theory, which speaks of bureaucratic organisations such as MoPSE and schools as hierarchical in structure (Section 2.9).

Distributed leadership is associated with participative or shared leadership. The distributed leadership model suggests that in a school system, the principal should allow a situation whereby teachers with professional expertise in specific learning areas, lead small groups of fellow teachers with an interest in the learning areas. Allowing teachers to be curriculum leaders should not be taken to mean subduing the legitimate power of the principal because, as De Matthews (2014) affirms, principals still maintain their formal roles and authority, but leadership practice is distributed across teams that are often "small, typically heterogeneous with respect to the predominant leadership functions provided by each team member" (Camburn, Rowan & Taylor, 2003:366).

The broad and inclusive understanding of curriculum leadership, as a domain with a leader who can either be autocratic or practises distributed leadership as it is in democratic leadership, has received recognition in many developed countries including Australia, USA and England (Law & Wan, 2006). The mission for these research findings is to recognise teachers in the curriculum decision-making process in schools (Ibid). In the context of this study, placing teachers in the centrality of curriculum decision-making refers to incorporating teachers in all the stages of curriculum design right up to syllabus formulation as they are the major stakeholders in the implementation process. Furthermore, the context in which teachers are viewed as curriculum leaders in this study is when a teacher leads other teachers in a specific learning area in which they have expert knowledge (see Section 2.9.3.4). This is distributed leadership as described in the paragraph above in this section. Drawing from the above discussion on models of curriculum leadership, it can be concluded that the emphasis is on adopting a distributed approach to curriculum wherein teachers should take an active role. However, feedback from both principals, as curriculum leaders and teachers in the implementation of the CBC will be sought. It will be interesting to hear from teachers whether or not they are being accorded this curriculum leadership role and compare their experiences with those of principals. The following discussion, however, adopts curriculum leadership as it relates to the school principals, deputy principals and TICs because the main focus of this research is to explore the experiences of school leaders in the implementation of the CBC in Zimbabwe. The views of teachers on the same subject will come in only as a triangulation of measure (data) – "the idea that looking at something from multiple points of view improves accuracy" (Neuman, 2014:166).

3.4.2 Curriculum leadership practices expected of school principals

The curriculum leadership model "is most associated with vision; setting direction; restructuring and realigning the organisation; staff development and the curriculum and involvement with the community" (Day & Sammons, 2016: 18). In this curriculum leadership model there are leadership practices that can

be expected of principals in curriculum implementation. Day and Sammons (2016) argue that curriculum leaders should be collegial, considerate and supportive, and generally looking out for teachers' professional needs. A critique of the curriculum leadership model states that practices such as collegiality, being considerate and looking out for teachers' welfare, primarily emphasise relationships. The emphasis on relationship with subordinates is characteristic of democratic leaders or employee oriented leaders discussed in Section 3.3.2.1. However, the literature has it that for principals of schools to be effective, they should incorporate situational leadership styles in which leaders change or adapt their style to fit the situation (Peretomode, 2012) (Section 3.3.2). Curriculum leadership practices are related to curriculum leadership roles, functions or responsibilities. According to Ogaura and Bossert (1995), the role of curriculum leadership is multi-faceted and complex, embedded not only in the formal role of authority. The role is also in functions that affect student achievement, as well as professional development, professional accountability and curriculum development (Ibid). The role of the curriculum leader is thought of in terms of the differences between traditional, or 'maintenance' roles and the so-called 'dynamic' tasks that extend the curriculum leader's impact to community building and school development (Ogaura & Bossert, 1995). By way of example, traditional/maintenance responsibilities are: spear-heading textbook adoption, maintaining subject area expertise and reviewing student achievement. According to Wiles (2009), dynamic tasks/ responsibilities of curriculum leaders are vision building, setting standards to the particular needs of the student , engaging and communicating with stakeholders; and managing the change process.

In pursuit of the above view of maintenance and dynamic functions of curriculum leaders, it can be observed that both traditional tasks and dynamic responsibilities co-exist in curriculum leadership. However, Firestone and Wilson (2015) refer to the functional approach to curriculum leadership as involving bureaucratic interpersonal and cultural linkages, which clearly shows that today's school curriculum leadership must go beyond maintenance or management functions towards addressing school reforms for now and the future, which is more aligned with leadership. In support of the aforementioned, Wiles (2009) argues that curriculum leaders should embrace the dynamic role and go beyond expectations.

3.4.2.1 Vision building and setting direction as dynamic tasks of curriculum leaders

The importance of curriculum leadership in providing vision and strategic direction for the school is critical to the overall direction of the school (Leithwood, *et al*., 2006). In support, Mutekwe (2019) states that it is undeniably true that the school curriculum leaders have key roles to play in the overall institutional culture and direction. In this study, the principals are expected to provide their vision of the effective implementation of the new CBC in their schools. The vision should articulate how the principal intends the new curriculum to be operationalised including strategies such as distributing curriculum leadership responsibilities to colleagues who embrace the vision and goals of the school (Blasé & Blasé, 2000; Hatch,

2009). The key to ensure the much-needed, full cooperation and support of the entire teaching staff (Marzano, Waters & McNulty, 2015) is through effective communication of the vision and motivation of teachers to work collaboratively towards the success of the vision.

3.4.2.2 Engaging and communicating with stakeholders

External support for curriculum is one of the three constructs of the framework for curriculum implementation, which guides this study (see Figure 2.1). The community, especially parents of learners in the school, are a source of external support-financial or otherwise such that the curriculum leader (principal) should involve them at all costs on curriculum issues. The CBC has come up with new learning areas such as Heritage Social Studies, Information and Communication Technology (ICT), Visual and Performing Arts, to mention a few that need parents to know about so that they get to appreciate why the school needs their support. By way of an example, in ICT, the curriculum framework requires schools to construct computer labs and furnish them with computers so that learners can have practical lessons. In Zimbabwe, considering that the government has no capacity to do that for thousands of primary schools in the country CIET (1999), the burden falls on the parent community by way of them being asked to pay special levies for the projects. In this case, Dindyal, Cheng and Ng (2012) state that relationships between staff, curriculum leadership and community are critical to success. They further assert that for communities to feel to be part of the education of their children , curriculum leaders should involve the community in developing the programmes and to keep community members informed on the on-going implementation of the programmes (Ibid).

The importance of parents as stakeholders in school operations is enshrined in the stakeholder theory viewed as a genre of management theory because “rather than being a specific theory used for one purpose, seeing stakeholder theory as a genre is to recognise the value of the variety of uses one can make of this set of ideas” (Parmar *et al*., 2010). In this theory, a stakeholder is defined as “any group or individual who can affect or is affected by the achievement of the organisation’s objectives”(Freeman,1984:46). In light of this definition it can viewed that parents have an effect or influence on the school and its strategies. One stakeholder influence strategy found in the resource dependency theory Pfeffer and Salancik (1978), is withholding. The implication of this is that parents as primary stakeholders can withhold, for example, funding school initiatives as a way of showing their influence. As a mitigation measure, Sturdvant (1979) advances the idea that managers (principals, in this context) should seek cooperation among their entire system of stakeholders.

There are, however, challenges with regard to community engagement on curriculum issues. In the Zimbabwean context and specifically with regard to the new CBC implementation, parents involvement is in respect of providing financial support for the provision of, for example textbooks and infrastructure as highlighted in this section. They are also expected to take the lead in teaching their children cultural beliefs

and values of *unhu/ ubuntu/ vumunhu*, which is the underlying philosophy of this curriculum MoPSE (2015) (Section 2.6.4). The notion of beliefs and values links with the exosystem level of the ecological systems theory (Section 2.6.4). These societal and cultural beliefs and values were input from parents to the design and formulation of the CBC; hence, parents should teach their children from home. Linked to this, parents' involvement in the CBC implementation is in respect of assisting their children with homework and CALA projects (Section 3.2.3).

Some of the challenges with community engagement financially point to the situational context of individual schools (Marishane, 2020). Most schools in Zimbabwe are in rural areas where the communities are of parents of low socio-economic status who cannot afford paying special levies for building ICT laboratories, for example, let alone buy the needed computers. A good number of urban schools communities can afford to do this. Rural communities, however, are better off in inculcating cultural beliefs and values than urban communities because in urban areas there are people of different races whose cultures are diversified. According to interview responses from teachers and principals, most parents are having challenges with assisting their children with homework and CALA projects because the CBC content is too advanced for them. The parents complain that the syllabus content is above the chronological age of primary children, so this becomes a challenge to their engagement.

3.4.2.3 Managing the change process as a dynamic task of curriculum leaders

It is one of the responsibilities of the curriculum leader to manage change in the event of a curriculum innovation. This is achieved by integrating human resources, material resources and tasks towards the accomplishment of specified goals (Magadzire, 2012). Drawing from the aforementioned, it means that the curriculum leader integrates teachers, learners, the community (human resources), textbooks, buildings and equipment (material resources) towards successful implementation of the CBC. Tasks refer to duties that teachers carry out during teaching and learning, which should be focused towards the goal of ensuring effective curriculum implementation. To achieve this, the task of the curriculum leader would also be to provide extensive staff development, allowing teacher collaboration and encourage the formation of subject committees that lead to change from within (Patterson & Patterson, 2004).

Curriculum leadership as a key concept in this study has been observed to take two basic forms wherein leaders can focus solely on maintaining the existing programme through scheduled reviews, controlled activities and limited problem solving or the leader can broaden the work by providing vision, organisation and motivation so that others can participate in school design (Wiles, 2009). Research has it that curriculum leadership in today's schools should not just stick the maintenance or management function to address school reform for now and the future. The tasks in maintenance leadership and dynamic leadership overlap (Wiles, 2009), just as management and leadership styles practices also overlap. As curriculum leadership is practised in either autocratic or democratic leadership styles whose roles have an

overlap and duality (Section 3.3.3.2), the researcher observes that curriculum leadership functions of maintenance and dynamic overlap too, according to Wiles' (2009) assertion.

3.5 Factors that determine leadership practices in new curriculum implementation

School leaders' experiences of curriculum implementation are drawn from the literature on four core leadership practices, namely setting direction, developing people, redesigning the organisation and managing teaching and learning (Leithwood, Day, Sammons, Horns & Hopkins, 2006). Research studies based on these leadership practices of school principals reveal their experiences in curriculum implementation and some of these experiences can be linked to the Zimbabwean context of this study. Implementation of a new curriculum is a policy discourse with most recent debates on policy implementation of the view that what is prescribed by policy is not necessarily what happens in schools in terms of curriculum implementation (Christie, 2008). This assertion is corroborated by Terhoven and Fataar (2018) who view leadership practices as being impeded by schools' SES their situated contexts and background of the learners. By implication, leadership practices, a lens through which we perceive their experiences in curriculum implementation, are dependent upon the context of the school.

In pursuit of the above view, Klar and Brewer (2013) affirm that the actions and behaviours (by school principals) associated with each of the four core leadership practices, depend on the context of the school. Leadership practices tailor-made for the specific school contexts entail "taking risks", Terhoven and Fataar (2018) and challenging the status quo. It is the experience of school leaders, according to the aforementioned literature, that principals sometimes take risks and challenge the existing state of affairs. The risk they take is of not implementing policy exactly as prescribed. What policy prescribes is, in other words, the status quo, which is challenged by school leaders, not deliberately, but as dictated by the specific contexts of their schools. As an example, some remote schools in Zimbabwe are unable to teach ICT practical lessons because they do not have the capacity to build computer rooms, to buy the computers and, worse still, that there is no electricity in those areas, yet it still remains policy that the subject be taught.

The specific contexts of schools that influence leadership practice are either external or internal. External context refers to the outside influences from such sources as parents and the MoPSE in the Zimbabwean context. The introduction of the CBC was accompanied by monitoring systems in the form of District Schools Inspectors (DSIs) and Schools Inspectors (SIs), MoPSE (2015), which places pressure on schools to adhere to MoPSE requirements. The pressure on school leaders is in respect of the expectation that they practise their leadership as is expected by policy and their actions are monitored by the bureaucratic scrutiny of the Department of Education (DoE)- DSIs and SIs, in the case of Zimbabwe (Christie, 2008; Fataar & Paterson, 2002). This assertion confirms characteristics of authoritarian leadership, which were discussed in Section 3.3.2. The leadership practices literature also relates to

community related challenges experienced by school leaders such as drug abuse, low parental involvement, late coming and absenteeism, which reduce the time teachers and students have available for teaching and learning (Terhoven & Fataar, 2018). These daily experiences for school leaders force them to be always devise other leadership practices to facilitate the implementation of curriculum policy (Ibid).

The internal context refers to the daily internal challenges such as the condition of the school buildings, the attitudes of teaching and non-teaching staff in the school as well as lack of material resources like textbooks and computers (Terhoven & Fataar, 2018). As a component of leadership practice, the principals' role of setting direction entails building a shared vision, promoting the willingness to accommodate group goals, creating high-performance expectations and communicating the overall direction of the school (Leithwood *et al*., 2006). Research studies carried out by Terhoven and Fataar (2018) in South African schools indicate school leaders' experiences in this leadership practice as focused only on high-performance goals for learners because this was the priority of the DoE. Similarly, development of teachers, as another aspect of leadership practice, was "narrowly focused on increasing teachers' subject teaching capacity to meet the expectations of the DoE" (Terhoven & Fataar, 2018:6). Seen in the above view, it can be concluded that leadership practices are shaped by the expectations of curriculum policy makers (Figure 3.2).

The aforementioned South African study revealed the experiences of school leaders in respect of redesigning the organisation, a third core leadership practice. The findings were mainly to do with collaboration wherein comments by SMTs indicated that schools struggle to get their teachers to work together in implementing policy for various reasons such as negative attitudes that some teachers have when they are castigated for not performing their tasks well (Terhoven & Fataar, 2018). With respect to the leadership practice of managing teaching and learning, the study found that the principals find it difficult to achieve the goal of facilitating a healthy educational environment in the harsh conditions of their schools (Ibid).

As is evident in the above findings of the SA study, school leaders are assumed to have experiences in the implementation of a curriculum policy. This study is expected to also come up with its findings on experiences of Zimbabwean primary school leaders in the implementation of the CBC.

3.6 The new CBC as a curriculum change process

Change is a permanent attribute of organisational life (Cerimagic & Hasan, 2006). Hoyle (1972) views the word `change` as a generic term embracing a family of concepts such as innovation, development and renewal. The literature on change has many definitions of change one being that it "is the shifting of values, attitudes, perceptions, or behaviours to the new mode" (Schoen & Durand, 1979:240). The view of

change as a process through which people and organisations move as they become conversant with the use of new ways Pieterse, Caniels & Homan (2012), gives rise to the need to define curriculum change as this study is based on the implementation of a curriculum change. According to Rudhumbu, Mswazie and Maphosa (2016), the change literature attests that curriculum change is a process that involves change in the educational systems, program structures and objectives, leading to changes in approaches to teaching and learning as well as changes to students' learning outcomes. Having defined change in general and curriculum change in particular, the next section discusses theories that underpin change as a process.

3.6.1 Types of curriculum change in schools

Change takes various forms hence any discussion on it is problematic irrespective of sector (Miles *et al*., 2002). Three important considerations in any discussion of change are context (public or private), type (planned or unplanned) and exigency (OECD, 2020). Exigency refers to something that is in urgent need or demand, which, in this context, might be taken to mean that there was urgent need for change to the new CBC by the MoPSE because the major stakeholders were in dire need for a change in curriculum (CIET, 1999). This exigency can be linked to the contingency theory of leadership, which demands quick action to address a situation (Section 3.3.2.2).

The curriculum change being studied is in the context of public organisations, namely schools. The focus of analysis in this study will be limited to planned change. According to Margulies and Raia (1989:50), planned change is "a deliberate and conscious effort to bring about change in response to experienced problems". Miles Thangaraj, Dawei, and Huiqin (2002) attest the definition above by stating that in planned change, the motivation to bring about the change is done with the full knowledge of \those directing the change process itself, as opposed to reactive.

The MoPSE, which is directing the CBC change, developed the curriculum change plans to address the dynamics of this initiative. Coming up with broad plans to address change initiatives is characteristic of planned change; hence, the CBC can safely be concluded to be a planned change by the MoPSE in Zimbabwe. The Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education (CFPSE) (2015-2022) contains all the plans for the CBC some of which are reflected in the strategies for effective curriculum implementation (p.57). The characteristics of the context in which the CBC was initiated include the presence and influence of multiple stakeholders (for example, parents, church organisations, industry and commerce), a bureaucratic hierarchical culture in which power accrues to those with seniority in the organisation and long term organisational outputs (Miles *et al*., 2002). The following discussion focuses on three principles of planned change. Miles *et al.* (2002) refer to these three "general principles" as "meta-strategies" of change: rational-empirical, normative re-educative and power-coercive. Each of these meta-strategies approaches the planning and implementation of change from different philosophical and practice-based sets of assumptions (Miles *et al.,* 2002).

3.6.1.1 Rational- empirical strategy assumptions to planning and implementation of change

The rational-empirical strategy builds on the strong belief that people are rational (Miles *et al*., 2002). This implies that, once individuals are presented with information that demonstrates that a particular change is in their interest, they will accept the change as a means of achieving that interest. In support of this assumption, Kiprotich, Kahuthia and Kinyau *(*2019) refer to Nowak and Sigmund's study of British public service, concluded that societal and institutional change is possible if the staffs have adequate information from the initiators of the change. Pursuant to the above, Nickols (2016) states that successful change is based on effective communication of information and the offering of incentives. From the above arguments it can be deduced that dissemination of information about the change is central; it is the story that one tells that ought to convince the people not the person.

As an example in the context of this study, MoPSE should have convinced teachers that there was a need to change the curriculum as the old curriculum was no longer meeting the demands of the 21st century. By and large, converts where already there in the Zimbabwean context because most teachers wanted the change. However, in view of the fact that the CBC increased teachers' workload and that practising teachers were not trained in the new learning areas, persuading teachers would require MoPSE proffering incentives so as to strike a balance with risks involved in adopting the CBC. Such incentives could have been in the form of improved salaries and adequately in-servicing practising teachers in the new learning areas so that they would not feel threatened with the change (Section 3.3.1.2).

The major component of the rational-empirical approach is, as highlighted above, information, which, in countries like Canada, is obtained using methods such as White Papers, Commissions, Reports and Fact Finding Missions (Miles *et al*., 2002). In the case of Zimbabwe, information was obtained from the Presidential Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (CIET) Report published in 1999, the Narrative Report 2014-2015- a consultative curriculum review process, which included advertorials, newscast, features and interviews in all platforms, MoPSE (2015;v). Based on the MoPSE (2015) assertion mentioned above, there are traits of the rational-empirical strategy in how information about the new CBC was gathered and transferred, although some sections of the society such as church organisations and some teachers and learners did not support the proposal by the initiators-MoPSE. Some church organisations showed their displeasure at the removal of Christianity as part of the new primary school subject Family Religion and Moral Education (FAREME) and some teachers and learners did not want the new curriculum, according to a Newsday article (Chidza, 2017).

The aforementioned sections of society who showed lack of support for the CBC serve to show that there were some stakeholders who were not convinced with the information given to them; hence, they did not see the wisdom of the change. It is a rational-empirical principle that if the right information is conveyed

convincingly, people will see the wisdom of the change and act in support of the proposal, but it does not follow that everyone will follow suit.

3.6.1.2 Normative re-educative strategy assumptions as they relate to Zimbabwe's social norms and values

According to Miles *et al.* (2002: 6), "the normative re-educative strategy is based on the premise that individuals (and human systems) are necessarily active in their search for need satisfaction and self-fulfilment and that change is largely values- based as opposed to rational in nature". (Kiprotich *et al*., 2019) support the aforementioned assertion by stating that the strategy aims to expose employees to new values and norms and the need to adopt these new value and norms.

In the context of this study, the CBC change in schools will take place gradually as indications are that most teachers' negative attitudes towards CBC still exist since its inception in 2017 to date (2022). Practising teachers still do not have pedagogical skills expected of the CBC because they still resort to their teacher-centred methods of teaching as observed by the researcher who is a principal and whose role it is to supervise teachers, among other roles.

In the case of Zimbabwe, education stakeholders such as industry and commerce, parents and the MoPSE were dissatisfied with the old curriculum, which was largely content-based and lacked values cherished by the general populace. The country's values and principles are largely traceable to *unhu/ ubuntu/ vumunhu* philosophy, which "emphasises universal human inter-dependence, solidarity, humanness and a sense of community common in African societies" (MoPSE, 2015:13). These values are considered important in African societies because there is that belief that whatever competence and skills learners might possess, they are not valued if one does not have such values as humanness and respect for other people. The CBC should inculcate these values in learners over and above developing competences in line with globalisation The contribution to change by stakeholders such as parents in respect of social norms and values links the normative re-educative strategies assumptions with the input of the exosystem level to the ecological systems (sections 2.6.4 and 3.2.2).

As a change strategy, the normative re-educative approach focuses on culture mainly and should, therefore, not be chosen in circumstances that need modification that is very urgent of issues and problems (Kiprotich *et al*., 2019). Nickols (2016) shares the same view as reflected in the assertion that ordinarily culture does not change quickly; hence, this normative re-educative strategy is not the best choice in a change situation at short notice .

3.6.1.3 Power-coercive strategy as an approach to bringing about change in the CBC implementation

In general, the power-coercive approach to change employs political and economic sanctions as the major tool to bring about change Miles *et al.* (2002), although the use of "moral" power also historically forms a key element to the strategy (Ibid) (Section 2.9.3.2). Political/positional power as a change strategy involves the creation of policies, laws and other legal statutes to bring with them legitimate sanctions for non-compliance (Miles *et al.*, 2002). Threat of sanctions of certain benefits or entitlements induces compliance in employees to comply with those who hold the power (Singh, 2009; Sullivan, 2012). Threats such as pay cuts, demotion, charge of misconduct, poor performance appraisal reports, deferment of salary advancement or promotion have been used in education in Zimbabwe (Magadzire, 2012).

Deeply held cultural beliefs about legitimacy of the hierarchy to enforce policy directives on members of the system (Miles *et al.,* 2002), influence many individuals. It is in this light that the school leader uses little effort to enforce change and teachers cannot openly resist the change process. Udod and Wagner (2018) cite situations in which power- coercive strategies can be used such as when change is critical, time is limited; there are high levels of resistance and when there may be little or no chance of reaching organisational consensus. The above listed instances where power-coercive strategies can be used are linked to autocratic leadership styles, implying that there is a strong correlation between autocratic leadership and the power-coercive strategy (Section 3.3.2). In the case of this study, power-coercive strategy must have been adopted due to the critical nature of the issue and also that there appeared to be no chance for general consensus on the CBC.

As is evident in the above discussion, it can be argued that this has been the main strategy of MoPSE in the implementation of the CBC. Evidence to support the above insinuation is in what is documented in the CFPSE, 2015, for example, the return to inspection of the implementation process, discussed in Section 3.7.1.2. The other evidence is what is observed in terms of the education system structure. Going by Magadzire's (2012) assertion that "organisation structure will include among other things: span of control, administrative hierarchy, centralisation, formalisation, responsibility, bureaucracy, …" (p. 182), it can be observed that the education structure is, for example, hierarchical, formalised, centralised and bureaucratic – see Section 2.9. Seen in this view, the MoPSE used the power-coercive strategy to change the curriculum although in the process some aspects of the rational-empirical and normative re-educative strategies were adopted.

3.6.2 How a change in curriculum influences leadership roles of practising principals

The literature on curriculum innovation endorses the view that a change in curriculum influences leadership roles of practising school leaders. According to Omar *et al.* (2011), the role of principals will

continue to evolve in line with current developments in the field of education because education is a social phenomenon that continues to change. Changes in education are occurring in curriculum diversification and pedagogic practices Duze (2012) due to globalisation such that educational systems worldwide need to keep in step with these (Section 2.3). Going by Duze's assertion that changes in education are occurring in pedagogic practices, it follows that one of the principal's new roles is developing teacher capacity in the teaching of new learning areas of the CBC. In times of change, the school leader is looked up to for information regarding all grey areas that teachers may not be well aware of, including pedagogical skills.

In a study on how the implementation of Malawi's senior secondary school revised curriculum was managed (Sabola, 2017), it was found that principals had inadequate subject knowledge, which compromised their confidence to supervise and provide advisory services for teaching of the new subjects. By implication this meant that the principals' supervisory role has been influenced by the introduction of new subjects, thus affirming the notion that a change in curriculum impacts leadership practice. The same could be true for primary school leaders in Zimbabwe who have had new learning areas introduced in the new CBC. As noted in Section 2.10.2 on knowledge and practice gaps, primary school leaders lack content knowledge of the new learning areas of the CBC and this subsequently influences their curriculum leadership role of how teachers teach the learning areas.

The CFPSE 2015-2022 is not silent about the issue of new roles of key actors in the teaching and learning process in schools. The key actors referred to are the learner, the teacher, the school principal, school development committee (SDC), parents, professional associations, industry and commerce and the Zimbabwe Schools Examination Council (ZIMSEC) (MoPSE, 2015:44). Since focus is on the new roles of school principals, Table 3.2, an extract from the CFPSE, is specifically on the new roles of school principals. Table 3.2 is a direct quotation of the expected or required new roles of school heads (principals) in line with the new CBC. The researcher wants the table as it is from the source so that the reader can refer to it when they read the researcher's argument that some of the roles listed are in actual fact not new.

Table 3.2: Key actors in teaching and learning and their new roles (MoPSE, 2015:45-46)

Key actors in teaching and learning process	New roles
School head	1. Provides a learner-friendly, safe, pleasant and enabling learning environment. 2. Involves stakeholders and education partners in school decisions. 3. Provides for differentiated learning and choice in the context of a broad curriculum. 4. Monitors continuous assessment and learner profiles. 5. Provides for consistency across the school (whole-school approach) in promoting learner-centred teaching in their establishment. 6. Engages in school networking to promote exchanges on and mutual learning from effective practices of learner-centred teaching and learning elsewhere. 7. Supports school-based teacher in-service training and mentoring as a means to improve teaching skills of staff by combining theoretical and practical aspects in real school life situations. 8. Collaborates with stakeholders in crafting school vision and mission and strategies in sync with the Ministry direction. 9. Works in collaboration with stakeholders in designing a school development plan and accountability procedures during implementation. 10. Pay special attention to implementing the principles and practices of inclusive education by taking into account and addressing diversity and the different learners' needs.

The table shows that the principal has ten new roles in the implementation of the CBC. There is literature to support the inclusion of these roles although the researcher is of the opinion that some of the roles are not 'new' in the literal sense because the principals have already been practising them. By way of example, providing a learner-friendly, safe, pleasant and enabling learning environment (Role 1) and involving stakeholders and education partners in school decisions (Role 2) cannot be new roles resulting from introduction of the CBC- it is something principals have always been practising. However, the CBC has come with a new supervisory role of monitoring continuous assessment and learner profiles (Role 4).

Role 6, which requires principals to engage in school networking to promote exchange on and mutual learning from effective practices of learner-centred teaching and learning elsewhere, is regarded ideal for this CBC because, by networking, school leaders will share experiences that will enhance the CBC implementation. The literature has it that leaders who form effective management teams are more effective than those who rely on their personal efforts (OECD, 2018). It follows that skills in networking, not only within but also across and beyond schools, are needed by principals. In support of this notion, Duze (2012) argues that in this globalisation era, marked by its global village through ICT, both teachers and principals

need to be always alert so as to be conversant with the latest knowledge, skills and competencies regarding changes in curriculum. Through networking at a global village level making use of ICT, principals will keep abreast with global trends of the CBC.

School leaders in Zimbabwe have always been expected to display in the office or foyer their school vision and mission, which they will have crafted. The view that principals should draw up a school vision is shared by Moos (2000:91) who reports that "the expectation appears to be that the head should bring his/her vision to the school". Role 8 appears to be a paradigm shift from the traditional class structure represented by hierarchical school structure Moos (2000), to a very flat structure where the principal is expected to initiate dialogue with teachers [and stakeholders, emphasis] in order to build a shared vision together with them (Ibid). This new role that principals "collaborate with stakeholders in crafting school vision and mission strategies in sync with Ministry direction" (MoPSE, 2015:45) has an element of control by MoPSE considering that everything has to be in sync with Ministry direction. The assertion authenticates the bureaucratic characteristic of Zimbabwe's education system because, as highlighted in Section 2.7, bureaucratic systems emphasise uniformity at the operations level (Kapsali, 2009). Role 8 implies that principals and others in schools need to "become coalition builders as much as managers of their internal running of schools themselves" (OECD, 2001b:26).

A lack of time and professional isolation are, however, major barriers to collaborative endeavours such as those expected of principals in new roles 2, 8 and 9 of the CFPSE (2015) in Table 3.2. Donaldson (2001:11) describes some major attributes of schools that contribute to what he calls a "leadership resistant architecture" reflected in a "conspiracy of business". What this implies is that there is very little time for the school leader to convene people for purposes of planning, organising and following through, especially if the school is large.

3.6.3 Bureaucratic characteristics and leadership styles in curriculum change process

Public sector organisations, such as schools, are underpinned by bureaucracy although there is the impression among scholars and citizens that it (governmental bureaucracy) has become a burden and ineffective (Qaisi, 2015). Problems surrounding public bureaucracy have solutions in leadership of governmental organisations although the literature acknowledges that the two concepts contradict each other when it comes to change in organisation. Bureaucracy, as characterised by the German sociologist Max Weber, is about authority, power, dehumanisation and stability (Qaisi, 2015), while leadership is the ability to make subordinates or followers accept the leader's vision without necessarily coercing them (Nagaraju, 2015) (Section 3.3.3). The new CBC implementation is a curriculum innovation (change) process, which requires school leaders to implement the change as expected by MoPSE then apply situational leadership styles in the process of implementation. In other words, principals manage curriculum implementation at one time and lead the implementation at another time- see Section 3.3.3.2

on duality and overlap of management and leadership roles of principals. This serious contradiction leaves leadership in a dilemma.

Leadership is there mainly to make leaders have an impact on their subordinates (Qaisi, 2015). Three main bureaucratic characteristics judged to be inconsistent with leadership are hierarchy, formalisation and centralisation (Ibid). Hierarchy limits the individual's ability to change since they are linked to their position in the hierarchy. What this means in the context of this study is that school leaders' ability to apply certain leadership styles is limited by their role and position in the hierarchy of the MoPSE. The change from the old curriculum to the CBC was initiated by the MoPSE following concerns raised by various stakeholders but the same public bureaucratic organisation (MoPSE) is judged to constrain school leadership to adopt other leadership styles other than bureaucratic practices by virtue of them (school leaders) being part of the bureaucratic hierarchy of the MoPSE.

Formalisation and centralisation go hand in hand when they are discussed in the bureaucracy context (Qaisi, 2015). In this context, centralisation is observed to refer to authority and decision-making. Similarly, formalisation concerns the regulation of organisational activities by formal rules (Ibid). Both principles of public sector bureaucracy (centralisation and formalisation) limit the ability principals to be innovative thus restrict their autonomy. These constraints are inconsistent with leadership that is expected to share leadership roles with teachers and empower them to be more innovative (Qaisi, 2015). The implication of the three cited bureaucratic constraints on leadership and on this study is that school leaders and teachers are limited by bureaucracy from deviating from the laid out rules and procedures of CBC implementation. For example, principals need to do scientific supervision, that is, supervision in the form of inspection, which is concerned with goal attainment (Magadzire, 2012). Similarly, it appears teachers too have no autonomy to come up with their own pedagogical methods save those stipulated in the new curriculum framework because the aforementioned scientific supervision expects them to teach to set standards and to operate according to syllabi and guides (Ibid). However, teachers are still resorting to the old teacher-centred methods in spite of them being expected to adopt the inquiry-based approach that characterises the learner-centred approach (Hendry, Frommer & Walker, 1999) (Section 2.2.2.2).

While bureaucracy still exists and continues to dominate in most government institutions the world over, the literature has it that it is not suitable for most of the jobs of the 21st Century where followers are expected to lead and show creativity and innovation (Qaisi, 2015). This suggests that public sector leaders, such as school leaders, need to have the ability to overcome bureaucratic obstacles and the ability to diversify their leadership style by practising a combination of leadership styles (Peretomode, 2012). This assertion is endorsed by Drewziecka and Roczniewska (2018) who argue that successful principals are those who adopt their leadership style contingently as the situation demands – Section 3.3.2.1. Bureaucracy has its advantages in the form of ensuring efficacy, consistency and efficiency in managing large organisations. As such, a combination of bureaucratic practices and other leadership

styles should be allowed to co-exist rather than having a situation whereby bureaucracy is the only model of leadership in the organisations.

