AN ANALYSIS OF THE UNDERLYING FACTORS ACCOUNTING FOR DIFFERENT ACADEMIC ATTAINMENT TRENDS BY LEARNERS IN PRE-INDEPENDENCE AND POST-COLONIAL ESTABLISHED SECONDARY SCHOOLS IN HARARE’S HIGH DENSITY AREAS (2005 – 2010)

By

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Abstract

The major purpose of this study was to find out why learners in secondary schools established after the attainment of independence perform poorly when compared to those in secondary schools established prior to the attainment of independence. Of concern were the schools in the high density areas of Harare including Chitungwiza. O’ level examination results for the period between the year 2005 and 2010 were used as the basis of the research. These were obtained from the records kept at the Harare Provincial Offices of the Ministry of Education, Sports and Culture. The research paradigm was quantitative and the design was a survey carried out in nine schools established prior to attainment of independence and ten schools established after attainment of independence. The major research instruments were questionnaires which the researcher administered in person. This was done after a pilot study had been carried out in two trust schools to test the reliability of the questionnaires. After administering questionnaires and collecting data analysis was done with the application of the Statistical package for Social Sciences. Presentation of data was done in the form of tables, graphs and pie charts. The major issues that arose from the study were that schools established prior to independence enroll into Form 1 learners who have the best results at Grade 7 who they stream according to ability while schools established after attainment of independence enroll last and get those learners with poor results at Grade 7 so they have average and slow learners and this has an impact on O’ level results; The teachers in schools established after attainment of independence perceive their pupils as ‘residue’ or ‘chaff’ left over by the schools established prior to independence and this negatively impacts on the performance of both the learners and the teachers; most schools established prior to independence are well equipped with such infrastructure as libraries and laboratories while most of those established after do not have; Schools established prior to attainment of independence enjoy more autonomy than schools established after attainment of independence; There are more experienced teachers in schools established before attainment of independence than there are in schools established after the attainment of independence. These are the major causes of the discrepancy in terms of performance, attainment and achievement at O’ level. The researcher recommended that the ministry responsible for education in secondary schools, responsible authorities and parents within the vicinity of secondary schools, responsible authorities and parents within the vicinity of secondary schools established after attainment of independence should make some effort to complete the construction of these schools. The completion of these schools will ensure that there are libraries and laboratories which will enhance learner academic performance, attainment and achievement. The researcher also recommended analysis of performance, attainment and achievement. The researcher also recommended analysis of performance, attainment and schools to establish whether or not they produce the required results at Grade 7 to feed into the secondary school system.
Acknowledgements

The researcher would like to express sincere gratitude to all who made the research a success. Special thanks go to Mr. Kativhu, the librarian at the University Of Zimbabwe who rendered a lot of assistance in terms of text book supply and other necessary information. The same applies to the late Doctor Mortma who provided guidance without which the research would have been very difficult to carry out. The same goes, of course, for my special supervisor Professor B.C. Chisaka. He was the driving force behind the completion of this project.

Many thanks also to Dr A.C. Ncube who also provided some valuable guidance. The researcher would as well like to recognize and extend gratitude to the Zimbabwe Open University Higher Degrees Directorate and staff for rendering the necessary assistance which enabled the researcher to go through the programme.

The researcher would also want to extend special thanks to the Harare Provincial Director in the Ministry of Education, Sports, Arts and Culture.

The researcher would also want to thank his family, colleagues and bosses at work for the time they afforded the researcher to carry out the research even when other things needed to be attended to.

Special thanks also goes to all researchers and authors whose work was made reference to in this research.
Dedication

This project is dedicated to the late Doctor Mortma
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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Introduction
In this study the researcher’s intention was to explore reasons for different academic attainment or performance trends by pupils in schools which were constructed and established prior to independence and those established after independence, respectively. The issue to be addressed was to do with why pupils in state controlled secondary schools which were constructed after independence, in 1980, have been producing poor results at ‘O’ Level especially when compared to those in schools which were established prior to independence. This chapter covers issues like background to the study, rationale for the study, statement of the problem, research hypotheses, assumptions of the study, objectives of the study, significance of the study, delimitations and limitations of the study.

1.2. Background to the study
Pupils in schools established after attainment of independence in 1980 independence produce poorer results at O’ level public examinations compared to those students in schools established before independence.