3.7 Summary

This chapter provided the systems theory first as the framework of the study because of its link to schools and organisations as systems. Leadership, as a key concept in this study as well as theoretical perspectives related to it, were discussed. The study employed Mc Gregor's Theory X and Theory Y and adopted autocratic leadership and democratic leadership styles as ideal styles that explain leadership that exists in the education system in Zimbabwe. The duality and overlap between leadership and management in curriculum implementation was analysed to show how complementary these concepts are. This duality and overlap was observed to be one of the challenges for school principals in curriculum implementation. Curriculum leadership as a domain of leadership styles was discussed with focus on its related perspectives and curriculum leadership practices expected of school leaders.

The literature specific to research questions was availed, although some of it (on school leaders' experiences) will need to be supported with findings from the research . The chapter was concluded by discussing the concept of change as it relates to curriculum implementation, dwelling on such aspects as change theory and leadership styles. The next chapter examines the research design and methodology.

CHAPTER 4 RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY

4.1 Introduction

This chapter presents the research design and methodology of the study. The chapter begins by discussing the philosophical underpinnings of the research, which rest on the philosophical assumptions from ontology and epistemology. Interpretivism, as this research's paradigm or "lens by which reality is interpreted" (Nieuwenhuis, 2010:48), will be discussed. The chapter will also present the qualitative research design, which Creswell and Creswell (2018) view as an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals ascribe to a social or human problem. To understand and explore the meaning school leaders and teachers ascribe to the phenomenon under investigation, this chapter will discuss case study as the qualitative research design method for data collection. Also to be outlined in this chapter will be issues of participants and research instruments used in the study. The chapter will be concluded by discussing the data generation procedure and how this generated data were organised, transcribed, coded and aggregated into categories and themes meant to answer the major research questions of the study.

4.2 The philosophical perspective of the study

The literature of educational research has several philosophical perspectives such as objectivism and realism, idealism and rationalism, relativism and pragmatism (Luo, 2011). These philosophical perspectives rest on philosophical assumptions from ontology and epistemology. In support of this affirmation, Neuman (2014) argues that "all scientific research rests on assumptions and principles from these two areas (ontology and epistemology) whether or not a researcher acknowledges them" (p.93). Of the four aforementioned philosophical perspectives, relativism underpins this study on the experiences of primary school leaders on the implementation of the new CBC.

According to Guba and Lincoln (1983), relativism is the term that includes the philosophical perspective that oppose the idea of absolute truth (ontological assumption) and consider truth and reality as socially, culturally and experientially constructed. (epistemological assumption). The above notion is corroborated by Reber (1995) who states that relativism builds meanings from experiences of people or from actual occurrences and it (relativism) believes that meaning cannot exist independently of other events. The implication of relativism for research is that research should be conducted in normal settings without controlling outside variables (Luo, 2011).

Specific to this study, relativism forms the ideal philosophical framework for the study because this study seeks to gain knowledge of the experiences of primary school leaders on how the CBC is being implemented in schools, which are the natural settings of the principals. To produce this social science knowledge, Neuman (2014:95) affirms that we must "inductively observe, interpret and reflect on what

other people are saying and doing in specific contexts, which we simultaneously reflect on our experiences and interpretations". Research studies of this kind (as described above) are often categorised as qualitative research because of the extensive use of narrative data and qualitative analysis method (Luo, 2011).

According to Neuman (2014:95), the notion of "simultaneously reflecting on our own experiences and interpretations" [as researchers] refers to subjectivism – the belief that people cannot know an external or objective existence apart from their subjective awareness of it (also see Hatch & Cunliffe, 2012). Subjectivism does not only entail the researcher interacting with participants to understand the meaning they give to the phenomenon under study, but also that the researcher is biased in terms of not only what should be researched but also how the research should be conducted (Scotland, 2012). Guided by this philosophy that the researcher is motivated by his or her own interest, belief, skills and values; hence, subjectively, the researcher, in the context of this study strongly believes that knowledge of meanings school leaders hold about CBC implementation will contribute to the effective implementation of this new curriculum.

4.3 Research design

A research design is "a plan or strategy that moves from the underlying philosophical assumptions to specifying the selection of participants, the data analysis to be done" (Nieuwenhuis, 2012b: 70). In support of the above description of a research design, Yin (2011) refers to research designs as logical blueprints (detailed plans) while Marzyk (2005) affirms that a research design is a strategy used to examine the question of interest. Going by Yin's definition, The reasoning behind logical detailed plans is based on how the data collected is analysed so that the findings address the research questions. The opinion of "link between the research design and research questions" (Yin, 2011) is also shared by Frankel and Wallen (2009) who assert that the research design helps the researcher avoid a situation in which data evidence collected does not address the researcher's initial questions.

4.3.1 Qualitative research design

This study is based on a qualitative research design. One way of looking at qualitative research is based on its definitional conception. According to Creswell and Creswell (2018), qualitative research is viewed as an approach for exploring and understanding the meaning individuals or groups ascribe to a social or human problem. Leedy and Ormrod (2010) view qualitative research as a research methodology concerned with understanding the process and cultural context that underlie various behavioural patterns and a methodology mostly concerned with examining the participants in their natural environment.). Leininger (1984) views qualitative research as including the methods and techniques of observing, documenting, analysing and interpreting meanings of contextual and gestaltic characteristics of phenomena in their natural setting. Contextual refers to the external world, the particular context or

environment while gestaltic features refer to the internal world, the participants' viewpoints or frames of reference (Shumba, 2004). Included in gestaltic features are feelings, views, beliefs, patterns of action or non-action and the participants' interpretations or explanations they gave to them (Ibid, 2004).

The aforementioned definitions and descriptions of qualitative research are derived from the characteristics of qualitative research. Qualitative research has eight characteristics, which distinguish it from other approaches like quantitative and mixed methods research. These characteristics are: the natural setting, the researcher as key instrument, multiple sources of data, inductive analysis participants' meaning, emergent design, reflexivity and holistic account (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). A brief discussion of each of the characteristics would suffice to show the link between the definitions and of qualitative research and its characteristics and how it (qualitative research) applies to this particular study.

Natural setting or "naturalistic inquiry" (Fraenkel and Wallen, 2009), refers to the tendency by qualitative researchers to collect data in the field (fieldwork) where they have face-to-face interaction with participants who are experiencing the issue or problem under study (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Denzin and Lincoln (2000) claim that qualitative research involves an interpretive and naturalistic approach while Ospinia (2004) concurs that qualitative researchers study things in their natural settings, attempting to make sense of, or to interpret, phenomenon in terms of the meanings people bring to them. Implication of taking a researcher as the key instrument is that the researcher is the one who gathers the data using various data collection methods such as document analysis, interviews and observations (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). To this characteristic, Fraenkel and Wallen (2009) add that researcher's personal experiences and insights are an important part of inquiry and critical understanding the phenomenon. In this study, the researcher's experiences as an educator will be important to the inquiry and to understanding the experiences of primary school leaders and teachers in the implementation of the CBC.

Qualitative researchers use multiple sources of data such as interviews, observations, documents and audio visual information rather than rely on one data source (Creswell &Creswell, 2018). In this study, the researcher used interviews as sources of data. The careful analysis of data to bring out important categories, themes and interrelationships Frankel and Wallen (2009), is done inductively, that is, building patterns, categories and themes from the bottom up by organising the data into increasingly more abstract units of information (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). The above assertion is shared by Neuman (2014:70) who states that "theorising in an inductive direction is an approach to developing or confirming a theory that begins with concrete empirical evidence and work towards more abstract concepts".

Participants' meaning as a qualitative research characteristic serves to remind all researchers that in the entire qualitative research process, the researchers keep a focus on learning the meaning that the participants hold about the problem or issue, not the meaning that the researchers bring to the research or that writers express in the literature (Creswell and Creswell, 2018). The researcher of this study as an educationist is reminded to uphold what Fraenkel and Wallen (2009:424) call "empathic neutrality"), that is,

the researcher's passion should be understanding the world in its complexity – not proving something, not advocating, not advancing personal agendas, but understanding in spite of his or her personal experiences and empathic insight as part of the data (Ibid).

The above notion advanced by Fraenkel and Wallen resonates with what Creswell and Creswell (2018) term "reflexivity" wherein inquirers reflect on their role in the study and their personal background, culture and experiences which have a potential for shaping their interpretations – the themes they advance and meaning they ascribe to the data. Changes or shifts may occur to questions, forms of data collection, individuals to be studied and sites to be visited (Ibid). The above view is corroborated by Maxwell (2009:2) who asserts that "in qualitative research any component of the design may need to be reconsidered or modified during the study in response to new developments or to changes in some other components". In this study, however, there were no changes to any of the above – questions, forms of data collection, individuals and sites to be visited.

4.3.2 Case Study

Of the many qualitative research design approaches, this study used the case study research method. Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2009) define case study as a strategy for doing research which involves an empirical investigation of a particular contemporary phenomenon within its real life context rising multiple sources of evidence. Yin (2014) corroborates by arguing that a case study is an empirical inquiry that investigates a contemporary phenomenon in depth and within its real-life context. The case study strategy was of particular interest to the researcher as he wished to gain a rich understanding of the context of the research and the processes being enacted as asserted by Morris and Wood (1991). In support of Morris and Wood, Hitchcork and Hughes (1995) argue that one of the distinctive features of case studies is rich and orderly data that is pertinent to what is being studied. According to Yin (2003), case study as a research method is ideal when focus is to answer `how` and `why` questions. Such a view resonates with those of Saunders *et al*. (2009) who affirm that the case study strategy also has considerable ability to generate answers to the questions `why` as well as `what` and `how` questions. All the five research questions for this research were "what" questions and the adopted case study method was able to provide answers to them. Yin (2003) further states that case study is best in situation where the researcher is unable to influence participants' behaviour. In this study, the researcher had no influence on how school leaders experienced CBC implementation because the researcher is often at a distance from the context (schools) under examination (Jackson, Drummond & Camara, 2007). However, the school learning context of the CBC was regarded as highly relevant to the phenomenon (of exploring school leaders' experiences of the implementation process of the CBC) under study.

Adopting a case study approach has the advantage that the researcher is able to deal with deep and complex issues of a phenomenon under study because the focus is on one or a few cases (Denscombe, 2017). Cohen *et al. (*2007) state that case studies give attention to concealed and intricate aspects of a

case under investigation. The other advantage of a case study approach is its use of multiple methods in capturing the complex reality being studied (Denscombe, 2017). Cohen *et al*. (2007) compare case study data and other research data when they assert that case study data are strong in reality but difficult to organise in contrast to other research data that are often weak in reality but susceptible to ready organisation. The strength in reality is premised in the realistic and captivating nature of case studies. In spite of these advantages, case studies have some weaknesses too.

In sharp contrast with the above assertion by Cohen *et al*. (2007) on creating a natural basis for generalisation Denscombe (2017), argues that the point at which the case study approach is most vulnerable to criticism is in relation to the credibility of generalisations made from its findings. The author suggests that there is a need to be wary to diminish suspicions and to show the extent to which the case resembles , or contrasts with others of its kind (Ibid). Based on this assertion, it can be argued that findings from a case study can somehow be generalised by taking due diligence in allaying suspicions. Another disadvantage of case study approach relates to negotiating access to case study settings, which can flounder if permission is withheld or withdrawn (Denscombe, 2017). Fieldwork demands a lot of time despite this being a strength as the long stay in the field paves way for generating data that is trustworthy (Bukaliya, 2019).

4.3.3 Case study types

According to Stake (2010), there are three types of case studies, namely intrinsic, instrumental and collective case studies. An intrinsic case study does not generalise findings beyond the single case and it is not characterised by building up theories for future testing and refining (Ibid) – see Section 4.10.1 on deductive and inductive data analysis. As such the results from this kind of study are confined to the specific occurrence being studied. When the reason for investigation is to provide insight into the issue, an instrumental case study is conducted and, as Stake (2010) affirms, this case study is instrumental in the revision and revisiting of a generalisation. The last case study type- collective case study- refers to a number of cases that are studied so as to investigate some general phenomenon.

There are various methods of case study, two of them being single case study method and multiple case study method (Creswell, 2013; Yin, 2014). The single case study, as the name suggests, refers to one case being studied and this has the disadvantage that it cannot provide generalised conclusions to a phenomenon (Yin, 2014). A single case study also relies on a few sources of data, which again turns out as another disadvantage. On the other hand, multiple case studies rely on numerous data sources as evidence (Ibid). In this study the researcher generated data from principals, deputy principals, TICs and teachers from various sites (schools), an indication that a multiple case study design was employed although the method (interviews) used was only one.

4.4 The research paradigm

Important philosophical systems that distinguish approaches to research are referred to as research paradigms (Schnelker, 2006). In writing a research project researchers should recognise philosophical ideas because they influence research practice and "help explain why the researchers chose qualitative, quantitative or mixed method approaches for their research" (Creswell & Creswell, 2018:6). Qualitative research scholars refer to philosophical ideas using different names such as paradigms (Mertens, 2005; Lincoln, Lynham & Guba, 2011), worldviews (Creswell & Creswell, 2018), epistemologies and ontologies (Crotty, 1998) and broadly conceived research methodologies (Neuman, 2014). In this research, the researcher has chosen to use the term paradigm as meaning "a way of looking at the world". As viewed by Nieuwenhuis (2010) a paradigm serves as the lens or organising principles for interpreting reality. Neuman's definition of a paradigm is observed to highlight assumptions, models of quality research and methods of data collection when he states that a paradigm is "a general organising framework for theory and research that includes basic assumptions, key issues, models of quality research and methods of seeking answers" (Neuman, 2014;96).

The qualitative research literature discusses several paradigms or assumptions researchers bring to inquiry such as postpositivism, constructivism (also called interpretivism), transformative and pragmatism (Creswell & Creswell, 2018). Schnelker (2006) speaks of realist interpretivism and idealist interpretivism paradigms, which were recognised as a result of further inquiry into philosophical distinctions. Realist interpretivism is a refinement of the aforementioned postpositivism and idealist interpretivism "is the initial idealist-based paradigm and is a precursor to Guba & Lincoln's (1994) constructivist paradigm" (Schnelker, 2006:44). This research's practice will be informed by the idealist interpretivism paradigm.

4.4.1 Idealist Interpretivism paradigm

According to Schnelker (2006), idealism assumes that reality is an abstract idea made in the mind of person which is influenced by that person's perceptions, feelings, motives, values, or experiences of the construct . Schnelker defies realists' assumption that there is one type of reality which does not change and the same all over. Therefore, since studying idealist realities needs interpretive methodological assumptions, it is referred to as idealist interpretivism. Idealist interpretivism, just like realist interpretivism, is characterised by researchers focusing on how people understand their environments instead of the conclusions people make about their environments (Schnelker, 2006). In support, Creswell (2007) states that in the interpretivism paradigm, individuals seek to make sense about the society in which they live. Another characteristic of idealist interpretivism, unlike realist interpretivism, is that there are no guidelines that generalise across individuals, settings, or time (Schnelker, 2006). This implies that the interpretivists aim to gain the deeper understanding and knowledge of phenomena within its complexity of the context rather than generalise these results to other people and other contexts (Cohen, Manion & Marison, 2007), hence it tends to leave out a gap in verifying validity and usefulness of research outcomes with using

scientific procedures. This turns out to be one of the limitations of interpretivism, the other criticisms being that interpretivism's ontological view tends to be subjective rather than objective, Mack (2010) and its lack of addressing the political and ideological impact on knowledge and social reality (Pham, 2018). Idealist interpretivism research, therefore, aims to generate symbolic knowledge, descriptions of individuals and unique realities that provide readers a deep understanding of the phenomenon of interest (Ibid). In respect of this study, the research seeks to provide readers a deep understanding of the experiences of primary school leaders and teachers in the implementation of the CBC from their lived experiences.

Cohen et al. (2007) refer to four groups of assumptions that underpin interpretivism: assumptions of an ontological kind, epistemological assumptions, human nature assumptions and methodological assumptions. Hitchcock and Hughes (1995) suggest that ontological assumptions give rise to epistemological assumptions; these, in turn, give rise to methodological considerations; and these in turn, give rise to issues of instrumentation and data collection. Such a view resonates with those of Schnelker (2006) who asserts that assumptions about the nature of reality (ontological assumptions) are logically related to assumptions about the nature of knowledge (epistemological assumptions), which are logically related to assumptions about procedures for investigating what can be known (methodological assumptions). Ontological assumptions relate to the importance of the phenomenon being investigated. One example of a question asked by ontological assumptions authors reads: is social reality external to individuals- imposing itself on their consciousness from without – or is it a product of individual consciousness? (Cohen *et al.*, 2007). As a response to the above question, the literature has it that, ontologically, interpretivism is relativism (Scotland, 2012), which assumes that all that people have as knowledge is dependent on individuals' perceptions of a phenomenon (Nieuwenhuis, 2012a). By implication, the aforementioned means that social reality does not impose itself on individuals from outside, but rather, knowledge is a product of the consciousness of individuals.

In respect of assumptions of an epistemological kind Cohen et al. (2007) argue that the very bases of knowledge - its nature and forms, how it can be acquired and how it is communicated to other human beings. As further noted by Schnelker (2006), epistemological assumptions deal with the type of knowledge and what is considered as knowledge. The basis (underpinning) of knowledge starts from the position that our knowledge of reality is a social construction by people (Walshman, 1993). The nature or forms of knowledge sought by interpretivist researchers are generally meanings individuals give to the world or issues being studied from their experiences. The epistemological stance in respect of how knowledge can be acquired through participant observation or case study is echoed by Merriam (2009). Methodological assumptions relate to procedures that are used by researchers to study a phenomenon of their interest investigate what they believe can be known, and the reasons behind these procedures (Schnelker, 2006).

The last set of assumptions underpinning interpretivism, according to Burrell and Morgan (1979), mostly deal with the relationship between human beings and their environment. Two images of human beings emerge from such assumptions: the one that portrays them as responding mechanically and deterministically to their environment, that is, as products of the environment, controlled like puppets (determinism) (Cohen et al.,2007). The other portrays human beings as initiators of their actions with free will and creativity, producing their own environments (voluntarism) (Cohen *et al.*, 2007).

4.4.2 How interpretivism shaped the approach to this study

Interpretivism, as the proposed research paradigm for this study, influences research practice (Creswell & Creswell, 2018) and shapes the approach to this study. The definitions of interpretivism, terms linked to it and basic ideas of the paradigm discussed in Section 4.3.1 depict how interpretivism shaped the following: research approach and research methods. Research approaches are plans and the procedures for research that span the steps from broad assumptions to detailed methods of data collection, analysis and interpretation´(Creswell and Creswell, 2018:303).

A qualitative research approach was adopted for this study (Section 4.4.1). The rationale to use this approach to investigate the topic was informed by the philosophical assumptions the researcher brought to the study. In this study, the researcher intends to understand the meanings primary school leaders attach to the implementation of the CBC which is reason for gathering data personally (fieldwork). The interpretivist assumption is that researchers' interpretation of data is influenced by their own experiences and background (Crotty, 1998). Seen in this view, Schnelker (2006) attests that researchers are ultimately responsible for interpreting how others (principals in the case of this study) make sense of their experiences and conveying those interpretations to the readers.

With respect to research methods, interpretivism has influenced the researcher to use interviews as the data generation method because data from interviews helps bring out meanings and motives of participants (Whitley, 1984).

4.5 Research participants

The participants for this study consisted of five primary school principals, five deputy principals, five teachers-in-charge (TICs) and five teachers in Mbare/Hatfield District in Harare Metropolitan Province because of its proximity with the researcher who works in the same district. These prospective participants had rich with information on the implementation of the new CBC. For this reason, all the participants who took part in the study were purposefully sampled.

4.5.1 Methods of selecting participants for the study

The process of selecting participants from a large group is referred to as sampling. Patton (2014) defines sampling as a method of obtaining representative data or observations from a group such as one consisting of people and organisations that are of interest to a research study. Babbie and Mouton (2015), speak of probability and non-probability sampling techniques. In probability sampling there is the utilisation of random selection of participants, making sure that all members of the prospective group of participants have an equal opportunity of making it into the sample (Mertens, 2005). Non-probability sampling is not characterised by the criterion of randomness and, as Babbie and Mouton (2015) posit, chances that one is selected into a sample are not known. This study adopted non-probability sampling.

4.5.1.1 Non-probability sampling

Non-probability sampling is a type of sampling that is used to choose participants and has its underpinnings in the qualitative worldview, according to Mertens (2005). Non-probability sampling was used in selecting participants of this study. In this type of sampling, the researcher is in control since he/she uses his/her judgement to select participants to take part in the study (Bukaliya, 2019). Non-probability sampling is very convenient and time saving (Bryman, 2012). Where the whole group of participants is not known, non-probability samples are appropriate (Berg, 2012). Non-probability sampling methods include quota, modal instance, convenience and purposive sampling, among others (Cohen, Manion & Morrisson, 2007). The researcher came up with the group of participants for this study by purposively sampling them.

4.5.1.2 Purposive sampling technique

Since this is a qualitative case study, Yin (2011) argues that samples for the study can be deliberately chosen using the purposive sampling technique. Participants are purposively sampled considering their qualities and relevance to the study Johnson and Christensen (2012). The purpose of selecting the specific study units is to have those that will yield the most relevant and plentiful data given one's topic of study (Yin 2011). The choice of the sampling technique was also necessitated by the view that a purposive approach enables the researcher to get a sample in place (Bukaliya, 2019). The process of purposive sampling is inexpensive and is of great convenience to the researcher (Creswell, 2013).

In pursuit of the above view, the assumption was that these participants (school leaders) were experiencing the phenomenon being investigated. School leaders experienced the implementation of the CBC phenomenon in their respective schools and how they were affected by the context in which they worked.

Teachers were also purposefully sampled, just as school leaders, because these teachers are at the receiving end of the school leaders; hence, they could give another perspective of leadership from how

they are receiving it. The views of teachers on how the CBC is being implemented and how they are being supervised by their school leaders were, therefore, assumed to be useful to the study.

The sample was thus made up of five primary schools in the district whose principals were willing to participate. Willingness to participate is an ethical practice in research, which advocates that participants should participate in a research voluntarily (Neuman, 2014). The researcher knew that the participants were willing to participate as they signed the informed consent forms after his presentation of the research topic. Implementation of the CBC is a topical issue in the education sector especially with practising educators such that there was enthusiasm among the selected participants to take part. All in all 20 participants were selected from five schools. Primary schools in Zimbabwe generally have one principal, one deputy principal and one teacher-in-charge (TIC) per school and as such, these became participants with school leadership positions who had indicated willingness to participate. One teacher per school was purposefully selected also on the basis of willingness to participate as well as on the criterion that the teacher was already teaching in 2015 when the CBC was implemented. The 20 participants thus consisted of five principals, five deputy principals, five TICs and five teachers.

4.6 Data generation method

Data collection is described as the process of investigating a phenomenon through gathering and analysing observational data (Best & Khan, 2006). In data generation, the researcher uses various research instruments, which are viewed by Yin (2011) as tools for collecting data. Cohen *et al.* (2007:181) aver that “there is no single prescription for which data generation instruments to use; rather the issue is of `fitness of purpose`”. The above assertion is corroborated by Stake (2010:89) who states that “methods of gathering data are selected to fit the research question and to fit the style of inquiry the researcher prefers”. This study adopted one data generation method, namely semi-structured interviews.

4.6.1 Semi- structured interviews

There are different forms of interviewing most commonly associated with qualitative research, the overarching term being semi-structured interviews (Brooks & Normore, 2015). Specific to this study were the open-ended interviews characterised by verbatim and sequences of pre-determined questions. Turner (2010) speaks of identical questions for every participant although the wording calls for open-ended responses. The aim of asking identical questions is usually to ensure flexibility in how and in what sequence questions are asked and in whether and how particular areas might be followed up and developed with different interviews (Brooks & Normore, 2015). This view resonates with those of Corbetta (2003) who states that in semi-structured interviews the decision on the type of questions rests with the researcher. The notion of further probing as a feature of open-ended interviewing is also corroborated by Turner (2010) in this assertion that the open-endedness allows the participants to contribute as much

detailed information as they desire and it allows the researcher to ask probing questions as a means to follow up.

In qualitative research, there are advantages of asking open-ended questions during interviews such as non-interference from the researcher or past research findings (Creswell, 2012). The other strength is that the interviewer has better control over the types of information received as he/she can ask probing questions. (Ibid). However, there are weaknesses with open-ended interviewing, which are mainly associated with difficulty with coding the data (Turner, 2010). Since open-ended interviews require participants to fully express their viewpoints and experiences, "it can be quite difficult for the researcher to extract similar themes or codes from the interview transcripts as they would with less open-ended responses" (Turner, 2010:756).

The approach used to interviewing was what Creswell (2012) calls one-on-one interviews conducted with individual participants, one at a time. The responses of participants were recorded using a voice recorder during the interviews and the researcher also made field notes. School leaders (principals, deputy principals and TICs) were interviewed in their offices, while teachers were interviewed either in their classrooms or staffroom depending on their choice of venue. The duration of the interviews ranged between 40 minutes and one hour and the interviews were conducted after school hours.

4.7 Data analysis method

Qualitative data can be analysed inductively or deductively. By deductively is meant that data is analysed from the general to the specific and conversely, inductively refers to analysing data from the specific to the general (Woiceshyn & Daellenbach, 2018). It can be argued that the two – deductive and inductive research data analysis methods - are opposite sides of the same coin. One starts from the general to the particular while the other starts from the particular to the general in the research process. Induction was of importance in the development of valid theories, based on the argument that it starts from the particular to the general. For this reason, induction comes before deduction because it is needed to test and further refine theories developed by inductive research (Woiceshyn & Daellenbach, 2018). Seen in this view, induction and deduction are complementary.

In this research context, the researcher used an inductive approach, because he is starting with unanswered questions (the specific) about a particular phenomenon of interest, which in this case is, the experiences of primary school leaders and teachers in the implementation of the CBC. After generating qualitative data through interviews, data analysis went through the induction process of, for example, coding the data, identifying themes or concepts to answer the research questions. Conclusions and solutions that will be drawn then become part of new knowledge created from the study (Bukaliya, 2019). This new knowledge is what deductive research needs to revisit and further refine.

The researcher adopted a thematic data analysis method, which is a qualitative data analysis approach of identifying, analysing and reporting patterns (themes) within data (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The data analysis strategy shed light on what the actual experience were of the leaders and teachers in the implementation of the new CBC in the five primary schools in Zimbabwe; how the data analysis strategy was used to explore the main research findings related to curriculum implementation; and how the participants, particularly the principals, were shaped by the curriculum implementation process. The relationship between themes and research questions is found in themes capturing data that pertains to research questions (Ibid). This assertion by Braun and Clarke can be linked to the discussion above on inductive and deductive approaches to data analysis to make the conclusion that this study used a deductive analysis approach based on research questions to analyse the data.

According to Braun and Clarke (2006), themes within data can be identified in one of two primary ways in thematic analysis, namely inductive and theoretical (deductive). The former (inductive) is bottom up and the latter (deductive) is top down. The researcher codes the data according to specific research questions as is the case in this study.

Data analysis refers to the systematic organisation of data with a view to establish patterns and relationships from the generated data (Neuman, 2014). Cohen *et al*. (2007) state that qualitative data analysis involves organising, accounting for and explaining the data; as well as making sense of the data in terms of the participants' definition of the situation, noting patterns, themes, categories and regularities.

Of the three approaches to qualitative data analysis, namely interpretive approaches, social anthropological approaches and collaborative social research approaches (Lune & Berg, 2017), this research adopted the more general interpretive orientation, which organised or reduced data in order to uncover patterns of human activity, action and meaning.

In this study, the initial preparation of the data for analysis required the researcher to organise the vast amount of information gathered, transferring it from spoken and written words to a typed file (Creswell, 2012), the transcription process. The material was organised by the research questions method of organising analysis. Organising analysis by research question is a very useful way of organising data, as it draws together all the relevant data for the exact issue of concern to the researcher and preserves the coherence of the material (Cohen et al., 2007). All the relevant data from interviews were collated to provide answers to research questions.

After organising the data by research questions, the researcher transcribed the data himself. The researcher also made a decision to analyse the data by hand because there are risks with using computer software. One such risk in using software, according to Yin (2011), is the added attention needed to follow the software's procedures and terminology. The challenge associated with this is that such attention may

detract from the desired analytic thinking, energy and decisions that are needed to carry out a strong analysis (Yin, 2011).

According to Creswell (2012), data analysis starts with segmenting and labelling text which, in qualitative research is called coding. Nieuwenhuis (2012c) associates coding with marking the sections of data with signs, expressive words or distinctive identifying names in order to try and identify themes. Coding is meant to make sense out of the text data, divide it into text or image segments, label the segments with codes, examine codes for overlap and redundancy and collapse these codes into broad themes(Creswell, 2012).

After coding the text, the next stage is to organise the codes into identified categories (Chingara, 2018). In this study, the researcher examined the data in detail to describe the identified themes of ideas from the data. This process of describing and developing themes from the data involves answering the major research questions and forming an in-depth understanding of the central phenomenon through description and thematic development(Creswell, 2012).

The stages discussed above on data analysis speak to Braun and Clarke's (2006) theory of on six phases of inductive thematic analysis, which underpins this study's data analysis. Although the main themes can be said to be arrived at deductively from sub-research questions, the many sub-themes are arrived at through a thematic analysis.

4.8 Trustworthiness and validity strategies

Trustworthiness can be ensured through credibility, dependability, confirmability and transferability (Anney, 2015). Credibility is the confidence that can be placed in the perceived truth of the research findings by the reader (Ibid). In this study, credibility was insured through member checking when the researcher took the transcribed data back to the participants for them to verify whether what had been transcribed, was what they had actually said.

On the other hand, transferability, the interpretive equivalent of generalisability, is defined by Bitsch (2005:85) as "the degree to which the results of the qualitative research can be transferred to other contexts with other respondents. Elo *et al* (2014) posit that transferability refers to the potential for extrapolation, that is, it relies on the reasoning that findings can be generalised or transferred to other settings.

Dependability refers to the stability of findings with the passage of time (Bitsch, 2005). Elo *et al* (2014) concurs with Bitsch, but adds "under different conditions". By implication, findings are dependable when they remain the same even if the study is conducted under different settings. Confirmability is another measure of trustworthiness Regarding confirmability, Anney (2015) argues that it is the extent to which the results of an inquiry could be confirmed or supported by other researchers. Elo *et al* (2014) also advances

the notion of consistency in data gathered from two or more independent people for confirmability to ascertained. In the study confirmability was ensured by seeking the experience of CBC implementation from more than one school leader and more than one teacher. Audit trails, reflexive journals and triangulation help achieve confirmability of qualitative inquiry. During the research, dependability was ensured by asking the same questions to different school leaders and teachers.

Accuracy and construct validity of research findings can be enhanced through triangulation. There are various types of triangulation, which include triangulation of measure (data), triangulation of observers (investigators), triangulation of theory and triangulation of method (Neuman, 2014). This view of the aforementioned types of triangulation is also shared by Heale and Forbes (2013) who associate triangulation with the use of multiple theories, data sources, methods or investigators within the study of a single phenomenon. Similarly data triangulation refers to using different sources of data, such as places, times and people who could be involved in the research (Wilson, 2014). Investigator triangulation is the use of multiple researchers in the gathering and analysis of data while methodological triangulation implies using more than one method (interviews, observations) to gather data (Ibid). Theory triangulation refers to the possibility of exploring multiple theories as a way of interpreting the same data group (Abdalla, Oliveira, Azevedo. & Gonzalez, 2018). In this study data triangulation will be adopted in the context of the strategy's use of different people who could be involved in the research. This study will use different participants, namely principals, deputy principals, TICs and teachers from different schools in Mbare/Hatfield District, which is in Harare Metropolitan Province.

Member checking, as a strategy to ensure credibility, requires that the examination and elucidation of data by researchers should comprise what respondents had said (Anney,2015). According to Stake (2010:126), "member check is presenting a recording or draft copy of an observation or interview to the persons providing the information and asking for correction and comment". This helps to reduce errors and to protect human subjects from being linked to what they did not contribute; hence, there is a need for the researcher to create opportunities for participants to have a re-look at their transcribed data (Stake, 2010). However, there are challenges to ensure that member checking is successful as the participant might have little interest in it or has no time to examine the excerpt (Stake, 2010). To counter this challenge, the researcher is advised to present the excerpt as early as possible instead of waiting until one has lots of material from a data participant.

Yin (2011:37) asserts that "pilot studies help to test and refine one or more aspects of a final study, for example, its design, fieldwork procedures, data collection instruments, or analysis procedures". The assertion seems to suggest that piloting is needed to check how the study will be conducted before embarking on the real study. Accountability is achieved by maintaining an audit trail. An audit trail involves an examination of the inquiry process and product to validate the data, whereby a researcher accounts for all the research decisions and activities on how data were collected, recorded and analysed (Bowen,

2009). Audit trails thus bring confirmability to the research as it offers evidence of absence of bias towards what the researcher might be assumed to have wanted to discover.

4.9 Ethical considerations

Ethical issues in research are so pertinent because social scientists, by nature of their research practices, get into the lives of other people in search of answers addressing their research questions. Ethical research practices are influenced by the 1979 Belmont Report and further enforced by the 2010 Singapore Statement on Research Integrity. The Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education (NWU) was the first body to issue the researcher with ethical clearance to conduct the research (Appendix A). The following were steps were taken to obtain permission to undertake research. Permission was granted: The permanent secretary in the MoPSE (Appendix B); the District schools Inspector of Mbare/Hatfield district (Appendix D) and the principal of each of the participating schools (Appendix E).

The other major ethical consideration is informed consent from the participants to take part in the research voluntarily. This is very important because unfair pressure should not be placed on people to participate. The researcher ascertained that every participant signed the informed consent form before the interviews began- a sign that they had taken part in the research voluntarily. The participants were made aware of the fact that they were free to withdraw from the research at any stage without any consequence. The researcher also considered issues of anonymity, confidentiality and privacy. Schools were coded as School A, School B, School C, School D and School E. Participants, for example, were given pseudonyms as follows: Principal School A, Principal School B, Principal School C, Principal School D and Principal School E. Deputy Principals were coded as Deputy Principal School A , Deputy Principal School B, Deputy Principal School C, Deputy Principal School D and Deputy Principal School E Teachers-in-charge were coded as TIC School A, TIC School B, TIC School C, TIC School D and TIC School E and then teachers were coded as Teacher School A, Teacher School B, Teacher School C, Teacher School D and Teacher School E.

Ensuring anonymity is an important ethical practice because using pseudonyms, will ensure that the participants remain anonymous and their identities are not disclosed. According to Neuman (2014:154), researchers protect the privacy of participants by not disclosing a participant's identity after information is gathered. Privacy is also achieved through confidentiality, which shows a link between the two ethical considerations. It should be understood that confidentiality may protect participants from physical harm for some sensitive studies.

Prior to the interview, the researcher sought permission to record the responses of the participants using a voice recorder. The researcher also made field notes during the interviews, which would be later reviewed during the process of transcription and listening to the audio recordings. The recorded data were stored in a secure place where it can be accessed by only the researcher and his supervisor. These data will remain

in a secure place for the next seven years, being kept by the supervisor of this study. Interviews were conducted in privacy and the researcher did not divulge names of participants to anyone.

Participants were informed that they were free to withdraw anytime from the study if they wished to do so. They were also informed that there were no direct benefits by participating, but they would get a copy of the finished project upon request. Participants were requested to complete and sign consent forms before being interviewed (Appendix F). In terms of risks involved, the participants were assured that there were no physical risks except minor discomfort resulting from the time one takes during the interview.

4.10 Summary

Chapter 4 presented the research design and methodology for this study. It commenced by discussing the philosophical underpinnings of the study, which rest on the philosophical assumptions from ontology and epistemology. Interpretivism, as this research's paradigm, was also discussed. The chapter then presented the qualitative research design, which was followed by issues of research participants, sampling methods as well as the data generation method used. Research instruments – qualitative interviews - were discussed. The chapter was concluded by describing how the generated data were organised, transcribed, coded and eventually aggregated into themes and descriptions to answer the major research questions of the study. The next chapter will be on data presentation.

CHAPTER 5 DATA PRESENTATION

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 focuses on data presentation. It presents the data from the interviews that indicate experiences of implementing the CBC by Zimbabwean primary school leaders and teachers as well as suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform.

Five schools participated in the study. The schools were located in Mbare/Hatfield District of Harare Metropolitan Province and were selected on the basis of them being primary schools where the new CBC was taught (implemented) since the inception of the curriculum reform in 2017. All the five schools were situated in an urban setting and participants in the interviews were principals, deputy principals, TICs and teachers.

The following five themes emerged from the data:

- School leaders' and teachers' experiences of CBC implementation;
- School leaders and teachers' perceptions of CBC implementation;
- Leadership roles in CBC implementation;
- Challenges of CBC implementation; and
- Suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform.

The theme **school leaders' and teachers' experiences of the CBC implementation** revealed how school leaders and teachers were experiencing the CBC implementation, including the influence of bureaucracy and hierarchy of Zimbabwe's education system on the CBC implementation.

The theme **participants' perceptions of the CBC implementation** revealed how school leaders and teachers perceived the CBC and its implementation. This included perceptions of the CBC at inception, how its worthwhileness as a curriculum reform was viewed and how the implementation process was evaluated by participants.

The theme **leadership roles in the CBC implementation** revealed the part played by leadership at the micro (school) level and at the macro (national) level in the implementation process of the CBC.

The theme **challenges of the CBC implementation** revealed challenges Zimbabwean primary school principals, deputy principals, TICs and teachers were encountering with the implementation of the CBC.

The last theme, **suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform**, revealed what the participants perceived as measures that can be taken by both school and national leaders to enhance this CBC implementation and other curriculum reforms in general.

5.2 Research environments

Research environments refer to information relating to schools in the study. The five schools are situated in an urban setting of Mbare/ Hatfield District of the Harare Metropolitan Province. All the five schools are government schools, which offer ECD A to Grade 7 classes. They use English as the official medium of instruction from grades 3 to 7, but for ECD A to Grade 2 learners (infants), the medium of instruction is the mother language. As Harare province is in the Mashonaland region dominated by the Shona people, the medium of instruction for infants is Shona language.

Christianity is the dominant religion in Zimbabwe, including the communities where the schools are situated. However, at one of the schools, Islam is a recognised religion by a small section of the community. This school is in a high density suburb with parents of a medium to low Socio-economic status (SES). The other four schools are situated in low density suburbs where the parents are generally of a medium to high SES. The issues of SES of parents have a bearing on the ability of parents to support CBC implementation as will be observed from the findings of the study.

Table 5.1 gives some insight into the size of the schools in terms of teacher and learner numbers.

Table 5.1: Teacher establishment and learner enrolments in the schools

SCHOOL	NUMBER OF TEACHERS	NUMBER OF LEARNERS
A	48	1769
B	37	1394
C	52	1985
D	41	1473
E	13	434

Table 5.1 shows that four of the schools had high numbers of teachers and learners, an indication that parents wanted their children to go to these schools. During the colonial period, these schools were Group A schools, where white children received their education so most parents want their children to go to these schools because parents still want their children to be associated with the culture of these former Group A schools. The researcher was once a deputy principal at one of these former Group A schools and that is when he observed that some learners came from high density suburbs 20 or more kilometres away from the school. the parents either drove their children to the school or organised buses that would take their children to and from the school. School E was in the high density suburbs but catering for a small community of industrial workers who live in a compound built for them by the employer in the industrial site. The school was taken over by the government when the company was liquidated in 2000. Its

catchment area of learners is limited and it has very little space to expand in terms of buildings; hence, its small enrolment.

5.3 Profiles of participants

This section on bio-data of participants presents information deemed useful to the reader on the type of participants in the study. To be presented is the gender of participants, which depicted teaching as a female-dominated profession in Zimbabwe (Table 5.1). Also to be presented are the ages of the participants (Table 5.2) as well as their teaching experience and professional qualifications (Table 5.3). At each school, four participants took part: the principal, the deputy principal, TIC and a teacher.

Eighteen of the 20 participants participated in the study because the TIC of school B was not at work on the day interviews were conducted at their school. When contacted for a reschedule, she indicated that she had withdrawn from participation. At school E, the TIC withdrew before the interview started. This is represented by N/A in Tables 5.3 and 5.4.

Table 5. 2 : Gender of participants

Position	Female	Male	Totals
School principals	0	5	5
Deputy school principals	5	0	5
TICs	3	0	3
Teachers	4	1	5
Totals	12	6	18

Table 5.2 indicates that all five school principals were males. All five deputy principals were females. All the TICs who participated were females. Four of the teachers were females and only one was male. Of the 18 participants who took part in the study, 12 were females and six were males. This is a normal teacher composition in the country considering that there are more female teachers than male teachers in the teaching fraternity.

Table 5. 3 :Age of participants

School	School Principal (Age)	Deputy School Principal (Age)	TIC (Age)	Teacher (Age)
A	45	36	45	34
B	56	56	N/A	50
C	53	46	53	44
D	55	50	48	57
E	64	46	N/A	42

Table 5.3 shows that only one school principal was a year away from the mandatory retirement age of 65. Three principals, two deputy principals, one TIC and two teachers were in their fifties.

I. One principal, two deputy principals, two TICs and two teachers were in their forties. One deputy principal and one teacher were in their thirties. An analysis of the ages of the participants shows that the majority- eight of them were in their fifties, seven of them in their forties, two in their thirties and only one in the sixties. The implication of the ages of the participants to this study is that they are mostly mature and experienced in the former curriculum, which could help them to better understand the new curriculum during in-service training. For some of them, curriculum change is not something new as they taught during the pre-independence era and the post-independence era in which the curriculum is changing for the second time.

Tables 5.4 to 5.7 provide an overview of the teaching experience and professional qualifications of the participants.

Table 5.4: Teaching experience and professional qualifications of principals

Principal	Experience (years)	Highest professional qualifications
A	22 years	Bachelor's in Education Management
B	33 years	Master's in Education
C	27 years	BA General in English
D	31 years	Master's in Education Administration
E	41 years	Bachelor's in Education Management

Table 5.5 : Teaching experience and professional qualifications of deputy principals

Deputy Principal	Experience (years)	Highest professional qualifications
A	15 years	Diploma in Education
B	33 years	Master's in Special Needs Education
C	24 years	Bachelor's in Special Needs Education
D	26 years	Master's of Science in Psychology
E	16 years	Bachelor's of Science in Geography

Table 5.6 : Teaching experience and professional qualifications of TICs

TIC	Experience (years)	Highest professional qualifications
A	18 years	Diploma in Education
B	N/A	N/A
C	22 years	Bachelor's in Education Management
D	25 years	Bachelor's in Science in Psychology
E	N/A	N/A

Table 5.7 : Teaching experience and professional qualifications of Teachers

Teacher	Experience (years)	Highest professional qualifications
A	12 years	Bachelor's in Education
B	12 years	Diploma in Education
C	23 years	Master's in Education Management
D	33 years	Certificate in Education
E	20 years	Bachelor's in Education Leadership

Tables 5.4 to 5.7 show that two principals had been in the teaching service for more than 20 years, another two for more than 30 years and one principal had more than 40 years' service when the study was conducted. Three deputy principals had been in the teaching service for more than 20 years and two had been in the teaching service for less than 20 years. Of the three TICs who participated in the study, two had been in the teaching service for more than 20 years and one had been in the service for 18 years. All the teachers had been in the teaching service for more than 10 years with one had been in the teaching service for 33 years. The teaching experience of all the participants shows that they all had been trained

well before the introduction of the CBC. A good number of the participants held additional professional qualifications – bachelor's and master's degrees – regardless of some being just classroom practitioners who do not hold leadership positions in their schools.

While years of teaching experience do not enhance the CBC implementation *per se*, they serve to show that the participants had experienced teaching the old curriculum and were now teaching the CBC. As school leaders, the participants are expected by MoPSE to hold at least a first degree qualification and the table depicts just that. Without the much needed in-service training on the CBC, the professional qualifications remain relevant for promotion to the leadership post.

The teaching experience of all the participants indicates that they had taught the old curriculum and were then implementing the new competence-based curriculum. Experience of teaching both curricular made them provide credible views about the implementation of the CBC in the Zimbabwean context.

Following this biographical information presentation, it should be noted that the researcher anonymised the participants when reporting on the data, as for example, Principal School B, TIC School A or Teacher School E. This was done to associate the participant with the school he/she was from (see Section 4.7).

5.4 Research themes and categories

This section presents themes and categories that emerged from the interviews. Themes were the main ideas that emerged from the data that were generated. The themes also emerged from the research questions since the data were meant to answer research questions. Categories are sub-themes that emerged from the coded data that had been generated. Categories are a division of the themes hence each theme had its own categories that are linked to it. The views of participants about the experiences of principals, deputy principals, TICs and teachers of implementing the CBC resulted in five themes as shown in Table 5.9.

Table 5. 9 : Themes and categories

THEME	CATEGORY
1. School leaders' and teachers' experiences of the CBC implementation	• School leaders' and teachers' experiences of implementation process • Influence of bureaucracy and hierarchy on the CBC implementation
2. Participants' perceptions of the CBC implementation	• Perceptions of the CBC at inception stage • Worthwhileness of the CBC as a curriculum reform project • Views on how participants evaluate CBC implementation

3. Leadership roles in the CBC implementation	• Staff development • Motivation • Setting direction
4. Challenges of the CBC implementation	• Lack of resources • Resistance from stakeholders • Lack of monitoring by ministry officials • Inadequate time to cover the syllabus
5. Suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform	• Teachers' colleges to train teachers in line with the CBC • In service training of practising teachers • Provision of adequate resources • Motivating teachers • Consultation with stakeholders

Data from the interview transcripts were analysed manually. Codes were selected from the interview transcripts using open coding. The codes were then categorised into five categories, which all fell under themes that are linked to the research questions and aims, as depicted in Table 5.5 above.

5.5 Theme one: School leaders' and teachers' experiences of the CBC implementation

The theme **school leaders' and teachers' experiences of the CBC implementation** exhibits the experiences of how school leaders and teachers are implementing the CBC in their schools. Mele *et al.* (2010) are of the opinion that a systems theory is an intellectual view that examines an occurrence or experience taken in its entirety and not as merely the sum total of its constituent parts. It is in the context of this view that this theme also reveals the experiences of school leaders and teachers of how Zimbabwe's education system in its entirety impacts CBC implementation.

5.5.1 School leaders' and teachers' experiences of implementation process

Asked what their experiences were of implementing the CBC, the following were the views of school principals.

Principal School A said:

> *In my view the CBC is a good thing as it aims to equip learners with important skills that are relevant in everyday life. The only problem that I have observed with it is that of acceptance mainly by implementers as they feel that consultations were not done properly to include all the important stakeholders.*

Principal School E had both negative and positive experiences when he said:

> *My experience with the implementation of CBC are more on the negative side because first of all, there is lack of material resources to use during implementation of CBC, and in service workshops*

are only being done when implementation is already in progress. Thirdly, we are receiving teachers from teachers colleges who do not have knowledge of CBC. So colleges should also teach more about the CBC so that the teachers who graduate from these colleges are already in the know.

Principal School D was optimistic that eventually CBC will be implemented well:

I went through a tough time to convince teachers, parents and, to a less extent, learners that CBC was the way to go in as far as teaching and learning is concerned. I worked hard to make all stakeholders believe in the new innovation and then work together in realising the benefits of the change. I began to add some practical aspects in the implementation of CBC in areas of sport, ICT, Agriculture, Visual and Performing Arts (VPA). I had to hire teachers for these areas. Although I am still facing challenges, I know with time we will get there.

Principal School B also said:

The experience is that though there is now a positive attitude towards this implementation, there are challenges that some of the schools and teachers do not have the skills, knowledge to implement this CBC. Also, the resources are limited so that is another challenge. However most of the schools are doing their best to see that the CBC is implemented.

Teacher School D said:

I can simply say I have no problems with learners because learners are there to learn. They are accepting it, they are getting along with it.

Teacher School C also said:

I feel the learners will just respond to what they are supposed to do.

Asked what role parents, the parent ministry and NGOs played to support new CBC implementation from their experiences, school leaders had varying views. The views varied in the sense that some participants acknowledged that parents were actually taking active participation in supporting the education of their children while other participants (Deputy Principal School D) was worried that parents were hard hit by the prevailing economic situation in the country such that they were struggling to buy the required educational materials. Participants who responded on ministry role all indicated that there was no significant support from the parent ministry in terms of provision of teaching and learning materials required for the new CBC. These experiences of participants about the inactive role of ministry in the provision of materials for a new curriculum that they initiated speak volumes about the state of preparedness for the CBC by ministry.

Principal School A said:

Parents come in handy in giving supportive materials. The materials that are being demanded by this new curriculum are not sustainable when it comes to the school alone because when you look at the fees vis-a-vis the cost of the materials that are needed in some of these learning areas created you find that the school will go bankrupt. They give donations; they even buy for their children so as to support. I haven't seen much activity of NGOs in my area.

Principal School C said:

I will start with parents to say in terms of provision of learning materials, that's their major role and are providing. If you ask for laptops they provide, if you ask for phones they bring textbooks they buy. Schools are limited in terms of funding. However I would think the ministry is making a little bit of progress by coming up with radio lessons, online lessons and you can access information on the internet. We have problems with NGOs because the assumption is that urban schools are better equipped than rural ones. NGOs are into assisting rural schools

The views of deputy principals were observed to be almost similar to those of their principals and the following comments are representative of the other deputy principals' views.

Deputy Principal School B said:

Talking about our school, we are not getting much assistance from NGOs and the government but the parents are chipping in here and there. They are cooperating in finding resources for their learners to improve. You find if we ask for something that is not provided by the government they are willing to help so that's about the parents but otherwise with NGOs and government we are getting nothing.

Deputy Principal School D had this to say:

The parent ministry should be sourcing for funds; I'm saying should be because they are not. We only received a few textbooks, just for Grade 6 only. What about the other classes? New curriculum starts at ECD A, so if you provide 20 books for only one grade level, what happens to other grades. So the parent ministry is doing very little, if not nothing. If the ministry isn't doing enough, then the burden is left to the parents who are already burdened economically. Someone cannot buy enough food for their children let alone buy a textbook which costs about 10 USD. So parents may be willing to chip in but they are hard hit by this economic situation. I haven't heard of NGOs sponsoring the new curriculum, or maybe it is our minister who is too dull to source for donations. In other ministries you hear such a thing has been donated by so and so

Deputy Principal School A also said:

Parents are providing the resources in the form of textbooks and at times we ask parents to beef up what we already have. And the ministry eh, our school in particular we have not been receiving grants from the ministry or any form of assistance. NGOs - nothing as yet.

TIC School D's views only concerned parents and NGOs when she said:

When you ask for something from parents, they provide. It's us teachers implementing the CBC, so parents wait to hear from us. They are supportive when we request for anything, for example if we want our learners to be in tracksuits, they buy and in that way they are supporting. I have not heard about support being given by NGOs. Maybe they are doing it at the top there.

There was agreement among all participants on the non-existence of support from NGOs in the schools being studied. This position seemingly corroborates Principal School C's view, in this section, that NGOs give support mainly to rural schools where the generality of the parents are of a low SES.

In respect of participants' experiences with the content of the CBC, Teacher School E said:

The content is now too much for our children, for example for Grade 7s, some of the topics it seems as if you are teaching physics and chemistry to these little ones. It seems as if you are teaching secondary level stuff.

Teacher School A also said

The children are too small for the jargon that is being used in this new curriculum.

Teacher School C had this to say:

Currently some parents will phone to say the homework is too difficult. It's like the content that children are learning is a bit too advanced compared to the age group and the content we had previously.

The findings from the experiences of Teachers School A, C and E above concerning the content of the CBC right across the primary sector, reveal that the syllabus content appears to be too advanced for both the teachers and learners. It is also the teachers' perceptions that the parents also find the curriculum challenging when they assist their children do their homework. These findings point to the need for in service training of practising teachers to acquaint them with the new CBC.

5.5.2 Participants' experiences of bureaucracy and hierarchy on the CBC implementation

Bureaucracy and hierarchy characterise the Zimbabwean education system, which implies that the centralised model of curriculum leadership, according to Law and Wan (2006), is being practiced in Zimbabwe at the national (macro) level. It is in this context that the findings under this category were

premised on the need to reveal the experiences of school leaders and teachers of the influences bureaucracy and hierarchy on the CBC implementation.

Deputy Principal School B said:

> *In our country it is always top-down approach. The leaders think they know everything. Bureaucracy bungles everything. CBC is hands on and the regulations are yet to be aligned with the new thrust.*

Principal School A, in support of Deputy Principal School B, also said:

> *It is always a problem when you use the top-down approach. This approach lacks wide consultation and these are the effects being felt during the implementation process. You find out that in most cases, when there is no consultation with the relevant stakeholders, the policy is bound to face stiff rejection. I feel there is a lot that needs to be done for the general populace to understand and accept the CBC.*

Principal School E made reference to the decentralisation model, also echoed by Law and Wan (2006), when he said:

> *Bureaucracy and hierarchy affect the implementation of CBC in that it takes long to cascade information. There are so many levels/stages to be followed. It will be better to decentralise to clusters so that each cluster should have trainers to train other teachers at cluster level.*

Principal School D highlighted how bureaucracy and hierarchy positively and negatively impacted the CBC implementation. He said:

> *From my experience as a school leader, bureaucracy and hierarchy indeed impact implementation of CBC both positively and negatively. Positively in that preparing officers in the hierarchy call upon all education stakeholders from the communities and society at large, to make an impact in curriculum research and formulation. Higher offices have the power to influence and to penetrate communities from which they observe the particular communities, that is, their social, economic and political way of life. Negatively in that bureaucracy's failure to avail resources in the form of teachers, learning materials, time, etc may stall and slow down CBC implementation. To some extent, overloading implementers in the lower echelons of power with administrative issues makes school leaders lose focus on CBC implementation.*

Principal School B concurred with the other school leaders when he said:

> *Bureaucracy, yes, sometimes the information comes from the top-down but we need everyone to be involved in the formation, implementation and evaluation of the CBC. Now if it comes from one side, it becomes a challenge because there is no ownership of the issues. So there is need for*

everyone to be involved- in say, the planning stage, the policy itself and then implementation so that everyone is aware of what is taking place. Even to link all stakeholders, for example, ZIMSEC should be aware so that there is no confusion between the ministry and the country's examination board. Bureaucracy does not specify how all the people involved are going to do it and that becomes a challenge.

Teachers also had their experiences of how hierarchy impacted the CBC implementation by referring to situations when this is manifested.

In support of Deputy Principal School B's view that bureaucracy bungles everything, Teacher School A gave her experience of how ministry perpetuates the non-payment of fees by parents, which negatively affects CBC implementation. She said:

Some parents do not even pay school fees they are not up to date and the ministry goes on to say, no child must be send out of school, so you will be having the child here but no money to buy the computers, no money to buy textbooks, refurbish our grounds for tennis, volleyball and all those kinds of sporting disciplines.

The existence of the top-down approach in the dissemination of information as revealed by Principal School A and Deputy Principal School B is also confirmed by Teacher School D who said:

It's like when the information disseminates from the top, the supervisors can let us know what is happening then if we are to discuss anything pertaining to the CBC, we can implement it.

Findings in this section (5.5.2) reveal that bureaucracy and hierarchy do exist in the Zimbabwean education system as evidenced by the top-down approach of dissemination of information through the various levels of the education system. The widely held view was that bureaucracy and hierarchy negatively affect CBC implementation because the practice does not allow full participation by stakeholders. In most of the cases, stakeholders such as teachers are needed at the implementation stage of the policy, without them taking active participation in the formulation stage of the policy. It was also a finding that bureaucracy and hierarchy perpetuate the non-payment of the much needed fees by some of the parents who take advantage of the policies put in place by government such as the one that stops principals from sending learners back home for non-payment of fees. It has been found out that these policies crafted without involvement of stakeholders face a lot of resistance from implementers as there is no sense of ownership of the curriculum change by the teachers. While bureaucracy and hierarchy have the advantage of instilling compliance by stakeholders (Principal School D) in this section, the advantage is outweighed by the negative effects of the practice. It can be concluded that the findings in this section link with the first sub-research question which sought the experiences of school leaders and teachers in the implementation of the CBC.

5.6 Theme two: Participants' perceptions of the CBC implementation

The theme **participants' perceptions of the CBC implementation** exhibit the participants' understanding of the CBC and its implementation in the Zimbabwean context. Their perceptions of the CBC are revealed by their views on how they reacted to and received the new curriculum. Participants' opinions of whether the CBC was a worthwhile curriculum reform also reveal their understanding of the CBC. These perceptions influence or determine the CBC implementation as they provide an indication of whether or not the CBC is being implemented as expected by policy makers. Participants' assessments of the CBC implementation since its inception further reveal whether or not the CBC implementation is being effectively done.

Participants' responses under this theme are premised on the need to reveal how school leaders and teachers perceive the CBC implementation based on their views of how the CBC was received by stakeholders, its worthwhileness and participants' assessments of its implementation.

5.6.1 Perceptions of the CBC by participants at its inception stage

When school leaders were asked how the CBC had been generally received by learners, teachers and parents, they had varying views. Principal School D said:

> *I can say it has been received well by the pupils. We have no problems with pupils accepting the CBC. Being children they are receptive to new programmes. And then for the teachers, well, early 2016, 2017, teachers were sceptical, they had a negative perception about the CBC. But as an administrator it was my duty to see reason, to make teachers see the importance of CBC. I had to give them the vision, the foresight on behalf of the ministry. The parents had no idea. I remember the first Annual General Meeting (AGM) which I held when I came here in 2018, it was their first time to hear about the CBC, can you imagine? Almost a year or two after the inception of the CBC! I had to explain to them what CBC is, the advantages as it were. Some of them wanted to know what this animal called CBC is, what it is that we wanted to do as ministry of education. It was my duty to explain all this to the parents. Parents had not been involved in the consultative campaigns. Now parents have begun to appreciate the CBC and some parents even come to ask why their child is not doing a particular CBC learning area. They now want to see it being fully implemented.*

Deputy Principal School A also said:

> *When the CBC was introduced, a lot of people were apprehensive including myself, but now most are slowly warming up to it and slowly accepting it.*

Deputy Principal School B agreed with Principal School D regarding the negative attitude teachers had about the CBC, but he appears to acknowledge that parents were consulted before the CBC was introduced, disapproving what Principal School D said. This is what Deputy Principal School B had to say:

> *From my personal experience teachers are reluctant to accept because of the resistance to change attitude. They were reluctant because they saw the curriculum as giving them more work than what they were used to. Then it was the same sentiment with the parents. Although they were consulted they saw it as a foreign thing, and they are complaining about the homework but well received by the learners, they are enjoying the new stuff.*

Deputy Principal School D also said this:

> *By teachers, initially, it was not well received, why? Because of lack of resources. It's only now that schools have begun to buy textbooks for the new curriculum. Afterwards, if I may be specific- this year and the past year (2020), I have noticed teachers appreciating the new curriculum especially learning areas like Heritage Studies which goes deep into our history, unlike the Social Studies we used to do which did not apply to our culture. And then as for learners, I for one, noticed that the vocabulary of this new curriculum is a bit difficult for our learners. It's only viable to learners who are good at English. Learners in rural areas, I'm afraid that they are at the receiving end. Parents or if I can say the people, tend to politicise everything that is introduced by the government, hence they first thought of it (CBC) as a ZANU-PF (ruling party) thing. Why? Because it is the ruling party government which introduced the new curriculum. The parents were calling it a ZANU-PF government thing, this being caused by the existence of warring parties in the country. Most parents who are educated live in the urban areas. Those in the rural don't know that there is anything called the new curriculum. Those who live in the towns we know their political affiliations so they tend to associate the new curriculum with ZANU-PF and as a result, they tend to have a dislike for the CBC. So they didn't quite receive it because it was introduced by Dokora. He was the minister of primary and secondary yes, but from which political party? So when we talk to parents we have to conscientise them, "Look, this thing is good. Our children are learning this and that, it's a good thing."*

In support of the negative reception view of the CBC held by the other school leaders, TIC School D said:

> *At first some teachers were resistant, they didn't want to accept the change because, as you know, when you have been doing something for a long time, and it is difficult for people to accept a change. With learners, they are just children so anything that you teach them is okay. It was just the same with parents, anything new is resisted although teachers' resistance was not as that of parents to some extent. With teachers if something is explained its operations, they understand*

faster unlike parents who may negatively influence each other when they are at their homes. Once teachers were educated about the CBC, they accepted it.

TIC School A also said:

> Parents, some have received it very well; they see them excelling in areas like VPA, Mathematics and Science. But for some of them who cannot goggle cannot find answers for work given to their children and some of the answers are above the level of the children.

The quotation of Teacher School C somewhat represented most of the teacher participants' answers when she said:

> *I feel the learners will just respond to what they are supposed to do. At first change is difficult to adopt, so the teachers were finding it difficult to implement but due to the availability of resources we are getting there although not all resources are available. Yes teachers have received it. It is not the same now compared to when it started. Now we have gradually adopted/accepted it, but at the beginning, no because at first personally I had negative feelings towards it (CBC). I thought it was extra work- too much work for us. I thought with Agriculture, they were trying to make everyone a farmer. The parents had some negative sentiments because sometimes if you ask them to buy textbooks, they would not buy; give homework they tell you they don't know what you are giving our kids. Currently some parents will phone to say the homework is too difficult. It's like the content that children are learning is a bit too advanced compared to the age group and the content we had previously.*

Participants' responses this far point to the finding that teachers had a negative attitude towards the CBC when it was initially introduced into schools. The researcher deduced that the main reason for this negative attitude was the usual response of people to any new thing that is introduced into a system. Literature has it that there is always resistance to new policies that are introduced and the reasons vary (Section 3.6). However, according to Deputy Principal School A and Teacher School C in this section, the resistance has eased, probably because the teachers are becoming familiar with the demands of the new CBC.

Some school leaders, however, had different views from those held by the leaders who said the CBC was not received well by stakeholders. According to these school leaders' perceptions based on what they observed, the CBC was received well at inception because consultations were made with teachers and parents so they readily accepted the CBC. Deputy Principal School E also argued that since parents support the school on matters to do with the CBC, it follows that they had received it well. The views of these two leaders can be contested by advancing the view that consulting stakeholders and parents' support of the school might not mean that the CBC had been well received at inception. Parents could be supporting the school because they have no option.

Principal School E said:

> *Learners have no choice because they just receive what is coming to them. And the parents were consulted; remember it was a result of the Nziramasanga Commission which came up with recommendations which resulted in the competence based curriculum. So parents and teachers were consulted but learners were not consulted because they are the receivers of the CBC. So consultations enabled the parents, teachers and other stakeholders to readily accept the new curriculum. In a way I would say it was well received because we are looking at intended outcomes, competences. The fundamental objective of the CBC is to try and identify the potential of each learner- that is the whole idea. And if you look at the curriculum, many areas have been opened compared to the previous curriculum which focused more on the academic side, but if you look at the CBC, we now have VPA, FAREME, as learning areas. You know that we are trying to identify what each learner is good at and when we have identified the talent of the learner we then try and develop it. That is the idea behind the new curriculum.*

With regard to parents and contrary to the view raised by other leaders that parents were complaining about the CBC, Deputy Principal School E said:

> *I'm sure parents have accepted it and we are judging from the idea of their supporting the school. They are buying textbooks for the children, they are also assisting in the homework being given and we are not receiving any complaints or negative ideas concerning the new curriculum from the parents.*

The school leaders were, however, asked how they, as school leaders, had received the CBC when it was first introduced into their schools.

Principal School A said:

> *When the CBC was initially implemented there was a lot of scepticism. I had some reservations because it was introduced without wide consultation. After attending some workshops for a period of time, I warmed up to it and I now feel that this is a very good programme which deserves support by all stakeholders so that it is implemented fully. At the end if you analyse it, the learner is going to improve in quite a number of areas which include blending theory and practice, so to me I now feel it is a worthwhile programme though consultations should be on going to make sure everyone understands it.*

Principal School E suggested how he would have wanted the CBC introduced:

> *The CBC was not properly introduced. I would have liked a situation where the CBC was introduced in schools after the production of school textbooks and other learning materials rather*

than introduce it without these requisite resources. Most textbooks were published after CBC had already been introduced in schools. The timing could have been better.

Principal School D said:

As a school leader, I received CBC with much anticipation. It was something that we thought was new but was coming along to our education system. The innovation was long overdue bearing in mind the time the Nziramasanga Commission was carried out. Moreover as a school leader, I believe that change from the old to the new curriculum introduced new insights to education in general. The CBC was a welcome move by my own judgement as an individual and as a school leader.

By expressing appreciation of the introduction of the CBC for what it was designed, Principal School B hailed the CBC:

As a head/principal, I received CBC in a positive way because it is designed to assist all types of learners – those who are academically gifted and those who are not. So if these learners are exposed to CBC and taught some skills, it will also help them in future. So we really appreciate this introduction of CBC.

5.6.2 Worthwhileness of the CBC as a curriculum reform project

When asked whether the CBC was in their own view a worthwhile curriculum reform, most of the participants agreed although they felt that challenges such as a lack of adequate resources and specialist teachers for new learning areas derailed its effective implementation. This is what they said:

Principal School B described the CBC as a very noble thing when he said:

I would say this one is a very noble thing that's why all these recommendations were made. It's a very noble thing because if you were to look at it, some countries like China Grade 3s can make toys and the likes which they can also sell. So if you also start at a very lower level all the learners are equipped with the necessary skills, by the time they go up to Form 4, Form 6 they will be able to make gadgets which we will also export and that's how a country develops. We will also be in line with our national Vision 2030 because we are equipping every learner with the necessary skills that will also help them for living. If you were to look at Glenview the way they do their carpentry" Siya So" and the like, those people have skills that they learnt at form 2 so that's the way to go. CBC is the way to go because attitude and the knowledge of skills are now equipped in the learner and by so doing the learner will have a positive attitude towards the development of the country. So many industries will start and the country will develop. CBC should be supported at all levels, we need financial backing, we need to also motivate the facilitators, we need to have finances to have

materials to use at all levels so that's the most important thing it needs to be supported financially, socially and emotionally and also change of mind set by everyone, all stakeholders.