Public examinations are a measurement for educational performance throughout the world. O’ Level public examinations are a measure for academic performance and attainment.
In Zimbabwe the General Certificate of Education (G.C.E. O ` Level) is attained after successfully sitting for and passing Ordinary Level (O` Level) examinations at the end of Form 4. The O` Level examinations are of paramount importance in the sense that pupils cannot proceed to Form 5, which leads to Advanced Level (A` Level), nor be accepted in reputable institutions of further or higher learning if s/he has not passed.

In the Zimbabwean context, the General Certificate of Education, ‘O’ Level, is attained after successfully sitting for and passing Ordinary Level (‘O’ Level) public examinations with a grade ‘C’ or better in five or more subjects, one of which must be English Language.

Nherera (1999), states that in Zimbabwe, weekly or monthly assessment tests as well as internal and end of term / year examinations are widely used but only as part of teaching.

The Nziramasanga Commission (1999:314) also states that weekly or monthly assessment tests as well as internal and end of year examinations are used but only as part of teaching. No matter how well a pupil may have done during the course, except for course work in some practical subjects such as agriculture, woodwork, metalwork, and needlework, their passing mainly depends on their results in O’ Level (general) examinations.

O’ Level is the turning point for better or for worse to most Zimbabweans. The high achievers are likely to proceed with their education and better their lives while the low achievers are likely to have problems securing any occupation considered worthwhile by the Zimbabwean standards. O` Level is a set standard which ought to be accomplished by every pupil before they can proceed to A` Level or vocational training.
By Zimbabwean standards, a pupil is supposed to pass five O’ Level subjects including English Language for them to be considered as having passed O’ Level. It is therefore every learner’s priority to pass five or more subjects including English Language at O’ Level.

The advent of independence came with educational reforms meant to address imbalances that existed because of colonialism. Nherera (1999), states that before independence, the majority of African children were denied access to education throughout the colonial period. According to Nherera (1999), at independence, democratisation of access to education became one of the key priorities of the new government, which, accordingly, embarked on a massive expansion of education facilities. The rate of expansion was high in secondary schools. Nherera adds that in spite of the impressive expansion of educational service provision after independence, issues of access, equity and equality still remain problematic. However on issues of access, the Zimbabwean policy is such that pupils should not be denied access to schools within their vicinity. The problem is ensuring implementation of the policy.

Chivore (1990:570) is of the opinion that Zimbabweans put the policy on education only on paper and never practiced it. Before 1980, the schools in high density areas were referred to as group B schools. Zvobgo, (1986:16), states that former group B schools were characterized by a high pupil-teacher ratio and shortages of important facilities and equipment. He adds that these schools were situated in African townships and facilities were of much inferior quality and less in quantity. At independence more schools were constructed and established to function alongside former group B schools. This implies that there emerged two types of state controlled secondary schools.
Zimbabwe’s Education Act (1987:208) which was revised in 1996 and amended in 2006 outlines and categorically states that it is all children’s fundamental right to be educated. It also states that education must be free and compulsory. This Act was based on the Zimbabwe African National Union, ZANU (PF), manifesto (1980:13) which emphasized, among other things, the orientation of the education system to national goals and the special role of education as a major instrument for social reform. The Act encouraged education for all as part of the education policy. This resulted in the need for the establishment of more secondary schools particularly in high-density areas.

The ZANU (PF) election manifesto, item L (1980:13), stated that it would be government’s major concern to maintain an education system of high quality in respect of both organization and management. The manifesto aimed to provide citizens with equal educational opportunity. There should not be any discrimination.

Cited in the Nziramasanga commission (1999), Mupinga, Burnette, and Redmann, say that Zimbabwe’s education reforms from 1990 to 2001 were more qualitative in nature and focused on the relevance and quality of education and training through new approaches to content, technologies, and skill provision. This research sought to find out why with such a policy in place some schools still underperform, more than three decades after the introduction of the educational reforms.

During the research some factors emerged to be the major contributors to the differences in academic attainment trends by students in schools established prior to and after independence respectively.
1.3. **Rationale for the Study**

Over the years, pupils in state-run secondary schools which were constructed and established prior to independence, that is before 1980, have been producing much better results at O’ Level than their counterparts in schools which were established after independence. Why this is the case was not clear to this researcher and this prompted him to embark on this research.