Principal School D shared the same view as Principal School B, adding that CBC will help reduce joblessness in a few years to come. He had this to say:

It's a noble idea. I was pleased when it was introduced, I knew we were heading for the right direction because I can foresee a situation-10, 15 years from now the country not having a lot of children loitering in the streets because they will be having practical skills obtained from school and they will be able to do something. They may have failed in the academics, but at least they have something they can do.

Deputy Principal School D had this to say:

Yes, it (CBC) is a good thing, a noble one. If you go through the curriculum you can see that it is a good thing, but the challenges it has are too many. It's good that our children know ICT, their history; with these challenges I don't think it will be a success.

Principal School E supported his view that the CBC was a better curriculum by comparing it with the old curriculum. Here is what he said:

CBC to me is the best because I believe the old system was focusing more on those who were academically gifted. But CBC is like shifting focus. We are now also looking at those learners who are gifted in other areas like sports, drama, music. CBC is looking at that and I find that a good shift. It's like opening up horizons to all learners although there are those challenges I mentioned earlier on that seem to hinder its effective implementation.

In support of the view that challenges to the CBC militate against the worthwhileness of the CBC as a curriculum reform, Deputy Principal School E said:

It's a good project. It's only that proper planning was not done whereby teachers were supposed to be trained; ministry working together with teacher training colleges to make sure human resources are being prepared before it was implemented. The practising teachers should also have been considered before just giving them work to do (that is, new learning areas to teach without any training). Not enough groundwork was done in terms of implementation procedure.

Deputy Principal School B said:

Now our learners are learning because now we are looking at the academic aspect, then we look at the affective domain, skills- that is the best. But it is not being supported adequately by government.

Only TIC School C held contradicting views from the other school leaders when she said:

> *It is not good when we are referring to the number of subjects; they are too many and teachers are not being able to complete the syllabus because of too much content in the syllabus. I think it is better we revert to the old curriculum.*

Teachers also expressed their views about the same question school leaders were asked on whether CBC was a worthy curriculum reform. Just as the school leaders, the general feeling was that CBC was a worthwhile curriculum reform.

Teacher School C said:

> *Personally, I feel it's a good thing because if we get to know exactly what we are supposed to do because some of us are ignorant. So if we get more time, more training maybe it will be a success.*

Teacher School D, in agreement with Principal School E with regard talent identification, also said:

> *Yes, in a way it's noble because learners are differently gifted. Some of them can do these practical things if this is balanced with the academic work. It however seems there is a lot of academic work going on instead of the practical work which is the thrust of the CBC. Academic is too much; they are now writing six subjects (at primary level) ; they used to write two, went on to four, now six yet you want this practical thing in a child. It doesn't operate well-there is something wrong somewhere.*

Teacher School E concurred with the other teachers and briefly said:

> *In itself it is not a bad programme if it is being implemented correctly.*

The findings in this section are that CBC was viewed to be a worthwhile curriculum in the sense that the syllabi content caters for all learners – those who are academically gifted and those who are good at practical subjects. What appears to hamper its effective implementation are factors such as inadequate resources to use and teachers with the knowledge to teach some of the new learning areas. Some school leaders (TIC School C) feel that the CBC has increased the workload for teachers in terms of the number of learning areas to be taught and the content to be taught in the allocated time with the result that some teachers do not complete the syllabus.

5.6.3 Views on how participants evaluate the CBC implementation

Views on how participants evaluate the CBC implementation six years after its inception are deemed an indication of whether or not the intended curriculum met with the expectations of policy makers. The ability to evaluate the CBC implementation by participants could indicate their understanding of how the CBC has been implemented thus far.

When asked what their evaluation was of the implementation of the new CBC since its inception in 2017 in view of existing challenges, most of the participants felt that the CBC was not effectively implemented.

Principal School C said:

> *As a nation, my perception is that we are still to make progress. While we have taken the first step from 2017 we are still in the first step according to me because we have not really made great strides. There are no noticeable changes that have taken place because from 2017 we have been saying, "Let us have teachers, let us have colleges train teachers, let's have resources". Up to now it is the same song we are singing. Same old song with same old tune. So we are really not going anywhere. That's my evaluation.*

Principal School E had this to say:

> *While we want to achieve what needs to be achieved, despite lack of material and human resources, we need to be achieving what is expected of us. I'm saying we are having a lot of challenges; even the practising teachers have not been properly in serviced. How do you expect the teacher to effectively implement the new curriculum when he/she does not have the training and adequate resources?*

Principal School A referred more to resistance when he said:

> *I think a lot still needs to be done, because when the system was introduced it brought in some changes and whoever started with the idea should have perceived that there would be resistance. Resistance in most ways is removed by giving the necessary equipment support, knowledge that a person needs because when someone looks like a confused person whether the idea is good or not but as long that person lacks knowledge and skills he or she is bound to resist. So I think there still is a lot of ground that needs to be covered by all stakeholders.*

Deputy principals shared the same evaluation views with principals. Deputy Principal School B said:

> *The first phase of this CBC is ending next year (2022). So I can say the implementation was not satisfactory. There are a number of areas that they are now trying to cover for example, currently they are running Continuous Assessment workshops that should have started in 2015 and it is being done now, 6 years later. If it had started in 2015 as expected, the practising teachers should have been conversant with continuous assessment, but it is being done now, 2021, with the Grade 7 classes. We don't know when it will cascade to the ECDs, because continuous assessment is for the whole junior school course- ECD to Grade 7. So I would say, the implementation process is not very satisfactory.*

Deputy Principal School E also said:

My evaluation is it has lots of problems especially if, for example, someone is given a field to till, but you don't have the seed, the implements and even the labour force, it's difficult to complete the task. But if the suggestions we are giving are given an ear, I'm sure we will have something better especially provision of resources, motivation of those who are implementing because I don't think those who drafted the new curriculum are more important than the implementer. They have to find common ground with the implementer.

The views of Deputy Principal School C were as those of other fellow deputy heads when she said:

My evaluation is if everything is provided- the textbooks, the manpower, it's a good thing because we are teaching our learners our own culture not foreign stuff by teaching our learners ubuntu/unhu as Zimbabweans. Where adequate resources are being provided, the CBC is being implemented well, but where there is lack of resources, it is not being implemented well.

Asked to give their evaluation of the CBC implementation TICs had mixed feelings but the general view was that it had challenges, which, if addressed, would see it being implemented well. The views varied as one TIC (School C) stated that there was a lot to learn from the CBC on the part of teachers so the CBC was a good curriculum. The other TIC (School A) expressed reservations that the new curriculum needed more time for it to be implemented well as a result of its imposition on the education system.

TIC School A said:

I think the idea of the CBC was a good one. It is not only focusing on the academics but also the practical side. It helps other children in the future like the ones that are good in the practical areas like sports. However its introduction was not properly done. It was sort of imposed on the education system and there was not that enough ground work on how it should be implemented. Given enough time and training you can see that it is a very good idea.

TIC School C said:

There are number of new things that we as teachers have learnt from the new CBC from learning areas such as Heritage Studies. In another way, the CBC has some challenges such as lack of resources, lack of knowledge of how to teach the new curriculum. So I can say the implementation is going on fairly well, but if they give us specialist teachers, it will be hundred per cent well.

The somewhat contradictory view given by TIC School C that implementation was going fairly well is shared by Principal School D who was convinced that at his school's implementation was going well because his school was well prepared for the national ZIMSEC examinations based on the new CBC.

This is what he had to say:

Well, so far so good. It has been well orchestrated in some institutions. Now we have the coming of ZIMSEC exam where it is now mandatory to write exams on certain CBC learning areas, so this steps up the implementation of the CBC because everyone knows this is examinable. In my school it has been well implemented because we are ready for the exam so I can say it has been well implemented, specific to my school.

TIC School D also said:

The CBC is being implemented in schools; the teachers are doing their best(strength), but weakness is of shortage of resources, skilled manpower and inability to curb parents resistance of the CBC evidenced by some learners refusing to recite the National Pledge. Some children don't want to say this pledge and we can tell that this influence is coming from the parents. Some children say that their religion does not allow them to recite the national pledge so as teachers we don't force such children.

Teachers' views that the CBC was not implemented well were almost similar to those of school leaders when they were asked to evaluate the CBC implementation thus far.

Teacher School B said:

It's not being effectively implemented but it's one of the good things that have been effectively formulated. I might seem to be opposing myself, the program is good, and it helps and shapes the child such that one will be able to be a good citizen and help the country to go well but you see now these challenges that are cropping up. These are the things that need to be addressed especially on teachers. When teachers are fully behind the thing, everything goes well. So I am saying the program is good and it will definitely bring good skills to the pupils but for the mean time the results are going to take time to be seen because of the poor remuneration of teachers.

Teacher School C, in support of TIC School A in respect of CBC having been imposed on implementers, also said:

I feel it is going on since it was something that I would say was imposed on us. Since it was imposed by the leadership, we have to just embrace it. It is like at home, if you tell your children to do something without giving them a chance to give their input, the work will be done but not thoroughly. The CBC is being implemented, but there are loopholes that need to be filled for it to be successful.

Teacher School D made reference to the CBC putting emphasis on examinations just as the old curriculum and in support of what Principal School D also noted. She said:

The CBC is quite an interesting curriculum if it had been planned properly. And right now they are trying to introduce this Continuous Assessment Learning Activity (CALA) thing, yet as facilitators

we are just getting into the CBC, then we are getting this CALA on top of it. In terms of implementation, what I can say is as facilitators, we are just taking the syllabus as it is. There isn't much of the practical aspect because we are targeting the academics for examination, leaving out some other very important practical aspects because there is no time and there is an exam there.

Teacher School E noted lack of seriousness from some stakeholders. She said:

The CBC is not being implemented well. It needs seriousness from both sectors, for example teachers and the ministry.

The views of participants when they evaluated the implementation of the CBC culminated in the finding that the CBC was not implemented well because of challenges such as lack of resources, its imposition on the education system and lack of training in the teaching of new learning areas by practising teachers. However, it was also found out that a few schools were implementing the CBC well because they are ready for national examinations on the CBC. It can however be argued that effective implementation of a curriculum cannot be judged by the state of preparedness for an examination by a school as suggested by Principal School D.

5.7 Theme three: Leadership roles in the CBC implementation

The role of curriculum leadership is multi-faceted and complex (Ogaura &Bossert, 1995). The role distinguishes between traditional or maintenance tasks from dynamic tasks although the two tasks co-exist in curriculum leadership. Wiles (2009) argues that the most effective curriculum leaders embrace the dynamic role and go beyond expectation. It is in this context that the participants' views under Theme 3 **leadership roles in the CBC implementation** were based on the need to find out from school leaders whether a change in curriculum influenced their curriculum leadership roles, their new curriculum leadership roles (if any) and whether this curriculum leadership was shared with teachers. There was also a need to establish whether the school leaders could explain the part they played to enhance these dynamic roles of curriculum leaders: staff development, motivation and setting direction.

Asked to what extent a change in curriculum influenced their role as curriculum leaders and their subsequent new roles therein, the following responses were given.

Principal School C said:

Obviously there is a change because in the old curriculum as a leader, we were conversant with what was in the old curriculum, but now because of this CBC these things are new to us and new things always bring change.

Principal School B had this to say:

> *The organising changes, the planning changes and also change from supervisors to leaders. You have to lead by example; they are quite a number of areas. Then you have to accommodate and work very closely with the teachers.*

With reference to leadership style, Principal School D said:

> *Roles may change because of the new CBC. My leadership style has to change; I don't have to continue using the same leadership style when things have changed. I have to change my leadership style in order to achieve organisational effectiveness and efficiency.*

In terms of change in leadership practice, Principal School E said:

> *To a large extent because there has been this shift from the old to the new so my practice is bound to be affected.*

However, some school leaders did not see their curriculum leadership role being influenced by the change in curriculum to the CBC. Deputy Principal School D said:

> *My role is still the same because nothing has changed much in how we operate in the old curriculum and how we operate in the new curriculum. The new curriculum is mainly concerned with the facilitator and the learners. We as leaders I don't see where we come in*.

In support of the above sentiments, TIC School D said:

> *I don't see much change because it's just a change to the new CBC but everything is in line with our field of teaching. So you remain a leader who continues to do what you have been doing. All you need to do is to see how you can deal with the shortage of things caused by the coming in of the CBC.*

The above views from participants indicate two contrasting findings: one that there are changes in leadership roles as a result of the introduction of the CBC and the other view being that there are no changes in leadership. School leaders who felt that there was a change in their roles appear to be convinced that there should be a change in their operations because the curriculum has changed (Principals School B and C in this section). However, some school leaders do not see any change at all in their roles but acknowledge that one has to find ways to deal with shortages resulting from the coming in of CBC (Deputy Principal School D and TIC School D). By accepting that a leader has to look for ways to deal with shortages caused by the CBC, it can be argued that there are changes somehow in leadership roles as a result of the introduction of the CBC, rather that make a blanket statement that there are no changes.

There was consensus between school leaders and teachers on the issue of sharing the curriculum leadership role. When school leaders were asked whether they shared their curriculum leadership role with teachers they were affirmative.

Principal School B said:

> *Yes we do, because we also have some subjects committee. We interact as we look at the challenges teachers might have then we work together as a team to resolve them. After all the head might not be knowing everything but the other teachers might be having some ideas, so we fuse those ideas together and at the end of the day we buttress our CBC.*

Deputy Principal School E also said

> *Yes we do. For example, during staff development meetings, we are involving teachers who are able (knowledgeable) to train other teachers. So by then they will be taking the leadership part. We have committees because as leaders we won't be able, say during exams to moderate tests that have been set for all learning areas. So that's where those subject committees come in. We will let those committees look into the tests and adjust where necessary.*

Deputy Principal School B made reference to sharing curriculum leadership through subject committees when he said:

> *When we want to buy textbooks that's when they (subject committees) are effective. They assist in the procurement, but most of the time they are idle, but on paper they are there.*

Principal School C said:

> *That I do (sharing curriculum leadership). We call them subject panels where each teacher belongs to a subject. Now with the coming of the CBC, we are still now to fit the teachers into these panels because some teachers are not really conversant with the new learning areas like I said.*

Principal School D first said that he did not share curriculum leadership but on further probing, he confirmed that he indeed shared the leadership role. He said

> *All along I have been doing it single handedly; I never really thought of sharing. Unless if we are talking about staff development. I now understand; I didn't know that this is the sharing that you meant. Indeed committees are there with persons who lead them.*

Teachers confirmed that their school leaders shared curriculum leadership with them through subject committees, citing advantages of assuming such leadership.

Teacher School D said:

When they go for these workshops we share quite a lot, we just discuss what they will have brought. We have subject committees so through subject committees you can lead in a certain area. By being a leader in a certain area you can research and can know more about that area through researching and attending some workshops so you will be well versed in that area and then help others and together you can make it happen.

Teacher School A said:

They haven't done so, maybe if they did so, maybe I was not here. We have the subject committees but they are not very effective. The advantage of being the subject committee chairperson is that you tend to research more on the subjects, research on the teaching methods, the aids to use in delivering those lessons, you have to research if you are made to be the chair of those subject committees. You end up having a lot of knowledge.

The finding from this part of the section is that school leaders shared curriculum leadership with teachers by creating subject committees chaired by different teachers. Teachers found this to be a good idea as it empowers the to draw up end of term tests and to recommend textbooks suitable for each grade level although being chairperson of a committee required one to do a lot of research in order to be able to staff develop other members of the committee.

5.7.1 Staff development

The CBC as a curriculum reform initiative requires that practising teachers undergo staff development in a number of areas such as syllabus interpretation, new teaching methods and the content of new learning areas. Findings revealed that participants viewed staff development as a role that should be played by not only school leaders but also by ministry since it (MoPSE) came up with the idea of the CBC and is responsible for the implementation of the curriculum reform in the country.

Asked whether schools and MoPSE were doing enough to staff develop teachers on the CBC, participants had varying views as shall be deduced from their individual comments and from the findings at the end of the section. Principal School C said:

We will look at it from the macro/ ministry level. The ministry itself has not done what we expect of them. In other words I would say the ministry should do more in terms of staff development of teachers because one, we find that while the CBC has come from the top most, we don't have ministry officials who are conversant with the CBC going down staff developing those who are below them so that information can be cascaded to the schools. They themselves don't have the knowledge such that if teachers start asking them questions, they will say "We will look at them later", an indication that they also don't know. Actually schools are trying because the schools being the centre where the learner is, where the action is taking place, schools have no other way

except to look around and research and do their own. But in the process there is a danger that they might lose the vision of the CBC while they think we are moving in the right direction. This means we are coming back to the same point that not enough is being done by the ministry.

Principal School A said:

I think the parent ministry did some groundwork in the initial stages, but that didn't have much impact, why because people were still sceptical. There is need for them to continuously do these staff development workshops. But as a school we are doing these workshops on regular basis because we know that the bearing and even the results will be affected if the teachers don't implement this new curriculum very well. As a school we are doing so much, but the parent ministry also needs to increase the frequency of their workshops.

Deputy Principal School A only referred to the ministry and also said:

Lately the ministry has not been doing much, but when the programme was introduced, yes there were a number of workshops to conscientise teachers and there was a break until now when teachers are being called for a workshop on continuous assessment and teachers are not well versed on that one too. So it's like the ministry is visible and sometimes it is not visible.

TICs shared the same views as principals and deputy principals that MoPSE was not doing enough to staff develop teachers. TIC School A concurred with Principal School C when she said:

I don't think so. Even from the workshops that we were doing somewhere in 2014 or 2015 those were 2-day workshops. Can you say we mastered anything on that? We did not master anything, those who were delivering information to us were also not knowledgeable on what we were supposed to do, so we cascaded that to our teachers as well. They do not know what to do. We are teaching through discovery, you have to discover on your own, that is if you have the urge to discover, some just remain dormant- if I don't know, let it be. I will remain ignorant. But for those who want to research more, they are developing very well.

TIC School D also said:

Schools are doing their best with the little resources, the little everything they have they are doing their best. Ministry are not doing their best because facilitators are not continually coming to staff develop and in service us. In terms of those inspection visits they make to schools, in most cases your school is not visited for the whole year, so I can conclude that it is not enough. It is instead partially enough.

Principal School D made reference to the former minister's efforts to staff develop teachers, urging the new minister of the second republic to continue with those initiatives. He said:

I don't think it is as much as I would have wanted to see it being done. It is not as good as I expected. This is a good programme as far as I'm concerned. I like CBC compared to the old curriculum, but nothing much is being done especially on the teachers' side- the staff development of teachers so that they begin to accept it. Remember the then minister, Dokora, you know, used to have programmes to do with the CBC, but now it looks like we are sliding backwards and I don't know why. So ministry needs to continue from where the other guy left as far enhancing the activities/programmes of the CBC.

The beneficiaries of the staff development, teachers, also gave their views on the same question of whether schools and MoPSE were doing enough to staff develop teachers on the CBC. Most teachers felt that not enough was being done by both school leaders and ministry to staff develop them.

Teacher School C said:

I feel they are not doing enough. I have never seen any staff development from ministry especially in line with the CBC. The reason is maybe the resources do not permit them since they are going through a very difficult time in our economy or inflation in the country, maybe, I don't know. Or maybe they are not also knowledgeable on their part about the CBC, because it was something that was imposed maybe they were not trained too themselves to come and train us. And those who were trained are very few and they did not get the chance to get to every school and to every teacher. Schools are not doing enough to staff develop us.

Teacher School D said:

I think it's not enough. We really need these workshops and staff development if this curriculum is to really take off. The reasons maybe lack of resources and that planning people are not giving enough time to this CBC. If they had the resources we could have had more of these workshops and material resources in schools.

Teacher School E also had this to say:

I think school leaders are not doing enough because they are not conducting these school based workshops. The reason could be shortage of time, I don't know or the knowledge of the CBC. The ministry only gave teachers this work and they stood aside; they are not doing anything, they are not supporting us.

One finding in this section on staff development was that the ministry was not doing enough to staff teachers on the CBC, reason being that most of the ministry officials were not quite informed about what the CBC really involved (Principal School C in this section). From the teachers' perspective, the other finding was that both school leaders and MoPSE leaders were not doing the best in staff developing teachers on the CBC (Teachers School C and E) although some school leaders claim staff development is

being done. The researcher feels the findings are justified in the sense that all participants concur that both school leaders and most of the ministry officials were not very much knowledgeable about the CBC. The conclusion then becomes that there was no one then to adequately staff develop teachers.

5.7.2 Motivation

Motivation as a leadership role in curriculum implementation requires leaders to inspire teachers to have interest in implementing the curriculum to the best of their ability. At the micro (school) level, principals need to motivate teachers in their schools while at the macro level, MoPSE has a role to play to motivate both school leaders and teachers. Participants' views revealed lack of motivation from leaders.

Asked how they viewed motivation as their new role in the implementation of the CBC as opposed to the old curriculum, Principal School A said:

> *Sometimes you get into a class where the teacher is stuck in some sort of crisis because he or she can't manage what is supposed to be done. There is no reason to go hard down on that teacher but you need to understand and guide. Motivation is the key for this program to produce necessary results.*

Principal School B said:

> *The first port of call when you want to motivate teachers who are demotivated, don't have hostile attitude to the teachers, understand their challenges as a human resource manager and then look for possible ways to assist them because you can maybe give them some teas, some lunch or any other additional things, just motivate them so that they feel that we are together despite that we all don't have the money.*

Teacher School B made reference to the need for motivating teachers when he said:

> *For teachers to be able to implement this CBC they need to be incentivised because the remuneration is very low such that their morale is always low and it affects the implementation of the program.*

One finding from this section was that motivation was necessary for effective implementation of the CBC. The other finding was that teachers needed incentives because what they earn is very low. What this means is that the government is not paying teachers living wages and implication is that the teachers are demotivated and this may have a negative impact on the implementation of the CBC.

5.7.3 Setting direction

Participants' responses revealed that most of the participants felt that for this new curriculum, school leaders needed to guide teachers as well as lead by example. With regard to setting direction as a

leadership role, school leaders had these views.

Principal School A said:

> *I think for now that is the best because we are leading a person who is direction-less, a person who has not received much training in as much as implementation of this curriculum is concerned. So we are saying we should go the route together. You should be a leader who understands where the facilitator is coming from, the background of the facilitator and then give direction.*

TIC School A also said:

> *As a leader you demonstrate how something is done, it becomes easy for your subordinates to do the same. It also requires that the leader be knowledgeable of what needs to be done, or else it will be a problem if you do not have the knowledge because you will lead the teachers astray.*

Principal School E concurred with Principal School A and Principal School C in respect of guiding as a leadership role. He said:

> *I believe setting direction fits very well with the CBC because now teachers have been given title of facilitator meaning they facilitate, assisting learners to learn on their own. All you have to do is to set the ball rolling. You are a leader, you are like guiding the learner to learn. As school leader, you are just leading them so that they move in the right direction.*

Issues relating to guiding or setting direction in the CBC implementation also surfaced when school leaders were asked what their new roles were in the implementation of the new CBC as opposed to the old curriculum.

Principal School A said:

> *My new role is to guide, give guidance to provide knowledge to try and bridge the gaps that exist between the implementer and what is expected from them. So I am now adopting the role of a leader who is there to guide and provide a wise leadership.*

Deputy Principal School B just said:

> *You have to lead by example.*

One major finding in this section was that setting direction was indeed an important leadership role because teachers look up to the principal for the direction to take in the implementation of this new curriculum. As such the school leader should be knowledgeable so as to be able to respond to questions that may come from teachers concerning CBC implementation. Linked to setting direction was the view of guidance as a leadership role. As teachers were still not quite knowledgeable about the CBC, they needed this guidance from an informed school leader so that effective implementation of the CBC can be realised.

This theme, comprising three sub-themes has shown a strong link with sub-research question 2 which sought new leadership roles that school leaders viewed as having emerged as a result of the introduction of the CBC. Findings reveal that school leaders accepted that they had roles to play in the implementation of CBC.

5.8 Theme four: Challenges of the CBC implementation

The theme **challenges of the CBC implementation** revealed what principals, deputy principals, TICs and teachers viewed as impediments to effective new curriculum implementation according to their experiences as implementers. For effective implementation, the CBC, like any other curriculum reform, needs the buy-in of all stakeholders because they should be equal partners in the design stage of the curriculum reform (Zenda, 2022) and the support from policy makers in terms of provision of both human and material resources. It is in this context that participants' views under this theme were premised on the need to explore factors that hinder the CBC implementation in schools from the lived experiences of implementers.

Comments from participants under this category are premised on the need to reveal the factors that provide challenges for the effective implementation of the CBC in schools. Generally, five challenges emerged and were supported by all participants.

When all the participants were asked to describe challenges they experienced which impeded the effective implementation of the new CBC in their schools, they alluded to lack of resources, inadequate supervision, resistance from stakeholders, lack of monitoring by ministry officials and inadequate time to cover the syllabus.

5.8.1 Lack of resources

In respect of lack of resources, participants generally made reference to these resources: human, material, infrastructural and time. Where a lack of financial resources was mentioned, this had a bearing on the other resources because availability of money is key to the provision of other resources.

Principal School C said:

> *There is the human resource aspect as I said before; we need more teachers. And then there is the infrastructural, because the numbers each teacher has should be minimal such that a teacher has access to every learner. So I'm looking at the number of classrooms, even specialist rooms that we don't have. Then I'm also looking at the learning materials such as textbooks. Those ones we really need, but then because of lack of funds, we are unable to buy as a school. Then the last one which I might call very important but to me is crucial is training. We need training for the teachers. Without that proper training we won't get anywhere because the old methods will keep on cropping up here*

and there.

Principal School E said:

> *Some of the challenges that I foresee coming are lack of resources. We need competent, knowledgeable teachers. We also need some resources, for example, if we are going for VPA there are certain gadgets we need (material resources). These are some of the handicaps that we meet in the implementation of the CBC.*

Principal School D acknowledged lack of resources as a challenge but said he was addressing the problem in stages. He said:

> *Of course, lack of resources has been a challenge, but I'm happy that just last month I bought textbooks for learners so I feel I'm in the right direction.*

Deputy Principals also agreed that lack of resources was indeed a challenge to effective CBC implementation. Deputy Principal School B said:

> *As I said earlier on that the CBC is hands on curriculum so there are a number of resources needed. For example, in Grade 3 there is a topic on magnetism. What it means is that the learners should have magnets, the fillings, the paper so that they can be able to do the experiments, but this is being done theoretically because there are no resources. You find that when we talk of lack of resources we mean material resources, financial resources and so on. You may want to know that the levies that we charge cannot sustain the school for it to buy all the things needed. Another challenge is human resource knowledge. When the CBC was introduced, it required some in service training, not just the workshops, in service training that could go for a month or every holiday so that teachers get to know about the CBC. But teachers were just exposed to a one day workshop which is equivalent to a 4-hr workshop. So that is another challenge of knowledge gap.*

Deputy Principal School E focused more on teaching and learning resources when she said:

> *There is lack of teaching and learning resources, for example, textbooks. There is also limited space at this school because we need to have things like tennis courts and volleyball pitches. Those are some of the sporting disciplines being taught in the new curriculum and they need theory and practice. According to our set up here we don't have space and even for gardening. It is going to be theory work only and no practical.*

Deputy Principal School D also said:

> *As I said earlier on, lack of resources is a challenge. There are no textbooks, like ourselves here we have no computer lab; we have a small room which can accommodate just about 10 learners. So this thing needs a lot of funding. And teachers ought to be trained for the implementation of the*

new curriculum. As long as the facilitator is not well versed with what they are teaching, we are doomed

TICs also opined their views concerning lack of resources as a challenge to the CBC implementation.

TIC School A said:

There is lack of resources, like computers, projectors and electrical gadgets like televisions at this school. There is lack of knowledge to operate the desired materials.

TIC School C also said:

Lack of knowledge by teachers, and then lack of resources such as textbooks because schools were not prepared to buy the textbooks.

Teacher School D said:

The challenges are that we have no resources, qualified teachers for the subjects/learning areas, for example in our school we have two departments- the junior and the infants. You find that the ICT teacher will be based at the junior school only while here (infant school) we don't have an ICT teacher.

Teacher School E just said:

Lack of resources is a challenge because, for example, we don't have enough computers at school.

The finding from this section is that schools are implementing the CBC without adequate teaching and learning resources and it can be concluded that implementation is not as what it should be. Schools are trying their best to buy some of the resources such as textbooks, but the challenge they face is that the levies they charge parents are not enough to buy all the resources required for the CBC. It follows that the government should assist schools by proving the bulk of the resources then schools would supplement a few and not the reverse situation where schools are providing the bulk of the resources and the government comes in here and there or not at all.

5.8.2 Resistance from stakeholders

In respect of resistance by stakeholders (learners, teachers, parents and church organisations) as a challenge to the CBC implementation, participants generally agreed, citing examples of how this resistance was exhibited.

Principal School C said this in detail:

Basically we wouldn't call it resistance because to me it would be more of negative attitude or we need them to have a new mind set in that. Industry is accepting, but this CBC, while it has its negatives it has more of the positive because the learner that comes out of it is more entrepreneurial which is what we want because skills are more important than academic knowledge where a child just gives us knowledge which is nothing else until it's practical. So I would want to believe that parents' resistance is based on not being resistant but on fear of the unknown, "What is it that this [CBC] will lead to?" Parents are not sure. While we also look at the religious aspect, church organisations look at the embracing we are doing of all the religions. They feel that we are being laid out of Christianity if it is a Christian country, which is a dominant religion in Zimbabwe. Once you begin teaching traditionalism and insist on those, then the community obviously they will come up against the school. And they will be resisting, that is why some religions send their children just to get the basics [reading and writing].

Although parents were not interviewed to have their views, Principal School A's comments were his perceptions which are acceptable because principals do interact with parents and get to hear their sentiments about the CBC. These are Principal School A's comments which bring out the notion that some parents still have the pre-independence mentality that favours academic education instead of practical education which is why some of the parents were resisting the CBC.

Parents might also be resistant because they still have that attitude of academic education only, because they still view practical skills as manual work as in the past, so they tend to resist. For example recently some parents were phoning when our learners were doing agriculture. They said, "Why are you taking our learners for agriculture? They are supposed to be in class doing Maths and the like," not knowing that they are supposed to do the practical work. It just happened about a week or two weeks ago.

Principal School D said:

I have noticed that children are very receptive of new programmes. They seem to enjoy the new curriculum. For teachers that is where we were facing challenges but I had to go through a lot trying to make them understand the importance of this new curriculum. Of course teachers may say we are not trained to teach this, but some of them have begun to accept that this is the norm. It is of course from the behaviour that you see that there is some resistance. But the major resistance I received was from the parents themselves. They were so used to the old way of doing things so they were asking these questions: what is it that this new headmaster is talking about? What is this new curriculum all about? Is it going to cost us in any way? Is it going to make our fees go up? I had to explain to them that it had nothing to do with fees but just a new way of learning which will benefit you as parents in future. I told them that the CBC will give children hands on experience which they will use after school.

Principal School E admitted there was resistance to the change in curriculum but insisted that the change has to be enforced, considering the intentions of the CBC. He said:

> *True people may resist but we have to look at the bigger picture: what is the intention of the CBC? If we look at the intention of the CBC, we have to enforce it because the intention is to identify the learner's talent and develop it. If the intended outcome of the CBC is good and appreciated by everyone, whether one resists or not, we have to take everyone on board because what we want to achieve is important. The resistance is latent because you will have to be very careful to notice it. It's not quite obvious. If you ask for record books and some bring and others don't then you know they are resisting because in terms of record keeping, those teachers are not doing what is expected of them.*

Deputy Principals also had their perspectives about resistance from stakeholders as an impediment to the CBC implementation.

Deputy Principal School B said:

> *Resistance is always there. When something new comes up, there is bound to be some resistance, but with enough education, the resistance disappears. If you get to a class and find that the teacher is not implementing what is in the CBC, it's a sign of resistance. If you find a teacher still resorting to the old curriculum teaching methods again it is a sign of resistance although the other reason could be that they don't know.*

Deputy Principal School C dwelt on resistance from teachers and parents, citing some examples when she said:

> *From the teachers it is because most of the teachers are complaining that the work is just too much. The resistance from teachers is not very pronounced, but you can see it; you can tell because you can overhear some of the teachers saying, "The work is too much, I can't be seen to be doing all this". From such talk you can tell that there is some resistance. There is no resistance from learners, also parents are not resisting instead they are very supportive, maybe it is because of the nature of the school, because the parents can afford. However there are some parents who have misconception of subjects like Visual and Performing Arts (VPA). They think their children will be taught traditional things and at one time one parent transferred their child from this school because of VPA, not knowing that the learning area is taught in all schools. The parent later returned their child.*

Deputy Principal School E made reference to resistance by teachers, learners and parents, giving examples of how this is shown. Teachers indirectly resist by being absent from work or by not giving learners adequate work. In her view, indiscipline by lesson during lessons is a sign of resistance by

learners while parents show resistance by not supporting school activities through payments. It can be argued indiscipline by learners cannot be totally taken to be resistance to a curriculum because learners can be undisciplined whether or not there is a new curriculum. She said:

> *There is resistance especially from teachers. If you are a leader, it is not possible to see what will be going on in the school, so if the teacher has got that negative attitude, it affects. The resistance is shown indirectly. For example absenteeism is a sign of resistance; being not punctual sometimes is a sign of that resistance. Giving learners inadequate exercises as expected is also a sign of resistance. They (teachers) don't say it directly but you can tell. There is resistance from learners through absenteeism, indiscipline. From parents, some of them are not supportive in terms of buying the requirements for their children, for example, textbooks.*

Deputy Principal School D argued why there is this resistance especially on the part of implementers when she said:

> *Resistance emanates from the fact that these people do not know what they are supposed to do. You are told to do this, this that you do not know how to do it and you do not have anything to use to do that, that's where the resistance comes from. If the people were well trained, and they were given enough resources and then they were told to do this, I don't think there would be any resistance or any negative attitude.*

TIC School A said:

> *Resistance from teachers is there. It is sometimes visible but it still goes back to the lack of knowledge and this causes the resistance. Resistance from parents comes mainly from those parents who do not understand this new curriculum and feel that their children are being taught the wrong things some of which they feel should be taught at secondary school hence they cannot assist their children with their homework. Resistance from church organisations is their feeling that Christianity must not have been left out from the FAREME syllabus especially at ECD level where emphasis is just on values and nothing on Christianity is included. Most parents want their children to learn to pray at a tender age, now if they hear about religions like Moslem, they begin to think their children are being changed their religion especially in these times when Satanism is rife.*

TIC School C also said:

> *You can tell the resistance from the teachers from the way they talk and discuss amongst themselves, condemning the new curriculum saying, "This curriculum is very difficult, the content is too much, some of the things are challenging for the young children, the content is too high for the grade levels of learners". Even the parents they cannot assist their children with homework. The learners are resisting in a way that the content is too much and the performance has gone down*

compared with the old curriculum. Some of the parents come complaining that we are giving children too much homework and we don't understand it. Some even phone saying they don't understand some of the work give as homework.

TIC School D agreed mostly with TIC School As perception. She said:

Parents and some churches are not happy with the removal of Religious and Moral Education (RME) from the curriculum. We used to teach it in depth in the old curriculum. Now they make us teach Buddhism, Hinduism and so on. We used to teach Christianity because we are Christianity based here. We also taught a bit of African Traditional Religion (ATR). This is what I was saying that change is always resisted.

Teachers had their fair share of perspectives about resistance as a possible impediment of effective implementation of the CBC.

Teacher School D gave some of her experiences of parents and church organisations' resistance when she said:

The resistance (by teachers) is not visible, you can only see it, sense it; the way people behave you can sense that there is some form of resistance, but it's not spoken. Some churches would say don't teach my child this. We have this FAREME, it has different religions. We have parents who question this Heritage (subject) like when you teach about "Mbuya Nehanda" (the first Chimurenga heroine), the liberation struggle, they say you are teaching our children about war or this ZANU (the ruling party) and I don't want it. So it's a challenge, because I once came across a parent who did not want his child to be taught about the National flag and the Court of Arms. Then I had to call the parent to school and showed him the syllabus and explained to him how his child would lose out in terms of examination if I were to send his child out of the classroom each time I will be conducting such lessons. The mother of the child intervened and gave me permission to teach their child that learning area. So there is some form of resistance from some parents and some church organisations.

Teacher School E concurred with Deputy Principal School D on resistance due to lack of knowledge, but disagreed with Teacher School D in respect of church organisation's resistance. She said:

Yes, resistance is a factor that can hinder effective implementation of the CBC. It's there especially in teachers, why? because they do not have knowledge. Lack of knowledge can cause resistance because you can't teach VPA where you teach about guitars, but you don't have knowledge about that so, you end up resisting. Learners resist because they don't have enough textbooks and the teachers are not imparting enough knowledge to them, why? because the teacher also does not have that knowledge. From parents and church organisations, I can say parents are instead

partially supporting their children, but for churches I have not heard of any resistance.

Teacher School C had this to say about the resistance by teachers and parents:

> *It does contribute to the ineffective implementation because if the teacher is not qualified, he cannot effectively teach the subject. Another reason for the resistance is that the teachers don't value these subjects compared to what we refer to as the main subjects. For example I would rather teach Comprehension during the time I'm supposed to teach PE. Or I can sacrifice the PE lesson for reading if there are learners who need to be taught reading. If the ICT teacher is not available, I will teach another learning area. There are some religions which do not allow their children to wear trousers like tracksuits for sports so the children don't take part. In Visual and Performing Arts (VPA) some parents' culture doesn't allow their children to take part in traditional dance. Church organisations had not choice but to accept the inclusion of other religions in the subject (Family Religion and Moral Education-FAREME).*

Findings from teachers' comments are that resistance by whichever stakeholder does negatively impact effective implementation of the CBC. The other findings were that teachers, learners and parents have their different ways and reasons of resisting the CBC. Teachers' resistance can only be noticed through their behaviour but they do not openly tell principals that they do not like the CBC. Some of the causes for the resistance are lack of knowledge to teach some the new curriculum learning areas and they find this frustrating. Another cause for the resistance is denial by some of the teachers to change their mind set wherein they still value old curriculum main subjects such as Mathematics, English and Indigenous Languages more than the new CBC learning areas. It was also found out that learners mainly resist the CBC when there are no learning resources such as textbooks and the researcher finds this justifiable because learners cannot be expected to enjoy ICT practical lessons where there are no computers. Where parents were observed to resist the CBC, it was a case, for example, the syllabus content conflicted with some of the parents' cultural and religious beliefs to an extent that some parents stopped teachers from teaching their children some topics or participating in certain sporting activities. Such parents need to be educated to see sense and, as noted in one of the comments (Teacher School D in this section), this was done and it worked.

5.8.3 Lack of monitoring by ministry officials

Monitoring, as described by Kapsali (2009), is a boundary management procedure in closed systems used to control or avoid unauthorised change in project activities (Section 2.7). In the case of the CBC implementation, monitoring would be done by ministry officials such as DSIs and SIs (MoPSE, 2015).

With regard to lack of monitoring by ministry officials as a hindrance to the CBC implementation, the general view was it does hinder effective implementation. Some participants acknowledged that ministry officials sometimes visit schools while others claimed that they have not seen them in a very long time.

Principal School A said in this regard:

> *Yes, it is a challenge because we expect ministry officials to be here more often to assess how far and how well we are implementing the new curriculum but they don't seem to be forth coming. They don't seem to be here with us to assist me as the leader in supervising, because as a leader I may be outnumbered by the teachers, because here I have a head-teacher ratio of 1to 45 teachers. So I can say I'm overwhelmed and would need more supervisors coming in at least once a month to assist. Maybe they don't have enough supervision personnel in their offices at district level or even at provincial level.*

Principal School B acknowledged ministry officials making visits at times, disagreeing with Principal School D, when he said:

> *Yes, they sometimes come but not regularly because since schools are so many they can come maybe once a term per school. So it depends with the availability of resources. Sometimes they just come for spot checks, to see how you are doing it and also they also come for supervision of teachers because they check the whole school and about three-quarters of the facilitators are also supervised.*

Principal School E gave reasons for the lack of monitoring when he said:

> *I would agree with that opinion that there is lack of monitoring from the parent ministry. If they had a system whereby they would send their teams to schools and monitor the implementation of the CBC, I believe it would be successful. It could be lack of information, lack of competences, maybe they are not in the know, they don't know what is expected of them which cause them not do the monitoring.*

Deputy Principal School C said:

> *It is a challenge because the ministry has no manpower for that supervision hence you see them creating provincial supervision teams comprising selected school heads (principals) to assist them to supervise schools, instead of them coming to supervise heads also. Now it is head supervising another head and this is not proper. Again ministry does not have the financial resources caused by the state of our country- economic challenges of the country.*

Deputy Principal School D attributed lack of monitoring to the COVID-19 pandemic and lack of knowledge of what to monitor when she said:

> *This time monitoring from MoPSE is even worse because everyone is afraid of coming out of his office because of Covid. They say if I go into schools I will get Covid, so even if the wanted, they can't. Before Covid the only people whom we saw coming to monitor were those funding ERI (Early*

Reading Instruction) and PLAP (Performance Lag Assistance Programme). Those people were monitoring seriously. Now with CBC they are not coming because they don't even know what to come and monitor.

Deputy Principal School E argued that while lack of monitoring by ministry officials is a challenge, school leaders should do it instead. She said:

Yes, though as leaders we represent the ministry, but their visibility also matters. Since I was promoted, throughout my probation, I haven't seen them, so I can't say they are frequenting.

Deputy Principal School B had this to say about monitoring:

It is a challenge because the way ministry supervises schools, according to me, is not ideal because when they come to schools, they come for supervision and not for monitoring. For monitoring, they should not write reports but rather just to come and find out what is going on. When they write a report on every teacher, that's supervision, so that is the slight difference with monitoring. If they come to be shown around to see what is being done, that motivates teachers. But the moment they come for supervision, the first thing they cause is fear in teachers and that is not proper in my opinion.

TIC School D remarked that there was no monitoring, arguing that if it was there, certain anomalies in her opinion should have been noted and possibly corrected. She said:

If they were monitoring they should have seen that Christianity was omitted in the syllabi and that there is some resistance from teachers. In fact if you bring in something new, you should continue to monitor to check if it is effective. Constant monitoring and supervision are needed, but this is not there.

In support of TIC School D, TIC School A said:

They are not even coming, but we need them to come so that they tell us what we should do exactly.

Teacher School E held the same perception as TIC School D on the same issue of lack of monitoring when she said:

Ministry officials are not coming, so teachers just ignore knowing that there is no one coming to monitor that. So, if you resist, no one will ask you about that. If they were coming to monitor, they would know the problems teachers are facing so that they would help the teachers. There should be communication between them and the teachers.

Teacher School D also said:

They should follow up on these workshops so that they can give a comprehensive report, rather than visit schools say after three years- by then, the present Grade 5s will have gone to secondary school.

The first finding was that lack of monitoring by ministry officials leads to ineffective implementation of the CBC. The other findings relate whether or not ministry officials went round schools monitoring the implementation process of the CBC wherein some participants agreed that this took place while others said they were not coming (TIC School D and Teacher School E). Among the participants who agreed that officials went round, not that frequently though, one participant (Deputy Principal School B) made a distinction between supervision and monitoring and his view was that monitoring helps the officials get a better picture of how the CBC is being implemented instead of going into schools for supervision. The impression the researcher got is that for most participants, ministry officials teamed up to come and supervise teachers through seeing them teach then write reports.

5.8.4 Inadequate time to cover the syllabus

To a considerable extent, time to cover what participants viewed as a wide syllabus was perceived to be inadequate, making it a challenge to effective implementation of the CBC.

Concerning this, Principal School D said:

Major challenge like I alluded to earlier on is finances. And then also time could be another challenge. By time I mean we now have more learning areas but time hasn't been adjusted. Time tables are congested. You talk to teachers to say let us teach these subjects after 1pm or 1.30pm. I meet a little bit of resistance from teachers.

Teachers weighed in and Teacher School B said:

The work load is not in tandem with the time allocated to the teaching of a subject or a topic. The work load is too much in such a way that if someone tries to be perfect in whatever one is doing then the whole syllabus will not be completed in time. You will be choking the child, like giving the child more porridge when he can swallow very little at a time.

Teacher School D also said:

The syllabus is too wide for these primary learners. We can't compress it to suit this termly structure. Time is not enough to match the syllabus.

Views by participants in this section revealed the finding that the syllabi content of the CBC is too much compared to the time allocated for teaching and as a result teachers do not exhaust the syllabus of some learning areas by the of the year. While teachers are expected to work eight hours a day – from 8am to

4pm, in real terms it does not work out that way. As commented by Principal School D, in this section, he faces resistance from teachers when they are asked to teach after 1.30pm. This comment testifies the findings in section 5.8.2 on resistance from stakeholders. What this implies is that, if teachers were willing to teach after 2pm, for example – considering that there is one hour lunch time from 1pm to 2pm, significant ground would be covered in trying to complete the syllabi. Resistance from teachers is there basing on the comments by participants but the researcher, as a principal still perceives a challenge in conducting afternoon lessons because for most schools, this is the time for co-curricular activities like athletics and ball games which are done for purposes of competitions at various levels – district, provincial, national and even regional level with neighbouring countries. This being the case, it can be argued that time is not enough for the congested new curriculum. Findings from this theme were an attempt to answer sub-research question 3 (Section 1.5.2) hence a strong link can be drawn between this theme and the research question.

5.9 Theme five: Suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform

It is a reality that any curriculum reform such as the CBC faces some serious challenges. Leadership is expected to come up with intervention strategies that can be used to enhance the implementation of the reform programme if it entertains the programme's continuity. It is in this context that findings under the theme *suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform* were premised on the need to identify possible strategies to enhance the CBC implementation in schools.

5.9.1 Possible strategies to enhance the CBC implementation

Findings revealed five possible intervention strategies, which could be used by leadership at the micro (school) level and by leadership at the macro (ministry) level to improve the CBC implementation.

The five possible strategies that came out of the findings were that teachers' colleges needed to train teachers in line with the CBC, in-service training was necessary for practising teachers, there was a need for the provision of resources, consultation with stakeholders was important and the need to motivate teachers. These identified strategies by the participants link with sub-research question 4 (Section 1.5.2) which sought the views of participants on this aspect.

5.9.1.1 Teachers' colleges to train teachers in line with the CBC

Participants were of the view that MoPSE need to ensure that teachers' colleges train teachers in line with the CBC, which was being taught in schools.

Deputy Principal School B said:

We look at government level. The MoPSE and Higher and Tertiary Education (HTE) should work together such that the colleges and the new trainees at colleges are taught about the new curriculum. They are given specific areas such that when they complete their training they are not just general teachers, they are specialised teachers.

Deputy Principal School E also said:

At teachers colleges which are under the University of Zimbabwe there should be a Board which looks at what is happening in the teachers colleges which should be in line with what is happening in the schools as regards the new CBC. If this is done, I'm sure the problem of lack of specialist teachers will be solved.

Principal School C weighed in and said:

Higher and Tertiary Ministry has specialists who can assist us is some areas. Teacher training colleges are the ones who are preparing teachers who are coming to teach, so they need to be taught the CBC themselves so that when the teachers are deployed they already know what they are doing. They come and teach us the teachers who are already in the stations. There is no link between MoPSE and Tertiary education ministry which trains teachers because when a teacher is coming from college and you ask them to do VPA, and they say "We don't know". What does that mean then? Really there's no link.

Principal School A said:

I also talked about the issue of receiving skilled and qualified manpower. Teachers' colleges should align these teachers to the demands of the new curriculum.

In support of the other principals, Principal School D said:

Those in training colleges need to be trained in accordance with the new curriculum.

Recommendations made by principals and deputy principals were also supported by TIC School C and Teacher School E. TIC School C said:

Colleges should start training teachers in the new learning areas. There is no link between colleges and the demands of the CBC.

Teacher School E also said:

Colleges should train teachers according to the CBC.

The main finding from the comments made by the participants is that teachers' colleges should align their curriculum in line with the CBC which is being taught in schools. These sentiments follow observations by

school leaders that the qualified teachers they are receiving from colleges also do not have the competency to teach CBC new learning areas. This situation speaks volumes about the preparedness by the ministry to see the new curriculum being implemented. The curriculum designers should have ensured this synchronisation between teachers' colleges and schools where the CBC is to implemented which appears to be lacking.

5.9.1.2 In-service training of practising teachers

Participants perceived that practising teachers needed in-service training for them to cope with the demands of the CBC new learning areas. Thus the finding in this section was that the ministry needs to sponsor and conduct in-service training/refresher courses to acquaint practising teachers with the CBC.

Principal School A said:

> *I think I talked about in servicing. I remember in the early 1980s, a lot of teachers were in serviced. These programmes are very necessary when it comes to this new curriculum.*

Principal School C also said:

> *We can also look for specialists in certain areas who come here and in service or train our teachers. Once the teachers are trained it means they are now able to deal with those areas of the CBC that might be presenting a challenge to them.*

In agreement with Principal School A, Deputy Principal School E said:

> *MoPSE needs to bring back that in service whereby teachers are given the chance during the holidays to go and learn in terms of those new learning areas which they are not well versed in. I think they should also encourage and fund those teachers who want to do self-development.*

TIC School C said briefly:

> *MoPSE maybe should send teachers for in service training.*

TIC School A referred to a self-funded in-service training to show how important in-service training is when she said:

> *We need some training. I went to Morgan Zintec College at my expense for a short course (6 months) on these new learning areas at ECD level. That is when I began to realise what is wanted in, for example, VPA at ECD. So we need that training so that a Grade 7 teacher does not teach Grade 3 stuff, for example.*

Some participants also perceived in-service training as a suggestion leadership can consider adopting for the effective implementation of the CBC.

Principal School D referred to this in-service training as refresher courses when he said:

> *There may be a lot that the ministry needs to do because we should be invited as often as possible for refresher courses, workshops and programmes for practical subjects.*

Deputy Principal School B briefly said:

> *There should be in service training for the teachers.*

Teacher School E had this to say about in-service training:

> *Teachers should be in serviced, supervised so that they don't get lost. The ministry should sponsor the in service training of teachers, provide enough resources.*

5.9.1.3 Provision of material resources

With regard to the provision of material resources as an intervention strategy to enhance the CBC implementation, participants viewed this as a ministry task. This section links with section 5.8.1 in the sense that it comes as an intervention strategy to the challenges that were experienced by school leaders and teachers in the implementation of the CBC.

Principal School A had this to say:

> *I think the parent ministry should try and outsource these materials, invite interested stakeholders, NGOs, so that they can fully equip the schools. If that is done the role of a leader becomes much easier.*

In support of Principal School A with regard to outsourcing, Principal School C suggested how ministry can go about outsourcing when he said:

> *I don't want to say the ministry is not doing much, but while they cry of having no financial muscle currently, they should liaise with the Finance Ministry for funds and make the resources available because we need assistance from the Curriculum Development Unity (CDU). Those are the people who are supposed to be giving us information. So when they get funding from Ministry of Finance we are fine and square. Again we have been talking about Private Public Partnership. It is the duty of the ministry to look for co-operates that can come in and provide some of the resources that we need. Textbooks, go to Publishers, make room, we will pay that time, provide schools with these books and they bridge this gap. The most interesting one is that we have a lot of wealth in this country. Why not use the gold, channel a portion of it towards education. It will also solve our problems.*

Principal School E also spoke about provision of resources and said:

The other strategy is provision of required resources, because in the absence of resources, how do you expect teachers to teach these children?

Deputy Principals also gave their perceptions on provision of resources.

Deputy Principal School D said:

They (leaders) have to avail resources. If the resources are not there, there is no way you can force a teacher to implement the CBC.

Deputy Principal School B also said:

The government, as matter of urgency, should support schools in acquiring the relevant teaching and learning materials. The government should see that the Research Centre for Development is fully operational since the first phase of the CBC implementation is almost up.

Principal School D was pessimistic that ministry could afford to avail resources to schools when he said:

I don't see resources coming from ministry; rather if we could talk of schools providing adequate resources, yes that could make sense.

In agreement with her Principal's view, TIC School D said:

For material resources, schools can struggle to source, but human resources need the ministry.

While teacher participants suggested that ministry should avail resources, their concern was that this should be done equitably so that there is no gap between urban schools and rural schools. This quotation from Teacher School B represents two of the participants who raised this suggestion. She said:

There is inadequacy of resources. These should be availed to every community and school such that it should not show a gap between those from the urban set up and rural set up. If this is not addressed we will be seem to be writing two different exams at the end of the course because of the disparity between urban and rural. Take for instance during this COVID 19 time when pupils are not coming to school, those in the rural areas will be herding cattle whilst those in the urban will be doing online lessons. So that disparity should be removed such that we should be at par so something should be done in rural areas such that there should be internet all over.

The main finding in this section is that the ministry through the government should source for funds to provide schools with material resources that are required in the teaching and learning of new learning areas introduced by the CBC. The suggestions given on how to source for funds are an indication that participants are well aware that ministry does not have the capacity to provide these resources (Principal School D, in this section) judging most likely from the budget allocation that is given to MoPSE by the Finance minister. The disparity between rural areas and urban areas that teachers advocate for it to be

bridged in terms of resource allocation is a something that the researcher feels will take a very long time to achieve. The government needs to show its capability to provide the resources then equitable distribution follows.

5.9.1.4 Motivating teachers

Participants perceived motivation of teachers, the key implementers of the CBC, as one of the suggestions for leadership that can go a long way in enhancing the CBC implementation. These views were given mainly by the five deputy principals and only one of the teachers.

Deputy Principal School D said:

> *There has to be teacher motivation; the facilitators should be motivated. While I'm a leader, I'm also a teacher so I must also be motivated through better remuneration.*

Deputy Principal School B also said:

> *Number one strategy is that they should motivate the teachers because right now, they are very demotivated. If they motivate the teachers, they will be willing to teach.*

Deputy Principal School E referred to all strategies, including motivating teachers, when she said:

> *Finding common ground with the implementer, provision of adequate resources, in service training of teachers so that they acquire knowledge are some of the some of the strategies. Then if they acquire knowledge and are motivated then we will be in a better position.*

Only Teacher School B spoke of motivation, by referring to it as teacher welfare, when he said:

> *So when all things are addressed well then definitely the evaluation is going to be done and the nation at large will benefit and chief among these issues is teachers' welfare.*

The finding in this section is that teachers need to be motivate by government through better salaries. The findings in this section link with those obtained in section 5.7.2. The view that employees are motivated to work and perform to the best of their ability when they earn salaries they are happy with cannot be over emphasised. Ministry and government should give serious consideration to this recommendation of motivating teachers if they entertain any hope of seeing the CBC being implemented well.

5.9.1.5 Consultation with stakeholders

The response by participants revealed that leadership at the macro level need to consult with stakeholders at all stages of the curriculum reform programme. This view came from principals only and some of them highlighted this when they gave their views about the impact of bureaucracy on the CBC implementation.

Principal School A said:

There is also need to continuously consult the major stakeholders who are the teachers. You know sometimes some things come from bottom up and innovation comes from up there and it is fed to the implementer. The implementer is bound to resist but there is need for a buy in and it is done through consultations. So whatever thing they would want to improve, this system should consult all the other bodies that are in the education system. I think if they get that buy in, people would adopt and move on.

Principal School B also said:

The first one is consultation; there is need for consultation widely so that everyone is part of it. That sense of ownership of the program.

Principal School C also added the idea of communication to consultation with stakeholders when he said:

I want to believe the most important one is consultation. Consult the grassroots before implementing. Where possible have pilot projects done before introducing to the whole nation that this is now what we are doing. Because the feasibility will work in some geographical set ups, but will not work in other set ups. Also I believe there should be communication. Implementers and policy makers should have open and two-way communication where the ones on the ground can give feedback to say we are meeting these challenges.

The finding from the comments made by the principals is that it is important that curriculum designers need to consult with relevant stakeholders, especially the implementers, before they require that the curriculum be implemented. Once implementers have a sense of ownership and involvement in the whole process, chances of the curriculum being implemented well are high.

5.10 Summary

This chapter centred on data presentation. The chapter presented findings of the interviews as data that showed the viewpoint of the participants on suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform based on experiences of Zimbabwean primary school leaders and teachers of implementing competence-based curriculum in schools.

The findings revealed similarities between principals' experiences of implementing the CBC and perceptions of other school leaders and teachers. There were similarities in perceptions of, for example, the challenges facing the CBC implementation. While principals were experiencing inadequate material and human resources, receiving from teachers' colleges trained teachers who lacked knowledge of the CBC learning areas, it was the perception of other participants that the CBC implementation faced challenges in the aforementioned areas.

Similarities between principals' experiences and perceptions of other school leaders and teachers were

not only on the negative side. As an example, findings revealed that all participants, save one teacher, shared the view that the CBC was a worthwhile curriculum reform project in spite of the challenges that the implementation process is facing.

Findings also revealed differences among perceptions of school leaders themselves and between school leaders and teachers. While some school leaders perceived the change from the old curriculum to the CBC as affecting their leadership roles, other school leaders saw no change in their leadership roles following the change in curriculum. There were also conflicting claims between school leaders and teachers or even among the teachers themselves on resistance to the CBC by church organisations and NGOs.

Findings revealed that the views of principals did not differ much from those of deputy principals, TICs and teachers, as shall be observed in Chapter 6, which focuses on data analysis and interpretation.

CHAPTER 6 DATA ANALYSIS AND INTERPRETATION

6.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 presented the findings on the implementation of the CBC in Zimbabwean primary schools. A discussion of the results is presented in this chapter to interpret the data generated from school leaders (principals, deputy principals and TICs) and teachers on their experiences and perceptions of the CBC implementation. This was after a realisation that some stakeholders did not quite receive the new reform and there was resistance of the CBC in schools in Harare Province in Zimbabwe.

Chapter 6 will thus present a thematic analysis and interpretation of the data generated from interviews as well as the existing literature and theory for this study. This will be done through alluding to empirical similarities and contrasts in the themes and drawing on the systems theory to show theory synergy and/or divides.

The chapter will delve deeper into the following themes, as indicated in Chapter 5. This will be done by going beyond a presentation of the themes to an analysis and interpretation of these themes.

- School leaders' and teachers' experiences of the CBC implementation;
- Participants' perceptions of the CBC implementation;
- Leadership roles in the CBC implementation;
- Challenges of the CBC implementation, and
- Suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform.

The themes are linked in the sense that they help to answer the study's research questions in detail and bring out new knowledge. They seek to extract the experiences of school leaders and teachers on the CBC implementation. This speaks to the systems theory, which considers an organisation, such as a school, as a set of interacting functions that acquire inputs from the environment, process them and then release the output back into the external environment (Daft, 2008) (Section 3.2). The systems theory thus links with the themes in the sense that the microsystem (school) level, which is the focus of this study, is in interaction with the other levels of the ecological systems model, namely the mesosystem, macrosystem and exosystem levels. The assessment of learners by teachers (Section 2.2.2.3), together with school leaders and teachers' experiences of how the CBC is being implemented in schools amount to feedback that policy makers need to prescribe new policies on the CBC.

6.2 School leaders' and teachers' experiences of the CBC implementation

School leaders' and teachers' experiences of the CBC implementation are the main thrust of this study and are based on the thematic analysis of empirical data extracted from interviews of school leaders and teachers. The interpretation in this section is based on the responses given by participants on their overall experience of the CBC implementation, including the support given to the CBC implementation by stakeholders.

6.2.1 Positive and negative experiences of the CBC implementation

When the CBC was introduced into schools in 2017, school leaders experienced that teachers were sceptical and they had a negative attitude about the CBC. As school leaders they could actually see the mistrust and negative attitude in the manner teachers behaved. Reasons mentioned by school leaders for this scepticism and negative attitude of the CBC by teachers were resistance to change and lack of wide consultation (Section 5.4.1). The resistance to change by teachers in this context is because curriculum change leads to changes in approaches to teaching and learning as well as to students' learning outcomes (Rudhumbu, Mswazie and Maphosa, 2016). These changes stir some resistance from teachers as this will be a deviation from what they will be used to (Section 3.6). Resistance to change, as shall be observed in Section 6.5.3, brings out the strong correlation between autocratic leadership and the power coercive strategy in change process (Udod & Wagner, 2018) (Section 3.6.1.3).

Learners were observed to have accepted the new curriculum because *being children they are receptive to new programmes* (Principal School D) (Section 5.5.1). This view experienced by Principal School D was shared by Deputy Principal School B, TIC School D and TIC School A who said that *from the learners' side the CBC has been received well as learners have managed to catch up with what was to be learnt*. Teachers agreed with school leaders' view that learners had no problems in receiving CBC. Teacher School D said, *I can simply say I have no problems with learners because learners are there to learn. They are accepting it, they are getting along with it* and Teacher School C *felt that learners will just respond to what they are supposed to do* (Section 5.4.1). This was contrary to the then minister of Primary and Secondary Education, Dokora, who claimed that even the learners were saying they do not want the new curriculum (Section 1.4). What the minister said does not agree with what school leaders and teachers are experiencing on the ground. The minister's conclusion could have been arrived at without adequate information from the schools where the CBC is being implemented, but was based on social media reports which, in some cases, are misleading.

6.2.2 Experiences about syllabi content by school leaders and teachers

School leaders, however, experienced that *the vocabulary of this new curriculum is a bit difficult for our learners* (Deputy Principal School D). In support of this view, TIC School A said *from the learners side the CBC has been received well as learners have managed to catch up with what was to be learnt, but as for*

some it has become a challenge as some of the concepts are too complex for them (Section 5.5.1). Teachers confirmed school leaders' experiences of the CBC being viewed as a difficult curriculum with Teacher School E saying that *the content is now too much for our children, for example for Grade 7s some of the topics it seems as if you are teaching physics and chemistry to these little ones. It seems as if you are teaching secondary level stuff.* Teacher School A summed it up by saying that *the children are too small for the jargon that is being used in this new curriculum* (Section 5.5.1). Teachers have experienced parents who have complained about the difficult nature of CBC, just as was observed by school leaders. Parents observed this from the homework that was being given to their children. Teacher School C said *currently some parents will phone to say the homework is too difficult. It's like the content that children are learning is a bit too advanced compared to the age group and the content we had previously* (Section 5.5.1). The words *some parents will phone* technically make this the teacher's experience as opposed to a perception because the teacher actually heard it from the parents.

As shall be observed in the analysis of the worthwhileness of the CBC in Section 6.3, participants appear to have experienced that the CBC is a better curriculum compared to the old curriculum. The above sentiments by school leaders, teachers and parents, to say it is a difficult curriculum, seem to contradict their experience that the CBC is a noble thing (Section 5.5.2). The researcher's interpretation is that what participants say about the worthwhileness of the CBC does not agree with their actual experiences with the CBC syllabi content. It can however be argued that the somewhat negative sentiments by participants about the CBC do not override their early on submission that the CBC is a better curriculum compared to the old curriculum. The observation that a curriculum has challenging concepts which are in line with the intended 21st century skills development does not take away the fact that the CBC is a worthwhile curriculum.

6.2.3 Indicators of the CBC not being implemented well

School leaders also experienced that the CBC was not being implemented well because of various challenges such as inadequate human and material resources. Failure by MoPSE to stick to the CFPSE 2015-2022 timelines is another indication to school leaders that the CBC is not being implemented well. Deputy Principal School B exhibits knowledge of the curriculum framework policy document when he states that *the first phase of this CBC is ending next year (2022). So I can say the implementation was not satisfactory.* (Section 5.5.3).

The above experiences of the CBC by school leaders speaks to the chronosystem of the ecological systems theory, which identifies when in the policy process implementation activities are happening (Section 2.6.5). Still on the chronosystem, the researcher observed that the last primary class (Grade 7) sat for their first Junior Certificate examination in 2021 contrary to what the MoPSE Curriculum Implementation Manual (2018) stipulates (Section 2.6.5). School leaders state that Continuous Assessment Learning Activities (CALA) workshops only started in 2021 while CFPSE 2015-2022 asserts

that implementation of continuous and summative assessment across the curriculum begins in 2017 (MoPSE, 2015:61). The researcher's interpretation is that what the policy says is not aligned with what is taking place on the ground. Learners sat for their first examination in line with the CBC a year earlier than planned; hence, the CALA workshops that were suddenly being conducted. Ministry was rushing to conduct CALA workshops because it had realised that examinations would be written in 2021 before teachers had been trained on how to run continuous assessment learning activities.

Teachers' experiences of the CBC were just as those of school leaders that the CBC was not being effectively implemented. However, teachers made reference to challenges such as poor remuneration of teachers, shortage of time to cover the syllabus and resistance by implementers because of the feeling that it was imposed on them (Section 5.5.3). Issues to do with challenges to the CBC implementation shall be analysed in detail in Section 6.5.

6.2.4 Experiences on stakeholders' support to the CBC implementation

An analysis of the role played by stakeholders to support the CBC implementation revealed that school leaders experienced that parents were generally giving support to the CBC implementation as its demands were more than the previous curriculum, yet schools are limited in terms of funding. All school leaders concurred that the parent community was playing its role of providing learning materials with Principal School C praising the parents of his school for providing *laptops, mobile phones and textbooks when they are asked to do so*. While Deputy Principal School D acknowledged the role being played by parents to support the CBC implementation, she blamed MoPSE for not doing enough. Parents are perceived to be over-burdened and yet they are so hard hit by the unstable economic environment in the country (Section 5.4.1).

The views of Deputy Principal School D above are consistent with Reimers (2021) who states that semi-urban and rural parents no longer afford their children's education as a result of the increasing demands of the CBC (see Section 1.4). The participation of parents in the education of their children by providing resources comes as external support for curriculum (Sabola, 2017; Marishane, 2020) (Figure 2.2). The researcher's interpretation is that what participants say in terms of the role parents are playing to support the CBC implementation contradicts what is in the literature. While participants claim that parents are supporting their children's education, Reimers (2021) states that semi-urban and rural parents no longer afford their children's education as a result of the increasing demands of the CBC. The two views, therefore, are not aligned. Reimers' literature could be viewed as valid in as far as it is limited to semi-urban and rural settings, but may not apply to urban settings where the research was conducted, which can be reason for this non-alignment of the aforementioned views.

Some participants indicated that their schools were not receiving any support from NGOs with Principal School C claiming that NGOs are into assisting rural schools (Section 5.4.1). Participants feel that NGOs

assume that urban schools are better off than rural schools in terms of capacitation; hence, their strong alignment with assisting rural schools. The literature has it that NGOs, as external organisations of the ecological systems model, support education in the countries they assist (OECD, 2019) (Section 2.6.3). Viewed from the theory of dependency or assistance (Section 2.3.2), NGOs give support to poorer countries and dictate terms and conditions of the aid given. This could be the reason why school leaders in urban schools have contradictory views based on their experiences, with Principal School C saying that *NGOs are into assisting rural schools*. The researcher's interpretation is that the blanket assertion that NGOs support education in countries they give assistance is not aligned to what is on the ground in respect of urban schools.

The above analysis appears to be consistent with the views of Bronfenbrenner's (1979) ecological systems theory (OECD, 2019), which shows how the various levels interact with each other in the implementation process of the CBC (Section 2.6.2). However, the situation in the context of some of the participants, is that in Zimbabwe the interaction between external organisations like NGOs (mesosystem level) and schools (microsystem level) is not as expected. It can be argued that the interaction according to findings is not always equal and is limited to different sections of the education system. In this case it is limited to rural schools. The analysis is also consistent with the curriculum implementation framework's construct of external support for curriculum (Figure 2.2), which is in terms of professional development, monitoring and provision of physical resources.

6.2.5 The influence of decision-making authority on the CBC implementation

Findings from experiences of school leaders and teachers revealed that bureaucracy and hierarchy exist in the MoPSE as evidenced by the top-down approach alluded to by the participants. Also revealed was the view that ministry has not continued to engage teachers and school leaders on all stages of the CBC reform.

The *top-down approach* alluded to by Principal School A, Deputy Principal School B and Teacher School D (Section 5.4.2) as a characteristic of bureaucracy, refers to the hierarchical structure obtained in a bureaucratic system of education such as that in Zimbabwe (see Figures 2.7 & 2.8). Teacher School A gives her experience of how ministry uses its decision-making authority to perpetuate the non-payment of fees by parents, which in turn negatively affects CBC implementation. This experience is revealed when she said that *some parents do not even pay school fees; they are not up to date and the ministry goes on to say, no child must be send out of school.* Her sentiments are also supported by Teacher School E who said, *I don't know what they can do as a ministry to those parents who don't pay their children's school fees and yet they are telling us to keep the children here and yet we have this CBC which is requiring us to have the instruments and everything for us to be able to implement* (Section 5.5.1). These experiences are examples of negative effects of this kind of structure and also that *it takes long to cascade information* (Principal School E) and as a result *bungle everything* (Principal School B) (Section 5.4.2). The challenge

to the top-down approach is *facing stiff rejection if it lacks consultation with relevant stakeholders* as viewed by Principal School A (Section 5.4.2). This is probably the reason why issues of resistance to the CBC have been perceived and acknowledged by most participants as a challenge to the CBC implementation (see Section 5.7.3).

Principal School B raises quite a significant number of issues relating to bureaucracy in these views, according to his experience as a school leader: *Bureaucracy, yes, sometimes the information comes from the top-down but we need everyone to be involved in the formation, implementation and evaluation of the CBC. Now if it comes from one side, it becomes a challenge because there is no ownership of the issues. So there is need for everyone to be involved* (Section 5.4.2). The words *there is need for everyone to be involved* seemingly refer to stakeholders such as parents and leaders of industry and commerce (MoPSE, 2015) and role players or implementers in the form of teachers and school leaders. In the same excerpt, the words *no ownership of the issues* speak to the need for everyone to be involved so that there is ownership of the CBC as a curriculum reform project. Also, the words *if it comes from one side* in the above excerpt point to policy makers as the sole side from which decisions about the CBC implementation emanate. Suggestion that policy makers are the one side being referred to is justified because it is only them who have the decision-making authority. The other stakeholders – teachers and parents, for example, have no legitimate power to make decisions unless granted permission by the MoPSE.

While consultations have been done with relevant stakeholders (see Section 1.3), Principal School B's claim looks beyond just mere consultation at the design stage to involvement of implementers in all stages of the curriculum reform – *the formation, implementation and evaluation*. The implication of there being a disgruntlement over lack of ownership of the whole curriculum reform by implementers is that the CBC may fail to realise the desired results because implementers feel they are being relegated to mere implementers of policies they have not been part of. In support of this view, Zenda (2022) states that if school principals are not part of the design process during curriculum development, the questions of ownership and buy-in emerge as sticking issues. Consultation should be understood as the act of consulting, that is, the act of seeking advice or information from a person or persons in the case of this study. However, choice of what to adopt from the advice sought or choice of whether or not to take the advice rests with the persons seeking the advice or information. In the case of this study, choice of adopting or not adopting information generated from consultations made with relevant stakeholders rested with policy makers who initiated the consultations and also have the decision-making authority.

While consultations are documented to have been made with stakeholders, Zenda (2022) argues that participation at design stage is limited to irregular and informal consultations; hence, indications are that curriculum fails at implementation stage and not design stage. In respect of irregular and informal consultations referred to by Zenda (2022), Teacher School B said that *when the consultative meetings were done, it did not have enough impact on the whole issue. It was window dressed in one way or the*

other, so it was taken as if parents had agreed to such a thing yet it needed more consultation with the parents. Contrary to Teacher School B, Teacher School D said *with parents it is too much with them, they were just taken unaware, they didn't really know what was this CBC; parents needed more information about it.* The words *they were just taken unaware, they didn't really know what was this CBC* seem to suggest that there were no consultations that were done because people cannot be unaware of something that they took part in. Principal School A claimed that he had reservations with the CBC *because it was introduced without wide consultations* (Section 5.5.1), suggesting consultations were done but not wide enough. Principal School D also claimed parents at his school were not aware about CBC in agreement with his teacher. He said that *the parents had no idea. I remember the first Annual General Meeting (AGM) which I held when I came here in 2018, it was their first time to hear about the CBC, can you imagine?* (Section 5.5.1). The deputy principal and TIC of School D did not make reference to consultations in their responses, but the synergy between the principal's response and the teacher's indicate that parents at this particular school probably had not been involved in the consultative meetings. Since the principal was not at this school at the time consultative meetings are said to have been conducted, probably his predecessor had not invited parents to such meetings. However, Principal School E confirmed consultations were done just as Teacher School B said above. Principal School E said that *parents and teachers were consulted but learners were not consulted because they are the receivers of the CBC. So consultations enabled the parents, teachers and other stakeholders to readily accept the new curriculum* (Section 5.5.1).

Some school leaders and teachers indicated consultative meetings were done while the same combination of participants said they were not done. The researcher's interpretation, therefore, is that participants do not seem to agree that consultative meetings were conducted at design stage. There were different levels and kinds of consultation. The consultation depended seemingly on the person responsible for it in a school or district. This is another potential problem with regard to the implementation, which might have led to the consequent implementation of the new curriculum.

Principal School B's view that implementers be engaged in all stages so that they can claim equal partnership with policy makers, is supported by Reimers (2021) who asserts that the new Zimbabwean leader (Emmerson Munangagwa) after Robert Mugabe has continued with the implementation of the current education reform although the ministry did not continuously engage all stakeholders throughout the reform and as a result not all teachers and parents were satisfied with the CBC. By the words "did not continuously engage all stakeholders throughout the reform" Reimers (2021) implies that at some stage, implementers were left out; hence, the dissatisfaction.

The section analysed and interpreted positive and negative experiences of the CBC implementation, experiences about syllabi content by school leaders and teachers, indicators of the CBC not being implemented well, experiences on stakeholders' support to the CBC implementation and the impact of

decision-making authority on the CBC implementation. These were participants' experiences of the overall implementation of the CBC in respect of all the themes that emerged from the findings.

6.3 Participants' perceptions of the CBC implementation process

This section of data analysis and interpretation seeks to determine participants' perceptions of the CBC with a view to gain an insight on how these perceptions influence the CBC implementation. It is based on the participants' understanding of the worthwhileness of the CBC as a curriculum innovation and their evaluation of the implementation process since its implementation in 2017. It must be clarified here that what participants said in Section 6.2 were their experiences about these concepts. What is being analysed in this section (6.3) are perceptions of some of the participants on the very same concepts analysed in Section 6.2. Perceptions are what participants said concerning the CBC implementation but they had no first- hand information either by interviewing the concerned people such as teachers, learners or parents or having concrete evidence of what is happening at the schools they are referred to.

6.3.1 The importance of the CBC to learners

School leaders and teachers perceived the CBC as a good and worthwhile curriculum compared to the old curriculum. The statement that the *CBC to me is the best because I believe the old system was focusing more on those who were academically gifted but the CBC is like shifting focus* (Principal School E) (Section 5.5.1) is a perception of the principal based on the words *to me.* It further speaks to the teaching experience and age of the principal (Tables 5.2 and 5.3). He had the experience of both the old curriculum and the new curriculum to be able to come to this conclusion. In support of the view that the CBC was a worthwhile curriculum, Deputy Principal School D came to the conclusion that the CBC was a good thing after going through the curriculum, that is, after analysing the syllabi (Section 5.5.1).

The perceptions of participants that the CBC is a worthwhile reform because learners will be equipped with practical skills speak to one of the characteristics of CBC – development of clearly defined competences (Section 2.2.2.1). This perception is revealed by Principal School D who said, *I was pleased when it was introduced, I knew we were heading for the right direction because I can foresee a situation-10, 15 years from now the country not having a lot of children loitering in the streets because they will be having practical skills obtained from school and they will be able to do something. They may have failed in the academics, but at least they have something they can do.* The skills obtained from school are cherished by participants as it is anticipated that they will be able to make gadgets, which they can sell and sustain their livelihoods instead of loitering in the streets doing nothing (Section 5.5.2). Development of real-life skills for self-sustenance to reduce unemployment and to prepare learners for the world of work is the main reason why most African countries, including Zimbabwe, adopted the CBC (Cheptoo & Ramadas, 2019) (Section 2.3).

Reference to Chinese learners making items that can be sold when the learners are still at a tender age (Section 5.5.2) can be taken to refer to issues relating to 21st century skills and globalisation (Section 2.4). Globalisation has influenced education curricula of various countries the world over, in particular adoption of the CBC, whose focus is development of 21st century skills. As participants uphold the CBC for developing practical skills, they are actually speaking to globalisation and 21st century skills. However, development of these skills in developing countries is not easy as these countries have challenges caused by social inequity and digital divides, which are exacerbated by their poor economies (Section 2.4.1).

The perception that the CBC was a worthwhile curriculum reform was also shared by Deputy Principal School B and TIC School C. Deputy Principal School B said, *now our learners are learning because now we are looking at the academic aspect, then we look at the affective domain, skills- that is the best. But it is not being supported adequately by government* (Section 5.5.2). His perception that the CBC was worthwhile because it speaks to domains of learning is supported by the literature, which provides teaching strategies that match domains of learning. For instance, teaching strategies matched to the affective domain would require the teacher to create "values clarification exercises" for personal values, provide framework for a written analysis of learner activities against measurable outcomes (O'Sullivan & Bruce, 2014: 3) (Section 2.2.2.2). To TIC School C, the CBC was not a good curriculum because it had too many learning areas that made teachers fail to complete the syllabus in each learning cycle. This was in sharp contrast with the rest of the school leaders but nonetheless, it was her perception. Teacher School C said, *personally, I feel it's a good thing because if we get to know exactly what we are supposed to do because some of us are ignorant. So if we get more time, more training maybe it will be a success.* The worthwhileness of the CBC is also acknowledged by Zenda (2022) who asserts that this (CBC) transformation is noble and credible but is being contested due to lack of advocacy on the efficacy of initiative.

Based on the findings that most of the participants agree that the CBC is a worthwhile curriculum reform and one school leader says it is not on the basis of having too many learning areas, the researcher's interpretation is that the perceptions of participants are not aligned. As argued in section 6.2.2, the worthwhileness of the CBC cannot be overridden by the view that it has too many learning areas. Policy makers can find ways to adjust the number of learning areas to be taught but the CBC still remains a worthwhile curriculum.

6.3.2 Parents' role in learners' homework

Based on the perceptions of Principal School E and TIC School B that parents received the CBC well because consultations were done (Section 6.2) they (parents) seem to backtrack on this earlier position from the perceptions of some of the participants. This is in respect of homework and the vocabulary used on the homework given to learners (Teacher School C, Section 5.5.1). According to CIET (1999), parents criticised the old curriculum for its inability to equip learners with practical and entrepreneurial skills to

enable them to do self-help projects. Basing on the perceptions of participants, the researcher is of the view that parents are backtracking on the new curriculum that has been introduced to address their concerns. By complaining to assist their children with homework and CALA projects (Section 3.2.3), parents appear to renege on their parental role of assisting their children's education. However, the literature seemingly supports the position taken by parents. With the way things are happening, parents are conflicted and massively investing time and resources into a curriculum that has sucked them as co-teachers (Zenda 2022). This appears to suggest that the CBC has turned parents into co-teachers, which should not be the case. This researcher's interpretation is that what the literature says about what parents should not do in terms of assisting their children's education and what the parents had earlier on advocated for (from the perceptions of participations), are not aligned. The possible reason for this situation is that the parents are perceived to view the CBC as too advanced for not only their children but also for them (parents) (see Section 6.2.2). As a result, the parents are beginning to think that they are being roped in to play the role of co-teacher. Parents have always been assisting their children with their homework but what makes this CBC homework unique and unpopular is that it asks parents to assist with what they do not know which probably, they did not encounter when they went to school.

Findings also revealed that it was the perception of teachers and some school leaders that schools and teachers were trying their best to implement the CBC against a background of a shortage regarding resources and skilled manpower. However, TIC School C mentioned another challenge of resistance from parents as militating against effective implementation of the CBC. As parents were not participants, the researcher took TIC School C's claim as her own perception. She said that *the CBC is being implemented in schools; the teachers are doing their best(strength), but weakness is of shortage of resources, skilled manpower and inability to curb parents resistance of the CBC evidenced by some learners refusing to recite the National Pledge. Some children don't want to say this pledge and we can tell that this influence is coming from the parents. Some children say that their religion does not allow them to recite the national pledge so as teachers we don't force such children*. The words *and inability to curb parents' resistance of the CBC* cannot be enough evidence of parents' resistance because the children could be refusing to recite the national pledge out of mischief without the knowledge of their parents.

The above perception is, however, backed by some literature of the ecological systems theory, which speaks of the influence of religious beliefs on education. The exosystem level of the ecological systems model illustrates broader societal and cultural beliefs about the purpose, or goals, of education (OECD, 2019). These societal and cultural beliefs, which can vary within countries influence what is taught (content) and how it is taught (pedagogy) (Spring, 2010) (Section 2.6.4). The CBC requires learners to recite the national pledge as it is one of Zimbabwe's several societal ideals and practices MoPSE (2015) but some parents do not want their children to do it because of their religious beliefs. The researcher's interpretation is that the philosophy underpinning the national curriculum and the religious beliefs of some of the parents are not aligned.

This section sought to determine participants' perceptions of the CBC implementation using data generated on their views regarding the worthwhileness of the CBC and their evaluation of the implementation process. Findings revealed that most of the participants agree that the CBC is a noble curriculum reform but one school leader disagreed. Findings also revealed that participants were trying their best to implement the CBC against a background of lack of resources and to some extent, from resistance by parents to the CBC.

6.4 Leadership roles in the CBC implementation

Curriculum leadership roles in the context of this study are as manifested by principals, deputy principals and TICs. These curriculum leadership roles can either be traditional (maintenance) or dynamic and they co-exist (Ogaura & Bossert, 1995; Wiles, 2009) (Section 3.4.2). To be analysed and interpreted first, are findings to do with the extent to which the change in curriculum influenced the leadership role of school leaders and their new leadership roles resulting from the change.

6.4.1 Curriculum change and new leadership roles

Findings revealed that school leaders acknowledged that a change in curriculum does influence their curriculum leadership role *to a large extent because there has been this shift from the old to the new so my practice is bound to be affected* (Principal School E) (Section 5.6). His view was also shared by Principal School C, Principal School D and Deputy Principal School E (Section 5.6). However, Deputy Principal School D and TIC School D felt that there was no change in their curriculum leadership roles because, like TIC School D said, *I don't see much change because it's just a change to the new CBC but everything is in line with our field of teaching. So you remain a leader who continues to do what you have been doing. All you need to do is to see how you can deal with the shortage of things caused by the coming in of the CBC.*

Those participants who acknowledged that a change in curriculum influences their roles went further to cite examples of their new tasks due to the CBC specifications. Principal School D spoke of changing his leadership style when he said, *my leadership style has to change; I don't have to continue using the same leadership style when things have changed. I have to change my leadership style in order to achieve organisational effectiveness and efficiency* (Section 5.6). Although he did not specify the leadership style, the words *in order to achieve organisational effectiveness and efficiency* speak to Mc Gregor's Theory Y, with specific reference to situational leadership style (Section 3.3.2). Effective leadership incorporates elements of both autocratic and democratic leadership styles. The literature has it that the most effective leader adopts the style most productive in a given situation (Kolzow, 2014). Because there is no single leadership style that is ideal or applicable all the time for all situations, situational leadership style came into existence for practice (Tedla *et al*., 2021) (Section 3.3.2). Without referring to a particular leadership style, Principal School E admits that curriculum leadership changes *to a large extent because there has*

been this shift from the old to the new so my practice is bound to be affected. This is in support of what Principal School D said. Principal School C refers more to management roles by alluding to changing from *supervisors to leaders*; implication being that his leadership style changes from that scientific kind of supervision to one that requires *accommodating and working closely with teachers*. This speaks to moving away from the centralised curriculum leadership style to the decentralised leadership style (Law &Wan, 2006).

Other school leaders referred to the following new tasks, which they said were a result of the change in curriculum: being more computer literate, researching more than before and supervising more subjects. Deputy Principal School C summed it up when she said, *as a leader I also have to research more. I will also have to supervise and see whether the teachers are doing the correct thing or they are not doing it. I will need to be more computer literate and have the research skills like we discussed before so that when supervising I know what I will be looking at because as a leader I must have the knowledge of the CBC* (Section 5.6). Principal School C spoke of accepting to change one's role when he said, *you become part of a team, and at one time you are not a leader but instead following someone who knows better than you; we should be able to de-role.*

With some school leaders saying their roles change as a result of a change in curriculum but other leaders saying they do not see their roles changing, the researcher's interpretation is that the views of school leaders do not seem to align on this issue. The researcher's interpretation is based on the literature regarding some school leaders who say their curriculum leadership roles change while others say their roles do not change. The interpretation sees no influence of the background of each of the specific school leaders or their school contexts. Table 5.3 on teaching experience and professional qualifications of participants indicates that the school leaders have more than 15 years of teaching experience, implying that all of them had experienced the old curriculum to be able to make this comparison in curriculum leadership roles. All the schools in this study were in an urban setting, something deemed to have no influence on leadership roles. The researcher's interpretation, therefore, is that the school leaders who said that their leadership roles did not change were thinking in terms of traditional/maintenance responsibilities such as spear-heading textbook adoption, maintaining subject area expertise and reviewing student achievement (Ogaura & Bossert, 1995) (Section 3.4.2). This is confirmed by TIC School D's statement that *you remain a leader who continues to do what you have been doing.*

Those leaders who said their leadership roles do not change did not think of the dynamic responsibilities/tasks such as vision building, tailoring standards and benchmarks to the particular needs of the student population, engaging and communicating with stakeholders and managing the change process (Wiles, 2008) (Section 3.4.2), which are consistent with roles that result from a change in curriculum. However, by saying *all you need to do is to see how you can deal with the shortage of things caused by*

the coming in of the CBC TIC School D was actually speaking to the dynamic role of managing the change process.

6.4.2 Shared/ Distributed leadership

An analysis of the participants' responses revealed that school leaders agreed that they shared their curriculum leadership role with teachers through subject committees (panels) and by letting those teachers with knowledge in a particular area staff develop other teachers. Deputy Principal School E gave an example of when school leaders share their curriculum leadership role when she said; *we have committees because as leaders we won't be able, say during exams to moderate tests that have been set for all learning areas. So that's where those subject committees come in. We will let those committees look into the tests and adjust where necessary*. Principal School D said that he did not share curriculum with teachers, but when he alluded to staff development, it became apparent that he shared that role.

With regard to sharing curriculum leadership through subject committees, both school leaders and teachers agreed that subject committees or panels were there in schools but they were not very effective because *some teachers are not really conversant with the new learning areas* (Principal School C) (Section 5.6). In the past, that is, before introduction of CBC, these subject committees have always been there and functional but were mainly for administration of tests (Deputy Principal School E) and for procurement (Deputy Principal School B) (Section 5.6).

Sharing of the curriculum leadership role with teachers had mixed reactions from teachers. Some said leaders had not done so (Teacher School A) and others said they were in the process of having such (sharing) (Teacher School B) (Section 5.6). However, due to the fact that the same teachers also made reference to subject committees, it can be concluded that at least some school leaders shared their curriculum leadership with teachers. Some teachers went on to highlight advantages of being chairpersons of subject committees as viewed by Teacher School A when she said, *the advantage of being the subject committee chairperson is that you tend to research more on the subjects, research on the teaching methods, the aids to use in delivering those lessons, you have to research if you are made to be the chair of those subject committees. You end up having a lot of knowledge* (Section 5.6).

The literature supports the idea of school leaders sharing their curriculum leadership role with teachers. The whole idea speaks to the democratic leadership style, also known as participative leadership, distributed leadership or shared leadership. It is one in which subordinates are involved in decision-making (Dubrin, 2001). Kolzow (2014) states that the democratic leadership style assumes that the power of leaders is granted by the group they lead and that people can be basically self-directed and creative if they are motivated to do so (Section 3.3.2). In the case of this study, allowing teachers to lead subject committees as well as to staff develop other teachers as projected by the participants, not only makes

them self-directed and creative (Kolzow, 2014) but also *improves their research skills* and *increases their knowledge* (Teacher School A) (Section 5.6).

6.4.3 Enabling self-directedness and creativity

The assertion that people can be basically self-directed and creative if they are motivated to do so (Kolzow, 2014), links to Herzberg motivation/hygiene theory (Haque *et al*., 2014) (Section 3.3.1.2). Motivators or satisfiers are those factors that cause satisfaction at work. These factors motivate by changing the nature of the work and challenge a person to develop their talents and fulfil their potential (Haque *et al*., 2014). In the context of this study, recognition of teachers' efforts to implement the CBC to the best of their ability in the absence of adequate in-service training in the new learning areas, by way of financial or non-financial rewards or incentives, will go a long way in motivating these teachers. Findings revealed that teachers needed to be motivated.

Principal School B suggested how demotivated teachers can be motivated at school level. He said, *the first port of call when you want to motivate teachers who are demotivated, don't have hostile attitude to the teachers, understand their challenges as a human resource manager and then look for possible ways to assist them because you can maybe give them some teas, some lunch or any other additional things, just to motivate them so that they feel that we are together despite that we all don't have the money.* Teacher School B summed it up when he said, *for teachers to be able to implement this CBC they need to be incentivised because the remuneration is very low such that their moral is always low and it affects the implementation of the program.* Similar views about motivation by the principal and teacher from the same school need no critiquing because they were shared by other participants. When she was asked her evaluation of the CBC implementation, Deputy Principal School E touched on motivation when she said, *if the suggestions we are giving are given an ear, I'm sure we will have something better especially provision of resources, motivation of those who are implementing because I don't think those who drafted the new curriculum are more important than the implementer. They have to find common ground with the implementer* (Section 5.5.3). The statement that *they have to find common ground with the implementer* appears to suggest that there are a number of issues that MoPSE (*those who drafted the new curriculum*) need to address, including motivating teachers.

The researcher's interpretation is that what the literature says about shared or distributed leadership aligns with participants' views that school leaders share their curriculum leadership role with teachers. What the literature also says about the need for motivation aligns with what participants say. The need for motivation links with Herzberg's motivation theory (Section 3.3.1.2). Motivators are those that come from intrinsic feelings; they do not dissatisfy if they are not present but, by giving value to these, the satisfaction level of the employees is most probably going to grow (Haque *et al*., 2014). Examples of motivators are salaries equivalent to those salaries of other people in the same industry or geographical area, recognition of a person's status, job security, clean working conditions and sufficient fringe benefits (Haque *et al*., 2014)

(Section 3.3.1.2). As the theory states, these motivators lead to the successful implementation of the CBC if they are available. The role of leadership is, therefore, to know and understand why people behave differently at the workplace and how to manipulate their behaviour so that they exert their best efforts to achieve organisational goals (Haque *et al*., 2014).

6.4.4 Equipping teachers with knowledge and skills

Staff development, alluded to above, speaks to the framework for curriculum implementation (Figure 2.2) under the sub-construct professional development as external support for curriculum (Section 2.5.3). In education, professional development is defined in terms of development of an individual teacher's skills, knowledge and expertise (Caena, 2011), especially learning how to learn and transforming their knowledge into practice (O'Sullivan, 2014). The purpose of professional development in this study is to equip teachers with knowledge and skills needed for implementing the CBC. Staff development, as a curriculum leadership role, is part of professional development, which can occur formally or informally.

The context of professional development in this study is that it is expected to occur formally as a reaction to the demands of curriculum change to competence-based curriculum. Zimbabwean primary school teachers need staff development so that they are abreast with the new teaching and learning methods of CBC. This staff development can be organised at the school level or it can be initiated by ministry through the provinces and districts (mesosystem) (Section 2.6.2).

Findings from the study are that ministry was not doing enough with regrad to staff development for teachers. Only one participant, Teacher School E, claimed that the ministry was completely doing nothing about staff development when she said that *the ministry only gave teachers this work and they stood aside; they are not doing anything, they are not supporting us* (Section 5.6.1). The rest of the participants were of the view the while ministry conducted staff development workshops at the initial stages of the CBC around 2014 or 2015, it (ministry) has been silent all along only to resurface in 2021 to hold workshops on CALA. To confirm the resurfacing of workshops for CALA purposes was Deputy Principal School A who said, *Lately the ministry has not been doing much, but when the programme was introduced, yes there were a number of workshops to conscientise teachers and there was a break until now when teachers are being called for a workshop on continuous assessment and teachers are not well versed on that one too. So it's like the ministry is visible and sometimes it is not visible* (Section 5.6.1).

There were contrasting views on school leaders conducting school-based staff development workshops. School leaders in particular were in agreement that *schools are doing their best with the little resources* as stated by TIC School D. Principal School C felt that schools had no option but to conduct staff development workshops as expressed in these words: *actually schools are trying because the schools being the centre where the learner is, where the action is taking place, schools have no other way except to look around and research and do their own* (Section 5.6.1). The view of Principal School C of schools

being *where the action is taking place* seemingly implies that schools bear the blame for failure of CBC implementation; hence, they *have no other way except to look around and research and do their own*. Principal School C, however, warns school leaders against losing the vision of the CBC as they staff develop teachers without adequate knowledge of the CBC, which they should have obtained after being in-serviced by ministry facilitators. Principal School A supports Principal School C's view of schools having no option when he said *as a school we are doing these workshops on regular basis because we know that the bearing and even the results will be affected if the teachers don't implement this new curriculum very well*.

While most of the school leaders confirmed that schools were conducting staff development workshops in their schools, some teachers disconfirmed this claim, giving reasons for not having these school-based staff development workshops. Teacher School E, for instance said *I think school leaders are not doing enough because they are not conducting these school based workshops.* Teacher School D corroborated with Teacher School E when she said *I think it's not enough. We really need these workshops and staff development if this curriculum is to really take off* (Section 5.6.1). The words *we really need these workshops and staff development* show an element of dire need, a reflection that they were not being adequately staff developed. Possible reasons given for not having enough of these staff development workshops at school level were lack of resources and time (Teachers School C, D and E) (Section 5.6.1). The reasons given by teachers serve as evidence of hindering factors to effective curriculum implementation (OECD, 2019) (Section 2.8). In this section, teachers appear to suggest that school leaders are not creating time for staff development sessions in the school, which speaks to their leadership support.

The contrasting views between school leaders and teachers wherein school leaders are saying they are conducting staff development workshops but some teachers are saying the school leaders are not doing enough show that school leaders' views and teachers' views are not aligned. If school leaders are indeed misrepresenting the facts, one possible reason could be that they do not want to be seen to be reneging on one of their major roles, according to the findings. However, if claims made in earlier excerpts that both school leaders and teachers lacked knowledge of the CBC (Section 6.2), this could arguably be the main reason why staff development workshops were not being conducted in schools.

In the context of this discussion, supported by what the participants said, failure by school leaders to staff develop teachers at school level is a result of poor management by ministry officials (macrosystem leaders) because they are the ones who should first train school leaders on the new reforms, enabling school leaders to further staff develop teachers. This position shows the link between parts of the systems theory, which interacts with each other. The macrosystem level gives inputs to schools (microsystem) in the form of material resources and training school leaders and teachers (Section 2.2.2). Evidence of poor management by ministry is, according to Chapman, Wright and Pascoe (2018), lack of training for both

teachers and principals themselves on new reforms. The researcher's interpretation is that what the literature says about the evidence of poor management by leadership is aligned with what participants said in relation to the role being played by MoPSE in staff developing teachers. This could equally apply to school leaders but their poor management is a result of them not having been trained by MoPSE leaders.

The importance of curriculum leadership in providing vision and strategic direction for the school is critical to the overall direction of the school (Leithwood, *et al.,* 2006). In support, Mutekwe (2019) states that it is undeniably true that the school curriculum leaders have key roles to play in the overall institutional culture and direction (Section 3.4.2.1). In this study, the principals are expected to provide their vision of the effective implementation of the new CBC in their schools.

6.4.5 Provision of guidance to teachers

An analysis of the findings revealed that school leaders associated setting direction with giving guidance to teachers. School leaders agreed that it was their curriculum leadership role to guide as they were unfamiliar with the CBC. Principal School A said, *we are leading a person who is direction-less, a person who has not received much training in as much as implementation of this curriculum is concerned. So we are saying we should go the route together. You should be a leader who understands where the facilitator is coming from, the background of the facilitator and then give direction* (Section 5.6.3). By the words *understand the background of the facilitator*; Principal School A seemingly speaks to the framework for curriculum implementation's sub-construct on four indicators to school capacity to support implementation (Section 2.5.2). Teachers' background refers to their beliefs about teaching and learning the curriculum reform. In this context, if teachers do not show commitment to implement the new curriculum, they are unlikely to change their classroom practises (OECD, 2019). The chances of Zimbabwean teachers reacting as stated above are high, considering findings from participants' responses about the negative attitude of the CBC at inception (Section 6.2). It is in such instances that the school leader's curriculum leadership role of setting direction is called for.

Principal School E and TIC School A shared the same view as Principal School A but TIC School A gave her own dimension of guiding when she said, *as a leader you demonstrate how something is done, it becomes easy for your subordinates to do the same. It also requires that the leader be knowledgeable of what needs to be done, or else it will be a problem if you do not have the knowledge because you will lead the teachers astray* (Section 5.6.3). She was supported by Deputy Principal School B who said, *you have to lead by example.* The literature, however, speaks of things that school leaders should take heed of as they provide vision and direction. Key to get the much needed full cooperation and support of the entire teaching staff (Marzano *et al*, 2015) is effective communication of the vision and motivation of teachers to work towards the success of the vision (Section 3.4.2.1). This implies that school leaders should have good communication skills to make teachers embrace their vision and direction as well as being good motivators.

This section analysed findings from participants' views on the extent to which a change in curriculum influenced their curriculum leadership role, their new roles following the curriculum change and also their views on whether they shared their curriculum leadership role with teachers. Findings from three curriculum leadership tasks that emerged from interviews – staff development, motivation and setting direction, were analysed. The researcher provided his interpretation on some issues where there was synergy as well as where there was no alignment.

6.5 Challenges of the CBC implementation

The theme **challenges of the CBC implementation** address the analysis and interpretation of findings on the support for the CBC implementation from schools (microsystem level) and from MoPSE (macrosystem level). The anticipated support is in terms of material and human resources. Findings also revealed challenges related to resistance to the CBC by teachers and parents, lack of the CBC implementation feedback from the monitoring process and the challenge of reconciling the wide syllabus with learning time.

6.5.1 Material and human resources support from schools and MoPSE

All participants – school leaders and teachers, indicated that they had challenges of lack of adequate resources. The resources referred to were material resources such as textbooks, human resources in the form of qualified teachers in the new learning areas and infrastructural resources like computer rooms. School leaders said that the levies they charged learners' parents were not enough to buy everything that is needed for the implementation of the CBC, as confirmed by Deputy Principal School B who said, *you may want to know that the levies that we charge cannot sustain the school for it to buy all the things needed* (Section 5.7.1).

Lack of resources as a challenge of the CBC implementation speaks to the sub-construct School Capacity to Support Implementation (Section 2.5.2). Sabola (2017) argues that poor resources, unavailability of or inadequate resources can limit the performance of even the best of teachers and can undermine learners to focus on learning. This is confirmed by Spreen and Knapezyk (2017) who assert that not enough funding, instructional and technology materials or personnel can weaken implementation efforts.

Based on the above analysis, it can be concluded that all schools in this study had challenges of lack of adequate resources, something that was hindering effective implementation of the CBC in their schools.

6.5.2 Resistance to change by teachers and parents

Findings indicated that there was resistance to the CBC from the participants' perceptions or lived experiences. Some of the issues on resistance by stakeholders were discussed in Section 6.2. An analysis of what was said by both school leaders and teachers suggested that teachers, as implementers and

stakeholders of the CBC, had a negative attitude towards the CBC; hence, they resisted. Teachers' resistance was viewed as unpronounced but observed through action. Principal School E said, *the resistance is latent because you will have to be very careful to notice it. It's not quite obvious. If you ask for record books and some bring and others don't then you know they are resisting because in terms of record keeping, those teachers are not doing what is expected of them.* This view was also shared by Teacher School D who said, *the resistance (by teachers) is not visible, you can only see it, sense it; the way people behave you can sense that there is some form of resistance, but it's not spoken* (Section 5.7.3). Reasons for the resistance by teachers range from lack of knowledge of what to teach (Teacher School D) to resistance, which always comes up with something new (Deputy Principal School B) (Section 5.7.1).

Resistance due to lack of knowledge speaks to the literature on factors that influence teachers' performance, which include teachers' background, training and level of confidence and their commitment to teaching (Sabola, 2017) (Section 2.5.2). By implication, teachers resisted the CBC because they lacked training of teaching the CBC new learning areas and this reduces their confidence. Principal School E's proposed course of action to resistance speaks to the power-coercive theory of change. He said, *true people may resist but we have to look at the bigger picture: what is the intention of the CBC? If we look at the intention of the CBC, we have to enforce it because the intention is to identify the learner's talent and develop it. If the intended outcome of the CBC is good and appreciated by everyone, whether one resists or not, we have to take everyone on board because what we want to achieve is important* (Section 5.7.1). The words *whether one resists or not, we have to enforce it* refer to the power-coercive strategy as an approach to bring about change (Miles, 2002) (Section 3.6.1.3). As this is Principal E's view, it implies that the principal will use his positional power to invoke policies, laws and other legal agreements drawn up by MoPSE to make his teachers comply. Power-coercive strategies are also linked to autocratic leadership styles, implying that there is a strong correlation between autocratic leadership and the power-coercive strategy (Section 3.3.2).

Both school leaders and teachers had experience of resistance from parents. For instance, Principal School B was called by parents who are resistant to the CBC *because they still have that attitude of academic education only, because they still view practical skills as manual work as in the past, so they tend to resist. For example recently some parents were phoning when our learners were doing agriculture. They said, "Why are you taking our learners for agriculture? They are supposed to be in class doing Maths and the like.* This view of parents was contrary to the view of the other parents who advocated for a curriculum that would equip learners with practical, self-reliance and entrepreneurship skills (Section 1.3).

Findings also indicated parents' resistance to the CBC because they thought Christianity had been removed from the curriculum to pave way for other religions. This misconception was shared by some church organisations. Parents and church organisations are part of the exosystem level of the ecological systems model (Section 2.6.4) and their values and beliefs influence what is taught and how it is taught in

schools (Spring, 2010). The researcher's interpretation on the issue of parents' concern of syllabus content that Christianity had been left out is a result of misinformation. The new learning area, Family Religion and Moral Education (FAREME) still offers Christianity and other religions such as Islam and Hinduism. Religious and Moral Education (RME) in the old curriculum dwelt more on Christianity and African Traditional Religion (ATR) so parents thought that the new learning area had removed Christianity from the syllabus. Since parents are part of the exosystem level whose values and beliefs determine the curriculum content and how it is taught as stated above in this section, their resistance could be justified based on what the literature says.

6.5.3 Lack of CBC implementation feedback from monitoring process

Monitoring, as described by Kapsali (2009), is a boundary management procedure in closed systems used to control or avoid unauthorised change in project activities. Monitoring will be understood in this thesis as the policy-analytic method used to produce information about competence-based curriculum implementation (Kapfunde, 2004) (Section 2.5.3). Unlike supervision, monitoring is a tool that decision-makers use to watch progress of implementation plans (Ibid). At school, there are decision-makers in the form of principals, but decision-makers in this context are MoPSE – the macrosystem level. Lack of monitoring by these decision-makers becomes a challenge of the CBC implementation at the microsystem level in the sense that the much needed feedback from ministry in the form of reviewed policies is not given to schools. The feedback MoPSE gets after monitoring is, in other words, input from schools. Decision-makers use this input to review policies and cascade them to schools and this becomes feedback to schools (Section 3.2.3). Without monitoring, it means there is no feedback to schools on how the CBC is being implemented and this becomes a challenge. In the case of the CBC implementation, monitoring would be done by ministry officials such as DSIs and SIs (MoPSE, 2015).

An analysis of the findings indicated that some participants acknowledged that ministry officials sometimes visit schools while others claimed that they have not seen them in a very long time. Principal School D, Teacher School E as well as Deputy Principal School D agreed that there was no monitoring by ministry officials. TIC School D queried that *if they were monitoring they should have seen that Christianity was omitted in the syllabi and that there is some resistance from teachers. In fact if you bring in something new, you should continue to monitor to check if it is effective. Constant monitoring and supervision are needed, but this is not there* (Section 5.7.4). This view appears to support the above argument that lack of monitoring is evidenced by lack of feedback to schools by way of reviewed policies. However, other findings suggest that lack of monitoring was due to the COVID-19 pandemic, which prohibited visiting of schools (Section 5.8.3).

In contrast with other participants, Principal School B said, *they sometimes come but not regularly because since schools are so many they can come maybe once a term per school. So it depends with the availability of resources* (Section 5.7.4). Although Principal School B did not specify which resources, it is

assumed that he could have been referring to unavailability of financial resources to, for instance, buy fuel for vehicles used for field visits or shortage of personnel to visit the many schools in the districts and provinces in the entire country (Section 5.8.3).

From the analysis of the above findings in this section, the researcher's interpretation is that the participants did not agree on what they said in respect of monitoring. Some participants said ministry officials did not come to schools to monitor while others said the officials sometimes came. A number of factors contribute to this lack of synergy in the findings. Considering Deputy Principal School D's argument above, she seemingly is not ruling out school visits but she is claiming that there is no monitoring being done even if visits are done because nothing is coming up in terms of feedback that is needed pertaining to the CBC implementation. This also explains that visits made to schools are probably supervision visits wherein ministry officials come to see how, for instance, teachers conduct their lessons, keep their professional class records and maintain their classroom environments. Deputy Principal School B clarifies the misconception between supervision and monitoring in his own opinion when he said; *it is a challenge because the way ministry supervises schools, according to me, is not ideal because when they come to schools, they come for supervision and not for monitoring. For monitoring, they should not write reports but rather just to come and find out what is going on. When they write a report on every teacher, that's supervision, so that is the slight difference with monitoring. If they come to be shown around to see what is being done, that motivates teachers. But the moment they come for supervision, the first thing they cause is fear in teachers and that is not proper in my opinion.*

6.5.4 Wide syllabus coverage against available time

Findings revealed that one principal and two teachers perceived that time to cover the syllabus was inadequate. Principal School D said *also time could be another challenge. By time I mean we now have more learning areas but time hasn't been adjusted. Time tables are congested. You talk to teachers to say let us teach these subjects after 1pm or 1.30pm. I meet a little bit of resistance from teachers.* Teacher School D in support of her school principal and Teacher School B said, *the syllabus is too wide for these primary learners. We can't compress it to suit this termly structure. Time is not enough to match the syllabus.*

The challenge of inadequate time to cover the syllabus is supported by the literature, which construes it as poor management of schools by leaders. This poor management is evidenced by not enough time allocated to planning for curriculum implementation by teachers (Germenton, 2011) (Section 2.5.2). Allocation of time to curriculum implementation in this instance is not dictated by school leaders because time allocation for each learning area is prescribed in the syllabi and that is not debatable because the syllabus is a policy document. The issue of monitoring discussed above should address this challenge of time if it is picked up or noted by SIs and DSIs during monitoring visits to schools. Section 5.8.4 also addresses this challenge in another dimension not linked to poor management.

This section analysed findings from participants' views on challenges of the CBC implementation. The analysis was of the perceived challenges that emerged from the interviews, namely lack of resources, resistance from stakeholders, lack of monitoring by ministry officials and inadequate time to cover the syllabus.

6.6 Suggestions for leadership during curriculum implementation

Suggestions for leadership during curriculum implementation are intervention strategies that participants felt could be employed by MoPSE to enhance the CBC implementation considering the challenges that the very same participants viewed as hindering effective implementation of the CBC. Findings revealed five strategies that could be adopted by leadership at the macro level as well as leadership at the micro level. The suggestions were targeted at specific challenges that had been raised by the participants in their responses to the question related to challenges that they faced with the CBC implementation.

6.6.1 Bridging the human resources gap

For the challenge of lack of trained teachers to teach the new CBC learning areas, findings revealed that teacher training colleges should train student teachers in line with the CBC. Lack of trained teachers influences leadership practice at the school level because their attention is shifted to ensuring that the practising teachers are staff developed or in-serviced in the new learning areas, something that the school leaders cannot do as well because they do not have adequate knowledge of the CBC. Since schools are not responsible for training teachers, this now becomes a leadership challenge caused by poor management by leadership at the macro level. An analysis of the findings indicated that both school leaders and teachers were in agreement that there should be harmonisation of the teacher education curriculum with the new CBC, which was being taught in schools.

When participants were asked how gaps that had been created by the introduction of the CBC could be bridged, Deputy Principal School B said the *MoPSE and Higher and Tertiary Education (HTE) should work together such that the colleges and the new trainees at colleges are taught about the new curriculum. They are given specific areas such that when they complete their training they are not just general teachers, they are specialised teachers.* The words *MoPSE and Higher and Tertiary Education (HTE) should work together* speak to is expected of MoPSE leaders in respect of ensuring that there are teachers who are trained to teach the CBC learning areas. This further links with systems theory in respect of the interaction between systems levels (sections 2.6 & 3.2). As MoPSE interacts with schools, its role is to provide qualified teachers in the new learning areas. The interaction between MoPSE and MoHTE culminates into trained teachers in the CBC as the outputs. This, therefore, serves as a suggestion for MoPSE that it is expected to play its leadership role of ensuring that there are teachers who are trained to teach the CBC before implementation. The statement about specialised teachers resonates with the literature on harmonisation of teacher education curriculum with school curriculum, which is CBC-oriented.

Chivore (2019) states that the harmonisation framework of teacher education curriculum and the school curriculum is crucial since both curricular are in sync with the competence-based Primary and Secondary school curriculum (Section 2.10.1).

To prove that there is no systematic progression from school to post-school education, which takes into consideration changes between MoPSE and the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education (MoHTE), Principal School C said that *there is no link between MoPSE and Tertiary Education Ministry which trains teachers because when a teacher is coming from college and you ask them to do VPA, and they say "We don't know". what does that mean then? Really there's no link* (Section 5.8.1.1). This statement also confirms that by the year 2021, when the interviews were conducted, the situation was still as before that teachers colleges had not started deploying teachers who had been trained in line with the CBC. It was five years after the CBC had been introduced in 2017, implying that leadership at the macro level was not doing enough to address the gap. This implication speaks to lessons learnt about the CBC from other countries (Section 2.3.2). It was observed that in some African countries that had adopted the CBC, teacher training was badly organised.

The researcher's interpretation from the above analysis is that participants expected teacher colleges to have started training student teachers in line with the CBC, but this had not started by the time this study was conducted – an indication of poor planning by the curriculum designers, as Gauthier (2013) asserts. It can be concluded that there is a synergy between what has been observed in the literature and the situation regarding the training of teachers in Zimbabwe.

6.6.2 On the job training for CBC

An analysis of the findings indicated that in-service of practising teachers was necessary if they are expected to be *able to deal with those areas of the CBC that might be presenting a challenge to them* (Principal School C) (Section 5.9.1.2). The way some of the participants related how this in-service training could be conducted revealed their experiences of previous in-service training programmes. Principal School A said, *I remember in the early 1980s, a lot of teachers were in-serviced. These programmes are very necessary when it comes to this new curriculum.* In support of Principal School A, Deputy Principal School E went further to suggest when this in-service training could be conducted from her past experience. She said, *MoPSE needs to bring back that in-service whereby teachers are given the chance during the holidays to go and learn in terms of those new learning areas which they are not well versed in* (Section 5.8.1.2). The implication of what these participants said is that they perceived the need for in-service training as the same thing happened in the past and they experienced how beneficial it is. Lack of this in-service training has a negative impact on the effective implementation of the CBC.

What was also apparent from the findings was that in-service training was the responsibility of MoPSE through its districts and provinces, which, according to OECD (2019), resemble local education agencies

in that hierarchical order (Figure 2.6). Most participants indicated this position, with Teacher School E saying, *teachers should be in-serviced, supervised so that they don't get lost. The ministry should sponsor the in-service training of teachers, provide enough resources.* TIC School C also said, *MoPSE maybe should send teachers for in-service training.* As stated above, districts and provinces are local education agencies of the mesosystem level of the ecological systems model observed to be responsible for organising such training for teachers to enact curriculum (Section 2.6.2).

TIC School A commented how she went out of her way to have in-service training at her own expense. She said *we need some training. I went to Morgan Zintec College at my expense for a short course (6 months) on these new learning areas at ECD level. That is when I began to realise what is wanted in, for example, VPA at ECD.* TIC School A's revelation appears to contradict the above notion that teacher's colleges had not started training student teachers in line with the CBC. The researcher questions how this teacher's college could conduct short courses for non-students yet students deployed from the same college were not abreast with the new CBC learning areas. As this is an isolated case that is revealed by this participant, the assumption could be that the college was on a pilot exercise before embarking on full-scale training.

6.6.3 Sourcing material resources

An analysis of the findings indicated that leadership at both the school level and ministry level should source for materials and provide schools so that teachers can use them in the implementation of the CBC. The literature is abound with indications that lack of resources hinders curriculum implementation, as discussed in Section 6.5 on challenges for the CBC implementation. The findings indicated that school leaders should not rely on ministry because some participants expressed pessimism that ministry would be able to do it satisfactorily.

To show this pessimism Principal School D said, *I don't see resources coming from ministry; rather if we could talk of schools providing adequate resources, yes that could make sense* (Section 5.8.1.3). In support, TIC School D said, *for material resources, schools can struggle to source, but human resources need the ministry.* The words *schools can struggle to source* indicate an element of straining oneself to do something. While school leaders solicit for resources from parents through their SDCs (Section 2.5.3), provision of these resources or funds to buy the resources depends on the situated contexts of the individual schools (Marishane, 2020). The view of schools struggling to source speaks to the notion of situated contexts wherein some schools are situated in areas where the parents are poor and cannot afford to pay fees that are enough to buy the required resources.

The above narration is the reason why some participants suggest that ministry should source for material resources to give to schools for effective implementation of the CBC. Principal School A said, *I think the parent ministry should try and outsource these materials, invite interested stakeholders, NGOs, so that*

they can fully equip the schools. If that is done the role of a leader becomes much easier (Section 5.8.1.3). By parent ministry, the principal referred to MoPSE. While Principal School A talks of outsourcing from interested stakeholders and NGOs, Principal School C talks of liaising with Finance Ministry. He said, *I don't want to say the ministry is not doing much, but while they cry of having no financial muscle currently, they should liaise with the Finance Ministry for funds and make the resources available because we need assistance from the Curriculum Development Unity (CDU)* (Section 5.8.1.3). The words *I don't want to say the ministry is not doing much,* can be interpreted to mean that the ministry is not doing much to provide resources because the participant only does not want to say it and also because the ministry is crying *of having no financial muscle*. Deputy Principal School B strongly suggested that ministry should take responsibility of provision of resources when he said, *the government, as matter of urgency, should support schools in acquiring the relevant teaching and learning materials* (Section 5.8.1.3).

Teacher School B's perception that ministry should equitably distribute resources so that there is no disparity between urban and rural schools is valid to a considerable extent. She said, *there is inadequacy of resources. These should be availed to every community and school such that it should not show a gap between those from the urban set up and rural set up. If this is not addressed we will be seem to be writing two different exams at the end of the course because of the disparity between urban and rural* (Section 5.8.1.3). While Teacher School B's argument is valid, rural schools tend to lag behind because of their setting (Marishane, 2020) (Section 2.5.3) and worse still, when ministry is said to *cry of having no financial muscle currently* (Principal School C) (Section 5.8.1.3). Although NGOs were viewed to support rural schools more than urban schools (Section 6.1) is unlikely that they can afford to provide everything considering the number of schools in rural areas.

The researcher's interpretation is that there is no synergy on who should provide material resources to schools. Some participants said it should be the schools that provide because the ministry lacks the capacity to do so, while other participants said the ministry should provide by outsourcing from stakeholders or liaising with the Ministry of Finance. However, it can be concluded that both school leaders and MoPSE leadership should strive to provide the necessary resources, although ministry should take the lead and then schools come in with supplements.

6.6.4 Consideration of teachers' welfare

The issue of motivation, which was discussed at length in Section 6.4, surfaced again when participants were asked for suggestions that leadership at both school and ministry level could adopt to enhance the CBC implementation. Findings indicated (Section 5.7.2) that teachers needed to be motivated so that they will be willing to work. Although most participants referred to motivation without actually saying how, the researcher interpreted that to mean better salaries. Deputy Principal School D spoke for the other participants when she said, *There has to be teacher motivation; the facilitators should be motivated. While I'm a leader, I'm also a teacher so I must also be motivated through better remuneration* (Section 5.8.1.4).

Deputy Principal School B took motivation of teachers as a top priority when he said; *Number one strategy is that they should motivate the teachers because right now, they are very demotivated. If they motivate the teachers, they will be willing to teach.*

The pronoun “they” used by Deputy Principal School B does not clearly indicate who are referred to since both school leaders and MoPSE are expected to motivate teachers one way or the other. However, if it is taken in the context of Deputy Principal School D, it can be argued that the pronoun “they” refers to MoPSE because they are the employers who remunerate teachers. This is, however, not to suggest that school leaders should not motivate their teachers. As discussed in Section 6.4 on leadership roles, school leaders have their own ways of motivating teachers at school level.

6.6.5 Role players’ involvement in CBC decision-making

The suggestion that MoPSE should consult with stakeholders before and during curriculum implementation was dealt with in detail in Section 6.2. The perceived lack of consultation with stakeholders such as teachers and parents was cause for the negative attitude towards the CBC at inception. To show the importance of consultation with stakeholders, Principal School B said, *the first one is consultation; there is need for consultation widely so that everyone is part of it.* By “first one” Principal School B was referring to the first suggestion or intervention strategy MoPSE could adopt to enhance the CBC implementation. In support of Principal School B’s view, Principal School C said, *I want to believe the most important one is consultation. Consult the grassroots before implementing.*

While Deputy Principal School B said that motivation is the number one intervention strategy that leadership should consider adopting, Principal School B and Principal School C said that the first consideration should be consultation with stakeholders. The researcher interprets this to mean that motivation and consultation top the rank of suggestions for leadership during the CBC implementation. This is so because if teachers are motivated they are willing to work and if they are consulted, especially at design stage, they are likely to implement the CBC effectively because they have a sense of ownership of the reform and they participated in its creation (Section 6.2.5).

6.7 Summary

This chapter analysed and interpreted school leaders and teachers’ experiences of the CBC implementation, participants’ perceptions of the CBC implementation, leadership roles in the CBC implementation, challenges of the CBC implementation and suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform. In the analysis and interpretation, special attention was given to empirical similarities and contrasts in the themes as well as similarities and contrasts in the views of participants. As this study was informed by ideas based on the systems theory, the chapter showed theory synergy and/or divides with findings from the study. The next chapter looks at the summary, conclusions and recommendations of the study.

CHAPTER 7 SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

7.1 Introduction

Chapter 7 presents a summary of the study from the main findings. Conclusions from the findings are also presented. The chapter goes further to provide recommendations and propositions for the way forward.

7.2 Summary

The purpose of this study was twofold; first, it was meant to explore the experiences of Zimbabwean primary school leaders and teachers of the implementation of the CBC. Secondly, the study sought to provide suggestions for leadership during curriculum implementation.

Chapter 1 presented the orientation of the study and it commenced by presenting concept clarification of key terms used in the study, which was followed by a presentation of the background to this study. The chapter further presented the statement of the problem, research questions and aims. It also looked at the research design and methodology employed in this study. Presented under this research design and methodology heading were the research paradigm, methodology, sample and research environment, data generation methods, data analysis, trustworthiness and validity as well as ethical considerations. Last to be presented was the outline of chapters.

Chapter 2 addressed the CBC meanings, development and implementation by first giving the historical background of the CBC. This entailed identifying its origins and countries that adopted it in the Americas, Oceania, Europe and in Africa. The discussion then centred on Zimbabwe's historical context of the CBC as it is the country under research. In the process, characteristics of the CBC were outlined in the Zimbabwean context vis-à-vis other countries, which adopted it. Curriculum implementation as a key term in the research topic was discussed. First, curriculum implementation was discussed using a curriculum framework adapted from Rogan and Aldous (2005). The three main constructs of this framework, namely

school capacity to support implementation, external support for implementation and profile of implementation, were unpacked. Reference was made to the policy document for curriculum implementation to show the link between the adopted framework by Rogan and Aldous (2005) and what is contained in the Curriculum Framework for Primary and Secondary Education (CFPSE) policy document. This chapter applied Rogan and Aldous' curriculum implementation framework, which is underpinned by Bronfenbrenner's ecological systems theory. The ecological systems theory was observed to be pertinent to this study because it shows how the various levels interact with each other in the implementation process of the CBC.

The other theory used in this chapter to explain curriculum implementation is the input and output theory. The chapter also cited studies carried out in other countries in respect of how each level influenced curriculum implementation. Known similar cases in the Zimbabwean context were also cited. The role of hierarchy, power and decision-making in social systems such as schools was presented, according to Romme (2021). The concept of soft power and how it works in CBC implementation was also presented. Gaps and challenges created by the introduction of the CBC were provided and possible solutions to these challenges were suggested.

Chapter 3 provided the systems theory first as the framework of the study because of its link to schools and organisations as systems. Leadership, as a key concept in this study as well as theoretical perspectives related to it, were discussed. The study employed Mc Gregor's theory X and theory Y and adopted autocratic leadership and democratic leadership styles as ideal styles that explain leadership that exists in the education system in Zimbabwe. The duality and overlap between leadership and management in curriculum implementation was analysed to show how complementary these concepts are. This duality and overlap was observed to be one of the challenges for school principals in curriculum implementation. Curriculum leadership, as a domain of leadership styles, was discussed with focus on its related perspectives and curriculum leadership practices expected of school leaders.

In an attempt to provide the literature on research questions, some sections of the chapter discussed school leaders' and teachers' experiences of curriculum implementation and the influence of curriculum change on leadership practices (roles). As this study is on implementation of a new curriculum, the concept of change was discussed with special attention being given to related theories of change, namely rational empirical, normative re-educative and power coercive. Attention was also given to how a change in curriculum influences leadership roles of practising school leaders. Since the organisational structure of the education system in Zimbabwe is bureaucratic, the chapter discussed how bureaucracy characteristics relate to other leadership styles in this curriculum change process. The serious contradiction between bureaucratic characteristics, namely hierarchy, formalisation and centralisation and leadership styles was presented. A combination of bureaucratic practices and other leadership styles should be allowed to co-

exist rather than having a situation whereby bureaucracy is the only model of leadership in the organisations (Peretomode, 2012).

Chapter 4 presented the research design and methodology for this study. It commenced by discussing the philosophical underpinnings of the study, which rest on the philosophical assumptions from ontology and epistemology. Interpretivism, as this research's paradigm, was also discussed. The research practice was informed by the idealist interpretivism paradigm whose aim is to generate idiographic knowledge, descriptions of individuals and unique realities that provide readers a deep understanding of the individual or event of interest. The chapter then presented the qualitative research design, which was followed by issues of research participants, sampling methods as well as the data generation method used.

The chapter presented issues of ethical considerations, trustworthiness and validity. A thematic analysis approach was used to analyse the data. The chapter was concluded by describing how the generated data were organised, transcribed, coded and eventually aggregated into themes and descriptions to answer the major research questions of the study.

Chapter 5 focused on data presentation. It presented the findings of the interviews that indicated experiences of implementing the CBC by Zimbabwean primary school leaders and teachers as well as suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform.

Five schools participated in the study. The schools were located in Mbare/Hatfield District of Harare Metropolitan Province and were selected on the basis of them being primary schools where the new CBC was taught (implemented) since the inception of the curriculum reform in 2017. All the five schools were situated in an urban setting and participants in the interviews were principals, deputy principals, TICs and teachers. These five themes emerged from the data: school leaders' and teachers' experiences of the CBC implementation; school leaders and teachers' perceptions of the CBC implementation; leadership roles in the CBC implementation; challenges of the CBC implementation; and suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform.

The theme *school leaders' and teachers' experiences of the CBC implementation* revealed how school leaders and teachers were experiencing the CBC implementation, including the impact of bureaucracy and hierarchy of Zimbabwe's education system on the CBC implementation.

The theme *participants' perceptions of the CBC implementation* revealed how school leaders and teachers perceived the CBC and its implementation. This included perceptions of the CBC at inception, how its worthwhileness as a curriculum reform was viewed and how the implementation process was evaluated by participants.

The theme *leadership roles in the CBC implementation* revealed the part played by leadership at the micro (school) level and at the macro (national) level in the implementation process of the CBC.

The theme *challenges of the CBC implementation* revealed challenges Zimbabwean primary school principals, deputy principals, TICs and teachers were encountering with the implementation of the CBC.

The last theme, *suggestions for leadership during curriculum* reform, revealed what the participants perceived as measures that can be taken by both school and national leaders to enhance this CBC implementation and other curriculum reforms in general.

Chapter 6 analysed and interpreted school leaders' and teachers' experiences of CBC implementation, participants' perceptions of the CBC implementation, leadership roles in the CBC implementation, challenges of the CBC implementation and suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform. In the analysis and interpretation, special attention was given to empirical similarities and contrasts in the themes as well as similarities and contrasts in the views of participants. As this study was informed by ideas based on the systems theory, the chapter showed theory synergy and/or divides with findings from the study.

7.3 Conclusions: Suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform

The purpose of the study was to establish the experiences of primary school leaders and teachers of implementing competence-based curriculum and to make suggestions for leadership during curriculum implementation. The study was guided by the systems theory, which speaks to interaction of the various systems levels of the education system. The specific context for every school as well as the broader context of Zimbabwe (or similar countries) played an important role in the interpretation and understanding of the experience of the different role players as participants in this research. The role of leadership at both the micro (school) level and at the macro level played a central role in the implementation of the new curriculum. Of interest was to understand from participants how leadership styles influenced interaction between system levels and how they influenced role players in the implementation process. School principals, as leaders at the micro level, have been expected to implement the new curriculum since they are part of the hierarchy and bureaucracy that decided on the new curriculum, even if they do not full-heartedly support or understand the reasons for the new curriculum.

Leadership at the macro level (MoPSE) wanted to make some change in curriculum by introducing the CBC but in the implementation phase, there were some challenges. Some of the challenges had to do with how MoPSE interacted with role players such as school leaders, teachers and parents. The participants felt that there was not sufficient interaction from the planning to the implementation between the macro national level and what was expected to be done at the school and macro level. Other challenges had to do with inadequate material resources and lack of trained teachers in the CBC new learning areas. Participants experienced the implementation of CBC differently – some had positive experiences while others had negative experiences, which can be expected, but the overall impressions were that the participants implemented the new curriculum not so sufficiently because of lack of adequate resources and training as well as because they were obeying orders on something they felt was imposed on them

(Section 5.5.3). Conclusions will thus be made under the following headings: implementation of the CBC, the role of leadership within the implementation of a new curriculum, system influence of role players and evaluation of successful implementation of a new curriculum.

7.3.1 Implementation of the CBC

The sub-heading implementation of the CBC talks to findings that emerged from participants' experiences and perceptions of the implementation process (sections 6.2 and 6.3).This is specific to syllabi content, support for the CBC implementation by parents and NGOs and an evaluation of the overall implementation process.

In respect of the syllabi content of the CBC learning areas (Section 6.2.2), findings indicated that participants experienced that the CBC syllabi content was too advanced for learners, judging by the vocabulary contained in the learning materials that learners were using, such as textbooks. Teachers in particular also got it from parents who actually called them to complain about the homework that learners were given and parents were expected to assist. Because the syllabus content was too advanced, this implies that both learners and teachers had challenges getting the best out of the CBC and this compromised the successful implementation of the curriculum. This was made worse by the fact that the practising teachers had not been in-serviced to teach the CBC new learning areas. The school leadership were called upon to increase staff development meetings on the CBC to address this challenge of the advanced syllabus content.

Although parents observed that the syllabus content for their children was too advanced, findings of the study indicated that they (parents) took active participation in support of the education of their children by way of availing the required resources such as textbooks (Section 6.3.4). However, in terms of education support by external organisations such as NGOs, finding revealed that the case of Zimbabwe was contrary to the widely held view that NGOs give support to poorer countries and dictate terms and conditions of the aid given (Section 2.3.2). Parents and NGOs come into this equation as external education support providers at different levels of the ecological systems model. Parents give external education support at the micro level and, by giving this support, according to findings, it can be concluded that this leads to the successful implementation of the CBC, all things being equal. NGOs on the other hand, give education support at the mesosystem level and this they do in accordance with their laid down terms and conditions (Section 2.3.2).

According to the findings, it can be concluded that the interaction between NGOs and schools is not always equal and is limited to different sections of the education system and in this case it is limited to rural schools. Based on the findings on this Zimbabwean context, this conclusion that interaction between NGOs and schools is not always equal and is limited to different sections of the education system concurs with the literature that NGOs give aid to poorer countries following their laid down terms and conditions.

7.3.2 Curriculum leadership roles

Findings revealed that most of the school leaders experienced that their leadership roles and tasks changed following the change from the old curriculum to the CBC. A distinction between roles and tasks needs to be made in order to come up with a conclusion from the findings. Leadership roles refer to the part played by school leaders in the CBC implementation, such as influencing teachers towards successful CBC implementation, motivating teachers, directing, goal-setting and managing the change process. Leadership tasks, on the other hand, refer to what school leaders do as the play their leadership roles. For instance, school leaders provide teachers with teas and lunches, or approve payment of travel and subsistence allowances (T&S) for teachers who go out of station with learners for various activities. This is done by school leaders as part of their tasks of their motivation role.

Linked to these concepts (tasks and roles) are leadership styles. This now refers to how school leaders play their roles or do their tasks. If, for example, a school leader determines how much T&S is given to teachers without consulting other stakeholders such as the teachers themselves or SDC members, that reflects autocratic leadership style on the part of the leader. If, conversely, the school leader involves teachers in setting the goals for the school, the school leader is viewed as practising the democratic leadership style or participative leadership style in playing his goal-setting role.

Having clarified the differences between tasks and roles, interpretation of the difference in views about change in leadership roles is that those leaders who experienced changes alluded to their new tasks such as being more computer literate, researching more than before and supervising more subjects (Section 6.4.1). From the examples above, it can be argued that those leaders who experienced changes did not refer to leadership roles but were instead referring to leadership tasks. They referred to tasks because, for instance, supervising more subjects is something that school leaders do to ensure that the set goal of successful CBC implementation is achieved. However, the argument by those leaders who saw no change in leadership roles could be justified on the grounds that they did not give examples of the roles so assumption is that they meant the actual roles not tasks.

As leadership roles change, so do the leadership styles practised by school leaders, as stated by some of the school leaders. At the microsystem (school) level, school leaders are in interaction with teachers wherein they practise various leadership styles. Findings revealed that some school leaders admitted that they have to change their leadership style from their usual management roles that talk to autocratic curriculum leadership. By revealing that his leadership style has to change to accommodate and work together with teachers, implication of Principal School C's assertion is to change to the more democratic curriculum leadership style, also known as shared leadership or participative leadership (Section 6.4.2) in which subordinates (teachers) are involved in decision-making of curriculum issues. This was evidenced by findings that teachers were given the opportunity to lead subject committees or panels. The reason for this change was that the CBC was a new curriculum, which required both school leaders and teachers to

work together as equal partners since everything to do with the CBC needs everyone's contribution, regardless of rank. Teachers reacted positively since they had more power in decisions, therefore, were more positive about shared leadership. This resulted in a bid implementation of the new curriculum, specifically in the medium- to long-term. Based on information from the data from this specific context, this shared and participative leadership concurs with the literature that it is a better leadership style than to be more autocratic and to force change.

7.3.3 System influence of role players

The democratic leadership style, referred to in Section 3.3.2.1, is expected from MoPSE when it interacts with school leaders and teachers at the microsystem level. Although the democratic leadership can be expected, the education system still functions in the bureaucratic and hierarchical manner; therefore, participative decision-making outside the school may not happen as expected. Based on the experience of the participants, it seems as if there is more democratic participation in schools with the implementation of the curriculum. The systems theory provides the context in which the CBC needs to be implemented in which the various systems levels are in interaction. Findings indicated that leadership at the macrosystem level was not practising democratic leadership styles, evidenced by participants' experiences that the CBC lacked ownership by implementers at the micro level, resulting in resistance by teachers (Section 6.2.1). The claim of lack of ownership emerged from information from data that indicated a disagreement between participants that consultative meetings were conducted at design stage of the CBC. The reason for this uncertainty of whether or not consultative meetings were held is that there were different levels and kinds of consultation, which is supported by the literature that corroborates that participation at design stage is limited to irregular and informal consultations. The consultation depended seemingly on the person responsible for it in a school or district. This is another potential problem with regard to the implementation, which might have led to the consequent implementation of the new curriculum.

Bureaucracy, which is characterised by hierarchy and decision-making authority, was experienced by participants to influence negatively effective curriculum implementation through its policy that stops learners from being sent home for non-payment of fees (Section 6.2.5). School leaders who violate this policy are charged with insubordination, so the policy is viewed to influence negatively on role players as well as the implementation of the curriculum. The policy seemingly defeats the whole purpose of the CBC by supporting the non-payment of fees by some parents who do not want to meet their obligation of paying fees for their children's education. Payment of fees generates the much needed revenue to buy material resources, which findings revealed are inadequate. The ministry itself is struggling to provide schools with adequate resources but it is found to have policies that impede revenue generation for what it is failing to do. Because findings indicated that there was a policy that bars learners from being sent away from school for non-payment of fees, it can be concluded that the macro or national level has policies that work against the intended curriculum policy, which they initiated.

System influence on role players was also noticed through lack of motivation of teachers (Section 6.4.3). MoPSE as the employer is expected to not only see that the CBC is implemented in accordance with policy guidelines of the CFPSE 2015-2022, but also, among other things, to provide motivators or satisfiers that cause satisfaction at work. Lack or attractive salaries and good working conditions, for instance, result in poor implementation of the CBC. Findings revealed that there was no motivation for teachers and this was a challenge, which impacted negatively on the CBC implementation (Section 6.4.3).

7.3.4 Evaluation of successful implementation of new curriculum

This research sought an evaluation of the overall implementation of the CBC from the experiences and perceptions of participants. Findings revealed that there are many challenges that impede the CBC implementation and a lot still needs to be done to get close to its effective implementation. The challenges that were identified were inadequate materials for teaching and learning, lack of trained teachers in the CBC new learning areas as well as lack of proper in-servicing of practising teachers. Because of these challenges, it can be concluded that the overall impression is that the CBC was not being properly implemented and this concurs with the literature, which states that lack of enough instructional materials or personnel can weaken implementation efforts (Section 6.5.1).

7.3.5 Extent to which research questions and aims were answered

Findings reveal that both the main research question and main goal (aim) were answered/achieved. Subsequently the sub-research research questions and sub-aims were answered. Comments made by the participants, from which the findings were extracted, revealed that they (participants) could account for their actual observations of CBC implementation. This was evidenced by how they spelt out the challenges that they encountered in the implementation process of the CBC. Both school leaders and teachers were able to suggest possible solutions to the challenges that they observed to militate against effective CBC implementation. Although school leaders somehow confused leadership roles with leadership tasks (Section 7.3.2), either way, the school leaders acknowledged that they had a part to play in the CBC implementation. The notion of shared leadership also emerged and school leaders concurred that they shared this role with teachers during the implementation of the CBC.

I RECOMMEND VERY STRONGLY THE FOLLOWING:

- **THAT A SECTION BE INCLUDED WHERE THERE IS A <u>REFLECTION</u> TO WHAT EXTENT THE RESEARCH QUESTUINS WERE ANSWERED/ ACHIEVED, AS WELL AS HOW THE MAIL GOAL AND SUB-GOALS WERE ACHIEVED.**
- **THAT A SECTION BE INCLUDED (½ PAGE TO 1 PAGE) ON WHAT THE ORIGINAL CONTRIBUTION OF THIS STUDY IS.**

7.4 Recommendations

Recommendations for the study are in the following areas: practice, policy and further study.

7.4.1 Recommendations with regard to practice

It is recommended that consultations with stakeholders on curriculum reform should be regular and formal so that it is clear who is responsible for it in the school or district. There should be adequate publicity of these consultative meetings so that some stakeholders do not feel they were left out.

Taking a school as an open system with an external environment (Figure 2.5) from which it takes or receives resources; it is recommended that school leaders maintain good relations with such stakeholders as parents for the much needed support in the CBC implementation. It is good leadership practice to make parents develop confidence and trust in the school leadership by involving them in creating the school visions. The schools that confirmed getting support from parents (Section 6.3.4) must have been practising this because where relations between school leadership and parents are strained, there is very little or no support given for school activities.

It is recommended that NGOs interact with schools on an equal basis because the assumption that urban schools have parents who can afford to support the education of their children may not be true because findings revealed that most schools cannot afford all the material resources that are required for the CBC implementation.

Other recommendations, not for leadership practice but for teaching practice, are that teachers need to change their teacher-centred instructional methods to learner-centred approaches. Learner-centred approaches are embedded in competence-based teaching and learning, which has its roots in constructivism (Section 2.2.2.2). Use of the inquiry-based learning approach, which utilises problem-solving, role-playing and teamwork, for example, is considered appropriate for the development of competences – the main thrust of the CBC.

7.4.2 Recommendations with regard to policy

It is recommended that leadership at the macrosystem level (policy-makers) consider reviewing their communication networks in the Zimbabwean education system that are formal, top-down or one-directional across boundaries within schools, districts, provinces and nationally. The communication networks should allow feedback channels such as schools to give feedback across fluid boundaries within the units (Section 3.2.3). Open communication channels allow for synergy to be present within the education system.

Policy makers are recommended to review policies that stifle successful CBC implementation such as the one that makes it a chargeable offence for a school principal to send learners home to call their parents to

come to school to make a payment plan for paying their fees' arrears. This initiative by school principals to recover fees is taken by ministry to mean sending away learners for non-payment of fees. Reviewing the policy allows school leaders to exercise their decision-making authority in situations that they encounter in their different schools. Threats of charging school leaders for making initiatives to recover money from parents who are not willing to pay fees are demotivating and strip school leaders of decision-making authority.

In order to bridge the human resources gap in CBC implementation (Section 6.6.1), it is a policy recommendation that there should be harmonisation of teacher-education curriculum and schools' CBC, which was introduced in schools. This is something that should have been done well before CBC implementation in 2017. Provision of trained specialist teachers in CBC new learning areas will solve the challenge of lack of these teachers and see an improvement in CBC implementation.

7.4.3 Recommendations with regard to further research

It is recommended that this research be replicated in rural schools where the schools' situated contexts are totally different from those of urban schools. As the study sought to provide suggestions for leadership during curriculum implementation, future research should consider presenting these suggestions in form of leadership model for curriculum implementation in which the candidate shows clear step/phases/levels that school leaders and teachers can follow in implementing new curricula.

With regard to further research, it is recommended that this be carried out on the effectiveness of the CBC on the outputs of the teaching and learning process of the CBC. Further research in this regard will be meant to provide empirical evidence for outcomes of the CBC envisaged by policy-makers as a response to concerns by stakeholders that the old curriculum was producing school graduates who were job-seekers instead of creators of employment. To fill this knowledge gap, it would be interesting to explore how the learners are benefitting from learning the CBC.

7.5 Limitations

The first limitation of the study was to do with the research scope or range. This means that the study was limited to a few primary schools in Harare Metropolitan Province. The few primary schools were in only one (1) of the ten (10) provinces in Zimbabwe. The five (5) schools that participated in the study were sampled from a few schools in one (1) district in Harare Metropolitan Province. Time and financial challenges limited the researcher's selection of a larger sample from which to conduct interviews. Two (2) TICs who withdrew from the study limited the research's pool of data as their participation could have provided valuable information. Another limitation was that one data generation method (interviews) was used. This did not allow for the triangulation of data. However, other methods like focus-groups were not believed to be helpful because of the power hierarchies between the participants – in this regard, one-on-

one interviews were better. Document analysis does not reveal lived experiences of school leaders and teachers as these often provide more technical information such as decisions reached or action plans and lived experience. It was also not possible for the researcher to be at the schools to make observations of the experiences of participants of the implementation process. This being the case, it needs to be emphasised that these limitations do not water down the importance of the study whose findings can be used for further research in different settings of Zimbabwe to enhance the CBC implementation and leadership in schools.

7.6 Original contribution of the study

This study contributes to the production of new knowledge particularly in integrating curriculum leadership literature with systems theory and change. The significance of this dissertation lies within the quest for curriculum implementation within the context of the role of leaders in the curriculum implementation process which makes a positive contribution to the body of knowledge in education as it highlights recommendations for policy, practice and suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform.

The study also adds to the existing body of literature on curriculum implementation by going a step further to focus on the experiences of school leaders in the implementation of a CBC. This makes it a pioneering study in the field of curriculum leadership and the implementation of a new curriculum.

7.7 Conclusion

Chapter 7 presented the summary of the study wherein I discussed what is in each chapter and how that links with each other and the findings. Also presented were the final conclusions derived from the conceptual framework designed to show how the main concepts of the study link with each other. The final conclusion centred on implementation of the CBC from the experiences of school leaders and teachers. The conclusions also centred on issues to do with the curriculum leadership role of school leaders. Lastly, the conclusions centred on systems influence of role players in which the systems theory was discussed in respect of how it relates to leadership roles. The chapter also presented limitations of the study as well as implications of the study, which highlighted the contribution to knowledge made by the study. Finally, the chapter presented recommendations for practice, for policy and for further study.

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APPENDIX A ETHICAL CLEARANCE CERTIFICATE

NORTH-WEST UNIVERSITY
YUNIBESITI YA BOKONE-BOPHIRIMA
NOORDWES-UNIVERSITEIT
POTCHEFSTROOM CAMPUS

Fakulteit Opvoedkunde / Faculty Education
Privaatsak / Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom
Suid-Afrika / South Africa 2520
T: 018 299 4656
F: 086 661 8589
http://www.nwu.ac.za

25 June 2020

To Whom It May Concern

I hereby confirm that the ethics application, as stated below, is approved by the critical readers of the Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education and will be minuted at the meeting on 30 July 2019.

Ethics number: NWU-01205-20-A2

Project head: Prof E Mutekwe

Project team: SJ Nyikdzino (PhD student – 31909140)

Title: The experiences of school leaders in the implementation of the new competence based curriculum: A case study of selected primary schools in Zimbabwe

Extended period: 25 June 2020 – 25 June 2021

Clearance given for only one year. Extension can be requested after a year.

Risk level: Low

Should you have further enquiries in this regard, you are welcome to contact Prof Jako Olivier at 018 285 2078 or by email at Jako.Olivier@nwu.ac.za or Ms Erna Greyling at 018 299 4656 or by email at Erna.Greyling@nwu.ac.za .

Yours sincerely

Prof J Olivier
Chair Edu-REC

APPENDIX B LETTER TO THE PERMANENT SECRETARY IN THE DEPARTMENT OF PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH

All communications should be addressed to "The Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education"
Telephone: 732936
Telegraphic address: "EDUCATION"
Fax: 794505

ZIMBABWE

Reference: C/426/3 Harare
Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education
P.O Box CY 121
Causeway
HARARE

25 February 2020

Sylevester Nyikadzino
North West University
Potchefstroom
South Africa

Re: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT A RESEARCH IN HARARE PROVINCE, MBARE HATFIELD DISTRICT: EASTRIDGE; MOFFAT; ZRP BRAESIDE; DAVID LIVINGSTONE AND WIDDECOMBE PRIMARY SCHOOLS.

Reference is made to your application to visit schools to collect data for research purposes at the above mentioned schools in Harare Province on the research title:

"THE EXPERIENCES OF SCHOOL LEADERS IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE NEW COMPETENCE BASED CURRICULUM: A CASE STUDY OF SELECTED PRIMARY SCHOOLS IN ZIMBABWE."

Permission is hereby granted. However, you are required to liaise with the Provincial Education Director Harare Province, who is responsible for the schools which you want to involve in your research. You should ensure that your research work does not disrupt the normal operations of the schools. Where students are involved, parental consent is required.

You are also required to provide a copy of your final report to the Secretary for Primary and Secondary Education.

MIN. OF PRY. & SEC. EDUCATION
POLICY PLANNING RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT
04 MAR 2020
P.O. BOX CY 121, CAUSEWAY ZIMBABWE

T. Ttabela
SECRETARY FOR PRIMARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION
cc: PED – Harare Province

APPENDIX C LETTER OF CONSENT TO ALL PARTICIPANTS

Mr Sylevester J Nyikadzino

North-West University

Potchefstroom campus

Faculty of Education Sciences

School of Education Studies (Edu-Lead)

Consent: For all participants

Dear Sir/Madam

I am here to ask for your permission to take part in a research entitled: Zimbabwean primary school leaders' and teachers' experiences of implementing competence-based curriculum: Suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform

1. **The purpose of the research** is to explore experiences of primary school leaders and possible difficulties they are facing during the process of implementing Zimbabwe's competence based curriculum for schools.
   The objectives of the research are to:
   - establish how school leaders and teachers were experiencing CBC implementation,
   - establish the roles of leadership in the implementation of a CBC,
   - identify challenges Zimbabwean primary school principals, deputy principals, TICs and teachers are encountering with the implementation of the CBC and
   - propose suggestions that can be made for leadership during the implementation process of a curriculum reform.

   .

2. Participant

I will conduct an individual interview with you.

3. Permission

I am also requesting for your permission to tape record the interview conversation. If you agree, I am humbly requesting you to sign at the end of this letter.

4. Date and Time

The interview dates will be confirmed with you and the interviews are expected to last for about 60 minutes.

5. Location

I will arrange with the school principals for the conducive venues to conduct the interviews. For example: the school principals will be interviewed in their offices. Teachers will be interviewed during lunch hour or after school hours in convenient rooms, conducive for the interview in their schools.

6. Potential risks and discomforts

I do not foresee any possible risks or discomforts through participation in this research.

6.1 Potential benefits to participants

There will be no direct personal benefits to the participants. However, the potential benefits expected from the research are that it possibly may help to improve curriculum implementation in Zimbabwe.

The schools will receive the final report to enable them to use the information for their own school academic improvement.

7. Payment for participation

Participation in this study is on a voluntary basis. There will be no remuneration for the participation in this study.

8. Confidentiality

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study will remain confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. Confidentiality will be maintained by means of anonymity of all participants. The information obtained will be stored in a safe place, to which only the researcher and his supervisors have access to. After seven years of the successful completion of the study, all information will be destroyed.

The interviews will be audio taped, with the consent of the participant. The participant has the right to edit it at any time before the completion of the study. All information will be erased after seven years of successful completion of the research. Names of participants and places will be replaced with pseudonyms (Teacher 1, Principal 1, School A, School B, etc.).

8.1 At no stage will your true identity or that of your school or circuit be used. Participants in the study will be referred to as Principal 1, Teacher 1, etc. Schools will be referred to as School A and School B.

8.2 Any comments made by the participants will be incorporated into the research in the form of a narrative.

8.3 I would like to have your consent to use an audio recording devise which will help me to analyse the data gathered at a later stage. These recordings will only be used for the purpose of extracting the necessary data from our interview. No other person will have access to the recordings.

8.4 You can decline to answer any question (s) at any time or request that the interview be stopped.

8.5 If necessary a follow-up interview will be scheduled once the audio recordings have been transcribed. This will enable you to look at the transcripts to ensure that you agree with it.
Also, to enable the researcher to clarify any statements that might not be clear.

8.6 The final research outputs will be available from Mr Sylevester J Nyikadzion on mobile number 0775 040 892; email: sjnyikadzino@gmail.com

9. Participation and withdrawal

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. The investigator may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

10. Rights of research subjects

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research participant, **contact:**

Prof. Jan Heystek
Prof. Shan Simmons

Work tel. no.: **+27 (018) 299 4762**

E mail: Jan.Heystek@nwu.ac.za
Email : shan.simmonds@nwu.ac.za

Work Address: **Northwest University Faculty of Education Sciences.**

Faculty of Education sciences

School of Professional Studies in Education

Signature of research Participant

The information above was described to *me* by Mr Sylevester J Nyikadzino in *English* and *I am in* command of this language or it was satisfactorily translated to *me*. *I* was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to *my* satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

_____

Name of participant

_____ _____

Signature of participant Date

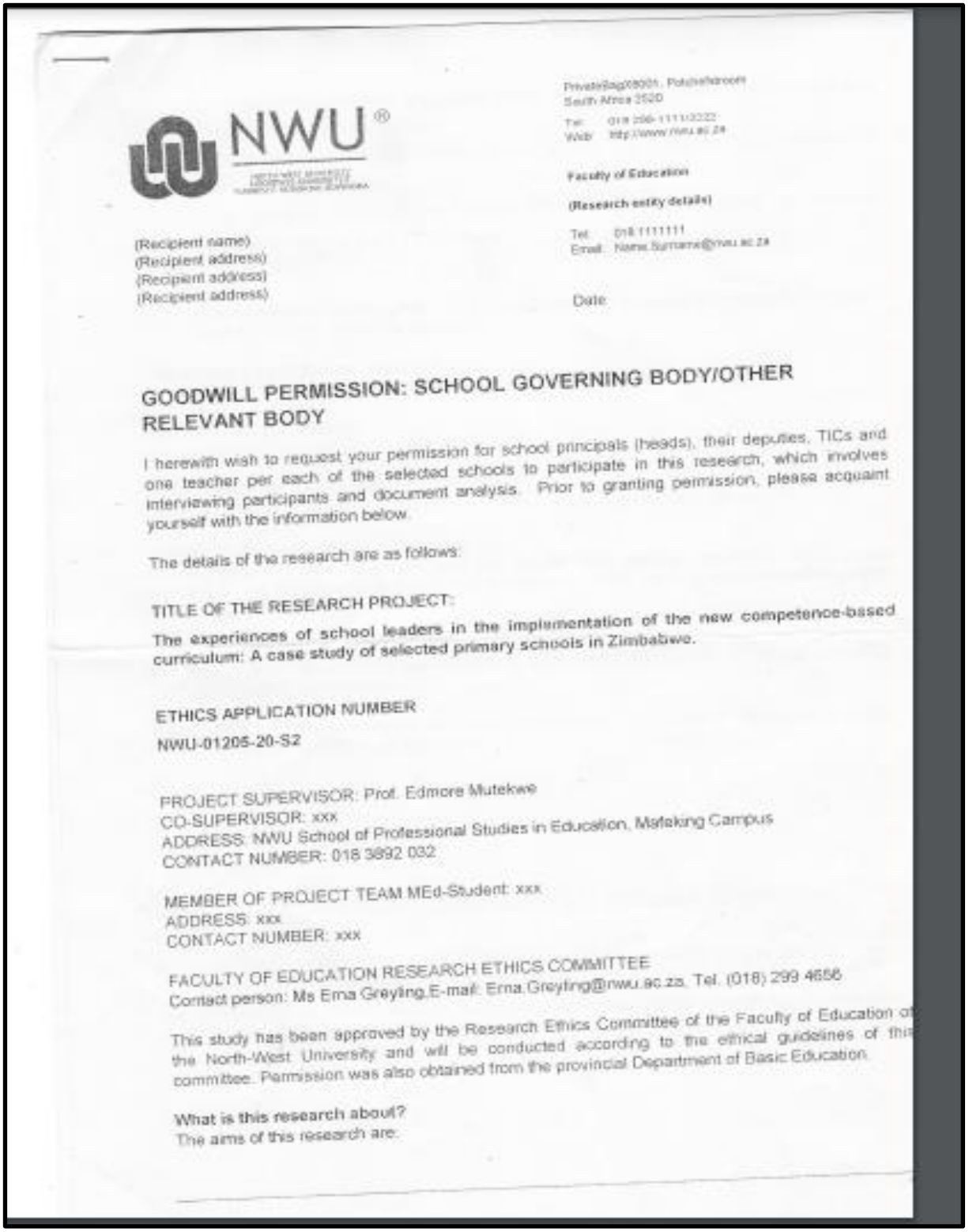
Name of researcher

SYLEVESTER J NYIKADZINO

_____ _____

Signature of researcher Date

APPENDIX D LETTER TO DISTRICT SCHOOLS INSPECTOR OF MBARE/HATFIELD DISTRICT



NWU®

Private Bag X6001, Potchefstroom
South Africa 2520
Tel: 018 299-1111/2222
Web: http://www.nwu.ac.za

Faculty of Education

(Research entity details)

Tel: 018 1111111
Email: Name.Surname@nwu.ac.za

(Recipient name)
(Recipient address)
(Recipient address)
(Recipient address)

Date

GOODWILL PERMISSION: SCHOOL GOVERNING BODY/OTHER RELEVANT BODY

I herewith wish to request your permission for school principals (heads), their deputies, TICs and one teacher per each of the selected schools to participate in this research, which involves interviewing participants and document analysis. Prior to granting permission, please acquaint yourself with the information below.

The details of the research are as follows:

TITLE OF THE RESEARCH PROJECT:

The experiences of school leaders in the implementation of the new competence-based curriculum: A case study of selected primary schools in Zimbabwe.

ETHICS APPLICATION NUMBER

NWU-01205-20-S2

PROJECT SUPERVISOR: Prof. Edmore Mutekwe
CO-SUPERVISOR: xxx
ADDRESS: NWU School of Professional Studies in Education, Mafeking Campus
CONTACT NUMBER: 018 3892 032

MEMBER OF PROJECT TEAM MEd-Student: xxx
ADDRESS: xxx
CONTACT NUMBER: xxx

FACULTY OF EDUCATION RESEARCH ETHICS COMMITTEE
Contact person: Ms Erna Greyling,E-mail: Erna.Greyling@nwu.ac.za, Tel: (018) 299 4656

This study has been approved by the Research Ethics Committee of the Faculty of Education of the North-West University and will be conducted according to the ethical guidelines of this committee. Permission was also obtained from the provincial Department of Basic Education.

What is this research about?
The aims of this research are:

- To explore experiences of primary school leaders in the implementation of the new competence-based curriculum.
- To establish challenges primary school leaders are facing in the implementation process of the new CBC.
- To generate possible interventions the MoPSE could employ to enhance implementation of the CBC in schools.

Participants

- Twenty(20) participants, comprising 5 principals(heads), 5 deputy principals, 5 TICs and 5 teachers will take part in the research.

What is expected of the participants?

To voluntarily take part in the study in which they will be interviewed.

Benefits to the participants

There will be no direct benefits for participants.

Risks involved for participants

That of a potential of minor discomfort or inconvenience resulting from the interview.

Confidentiality and protection of identity

All the information received will be kept with utmost confidentiality (non–disclosure) and that participants and schools identity will remain anonymous during the course of the interviews with me.

Dissemination of findings

The findings of the study will be disseminated to each school, the MoPSE, the Ethics committee and the participants upon request.

If you have any further questions or enquiries regarding your participation in this research, please contact the researchers for more information.

DECLARATION BY SGB CHAIRPERSON/RELEVANT RESPONSIBLE PERSON:

By signing below, I MR. CHINDAVA RESPECT agree to give permission for the research to take place with the identified participants in the study entitled:

The experiences of school leaders in the implementation of the new competence-based curriculum: A case study of selected primary schools in Zimbabwe.

I declare that:

2

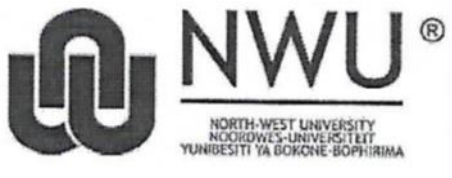
- I have read this information and consent form and understand what is expected of the participants in the research.
- I have had a chance to ask questions to the researcher and all my questions have been adequately answered.
- I understand that taking part in this study is voluntary and participants will not be pressurised to take part.
- Participants may choose to leave the study at any time and will not be penalised or prejudiced in any way.
- Participants may be asked to leave the research process before it is completed, if the researcher feels it is in their best interests, or if they do not follow the research procedures, as agreed to.

Signed at (place) MBARE-HATFIELD DISTRICT on (date) 23 / 06 /2020

Signature of SGB Chairperson/Relevant responsible person

MIN. OF PRY. & SEC. EDUCATION
MBARE/HATFIELD DISTRICT
DISTRICT EDUCATION OFFICER
23 JUN 2020
P.O. BOX CY 1343, CAUSEWAY
ZIMBABWE

APPENDIX E LETTER TO PRINCIPALS REQUESTING PERMISSION TO CONDUCT RESEARCH



Mr SylevesterJ Nyikadzino

North-West University

Potchefstroom campus

Faculty of Education Sciences

School of Education Studies (Edu- lead)

To: The Principal

REQUEST FOR THE PERMISSION TO UNDERTAKE THE RESEARCH AT YOUR SCHOOL

Dear Sir /madam

I am Mr Sylevester J Nyikadzino, a Doctor of Philosophy Degree student in Education Management and Leadership at North-West University in South Africa. As part of my study I am required to write a dissertation in Education Management and Leadership. The main purpose of this study is to explore experiences of primary school leaders and possible difficulties they are facing during the process of implementing Zimbabwe's competence based curriculum for school

My research topic is: Zimbabwean primary school leaders' and teachers' experiences of implementing competence-based curriculum: Suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform
I am hereby requesting for the permission to undertake the research (for the purpose of writing my dissertation) at your school. I need to please interview yourself, your Deputy, your TIC and any one teacher at your school.

This research is not about assessing leadership abilities but about how the leadership are experiencing the implementation of the new curriculum.

I am kindly requesting you to allow me to view documents such as staff development minutes on the new competence based curriculum (CBC) and a few supervision reports on any of your teachers. While the researcher is cognisant of the fact that the requested documents are confidential with classified information, he wishes to give you the assurance that the information will be used for the study only and that there will be no reference to the real author of the report and the teacher on which the report was written. Notes taken from the documents will be shown to you for you to verify in the final report. Like I said the research is not about leadership abilities.

The participants will take part on a voluntary basis and I will explain to them that there will be no remuneration for participation. The issue of confidentiality and their right to withdraw at any stage of the study will be clearly explained to them and that such withdrawal will have no negative consequences. The participants will be requested to complete and sign the consent form before engaging in the research process.

Interviews and document analysis will be used in this study to collect data from the participants. The interviews will not interfere with the school activities. The data will be used for the purpose of the study only and I undertake to ensure that the participants and the schools' identity will not be made public in my final report.

The information to be gathered from this study will contribute towards the improvement of new curriculum implementation in schools in Zimbabwe. The research findings will be disseminated to the Ministry of Education, Province, District and schools that participated in the study.

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact the research personnel:

Principal investigator : Prof Jan Heystek

Cell no. +2774 4660068

Work tel. no.: +27 (018) 389 2032

E mail: EdmoreMutekwe@nwu.ac.za

Work Address: North-West University

Faculty of Education Sciences

School of Education Study

Yours Faithfully

.....

Mr Sylevester J Nyikadzino Date: 28/04/2020

Email: sjnyikadzino@gmail.com

Mobile: +263 775 040 892

Signature of School Principal

The information above was described to *me* by Mr Sylevester J Nyikadzino in *English* and *I am in* command of this language. *I* was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to *my* satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

JANET TOME

Name of School Principal

Signature of School Principal

THE HEAD
BRADDELL R.P. SCHOOL
23 APR 2020
P.O. BOX CR 245, CHAKOMA

29/04/20
Date

Name of researcher **SYLEVESTER J NYIKADZINO**

29/04/2020

Signature of researcher | Date

APPENDIX F INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

INTERVIEW QUESTIONS FOR SCHOOL LEADERS

1. How has the CBC been generally received by learners, teachers and other stakeholders such as parents, from your personal experience?

2. We talked about how other role players received the CBC, but did not ask how you, as a school leader, received it?

3. What are your experiences as a primary school leader of the implementation of the CBC?

4. The new CBC stresses new teaching and learning methods. From your assessment, to what extent are the teachers conversant with these methods? Can you justify your assessment?

5. Are schools and MoPSE doing enough to staff-develop teachers on the CBC? Can you please briefly state how?

6. From your experience, what role is being played by parents, the parent ministry and NGOs to support new CBC implementation?

7. From your experience as a school leader, how do bureaucracy and hierarchy impact CBC implementation?

8. In which areas have gaps been created by introduction of the CBC where capacity development is needed? What about

- human resources?
- material resources?
- knowledge and practice?
- research skills?

9. How can these gaps be bridged by both the MoPSE and you as school curriculum leaders?

10. To what extent does a change in curriculum influence your role as curriculum leader? Can you elaborate?

11. What do you see as your new roles in the implementation of the new CBC as opposed to the old curriculum? What about: staff-development, motivation, setting direction

12. Do you share the curriculum leadership role with teachers? Please explain

13. Would you please describe to me the challenges you think might hinder the effective implementation of the new CBC in your school. What about:

- Lack of resources?
- Inadequate supervision?
- Resistance from stakeholders, eg teachers, learners, parents, church organisations?
- Negative attitude to CBC?
- Lack of monitoring of the implementation process by MoPSE officials?

14. What is your evaluation of the implementation of the new CBC since its inception in 2017 in view of these challenges?

15. What do you consider ideal possible intervention strategies that could be employed by MoPSE to enhance implementation of the new CBC by principals?

INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR TEACHERS

1. How has the CBC been generally received by learners, teachers and other stakeholders such as parents, from your personal experience?

2. Do your school leaders share with you as teachers the role of curriculum leadership? What would be the advantage of you being accorded this role?

3. Do you think you are receiving adequate guidance from your supervisors on implementing the new CBC? Can you cite a few examples of how they are doing it, if any.

4. What instruments do your school leaders use to supervise you during lesson delivery and how effective are the instruments in eliciting information about the new CBC?

5. How effective are subject committees (teacher groupings) in the implementation of the new CBC, if there are any such committees in your school?

6.The new CBC stresses new teaching and learning methods. From your observation are teachers conversant with these new methods? Can you justify your observation

7. Are school leaders and MoPSE doing enough, in your opinion, to staff develop teachers on the new CBC? If no, what could be the reasons? If yes, how are they doing it?

8. Would you please describe to me the challenges you think might hinder the effective implementation of the new CBC in your school. What about:

- Lack of resources?
- Inadequate supervision?
- Resistance from stakeholders, eg teachers, learners, parents, church organisations?
- Negative attitude to CBC?

- Lack of monitoring of the implementation process by MoPSE officials?

9. What is your evaluation of the implementation of the new CBC since its inception in 2017 in view of these challenges?

10. What do you consider ideal possible intervention strategies that could be employed by MoPSE to enhance implementation of the new CBC by principals?

APPENDIX G LANGUAGE EDITING

Linda Scott
Editing Services

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English language editing
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8 November 2022

To whom it may concern

This is to confirm that I, the undersigned, have language edited the **thesis** of

Sylevester J Nyikadzino

for the degree

Doctor Philosophy in Education Management

entitled:

Zimbabwean primary school leaders' and teachers' experiences of implementing competence-based curriculum: Suggestions for leadership during curriculum reform

The responsibility of implementing the recommended language changes rests with the author of the document.

Yours truly,

Linda Scott

APPENDIX H REFERENCES EDITING

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23 November 2022

Technical editing of bibliography and text references

Hereby I declare that I have edited the bibliography and text references of the manuscript of Mr S Nyikadzino.

The final completeness and accuracy remain the responsibility of the candidate.

AGS Coetzee

APPENDIX I TURNITIN REPORT

21072019:Final_thesis_clean_for_submission_30_Nov_2022_...

ORIGINALITY REPORT

12%	11%	3%	6%
SIMILARITY INDEX	INTERNET SOURCES	PUBLICATIONS	STUDENT PAPERS

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