The implementation of the educational reform resulted in the construction and establishment of more secondary schools throughout Zimbabwe, Harare included. This means that there emerged two types of state controlled secondary schools, namely the old group B school (constructed before independence) and the new group B school (constructed after independence).

The Zimbabwean education ministry adopted a policy of uniform academic and vocational curriculum. The programmes like Education with Production are testimony to this policy. This being the case, it is only sensible to assume that by now, thirty three years after attainment of independence, pupils in state controlled schools should be performing in a similar manner and have similar academic attainment trends at O’ level. This is cognizant of the ZANU (PF) election manifesto item L (1980:12) which stated that, “The state will under a ZANU (PF) government maintain a uniform educational system and abolish the distinction between African education and European education. It will be government’s major concern to maintain an education system of high quality in respect of both organization and content.”

The fact that pupils in state-run schools established after independence underperform when compared to their counterparts in state-run schools established before independence
presents a problem, more so when these schools are found within the same vicinity and
draw their pupils from the same catchment areas and communities.

As alluded to earlier on, a record of results kept at the Harare Provincial Education
Offices and Harare District Education Centres (table 1), shows that a discrepancy exists
by which O’ Level results in schools which were established prior to independence are,
generally and significantly, better than those of pupils in post colonial established
schools. This is notwithstanding the fact that thirty-three years have elapsed since the
attainment of independence in 1980. This is also despite the fact that most of the state-run
schools built after independence were built soon after attainment of independence and,
therefore are over twenty years old and no longer ‘new schools’.

Much has been written on factors that affect pupils’ academic performance, attainment
and achievement. A whole range of factors relating to pupil performance, attainment and
achievement have been outlined by various researchers and authors but not on the
discrepancy existing between the two types of school herein referred to.

A significant number of researchers and authors have outlined and discussed several
factors which impact positively or negatively on pupil performance, attainment and
Mbengegwi (2000), among others have carried out a lot of research and compiled reports
on the colonial and post-colonial education in Zimbabwe.

Elsewhere a lot of research has also been carried out pertaining to sociological factors
affecting student performance and attainment. Authors like Coleman (1966), Cremlin

Factors such as socio economic status, motivation, school effectiveness, environment, academic emphasis, collective efficacy, genetic differences, equality of educational opportunity, meritocracy, school culture, cultural capital, school management, streaming, screening, intelligence quotient, educational facilities, and teachers’ as well as pupils’ discipline, among others, have been cited as some of the major contributory factors to differences in academic achievement by pupils in particular schools.

Despite all the research on student performance and attainment in Zimbabwe and elsewhere, none of the researchers to this researcher’s knowledge, looked into the causes of different academic performance and attainment trends by pupils in schools constructed and established prior to and after Zimbabwe’s attainment of independence in 1980. Neither did anyone of the researchers to this researcher’s knowledge, bother to compare the performances of pupils in the two school types.

A record of results kept at the Harare Provincial Education Offices from the year 2005 to 2010 bears testimony of the fact that pupils in post-colonial established schools perform poorly at ‘O’ Level when compared to their counterparts in schools which were established prior to independence (Table I), hence the need to explore the reasons for the discrepancy.
The schools in question are within basically the same environment, draw their pupils from the same locality, are provided with teachers from the same colleges by the same ministry and are supposed to follow the same curriculum. Despite all these similarities, there is a disparity in terms of performance by their pupils.

It is against this background that the researcher decided to embark on this study.

Table 1.

A Sample Of O’ Level Results Analysis in Harare’s High Density Suburb Schools (2005-2010).

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**Key**

- Category **O** represents schools established prior to independence.

- Category **N** represents schools established after independence. George stark is in the **N** category because prior to independence it was a primary school and was converted to secondary at independence.

- Highfield 2 secondary is also in the **N** category because prior to independence it was an F2 school and at independence became an ordinary secondary school.

- Most of the schools in the **O** category perform better than those in the **N** category.

### 1.4. The problem

Pupils who attend post-colonial established state controlled schools in Harare’s high density areas perform poorly at ‘O’ Level, especially when compared to their counterparts who attend pre-independence established schools.
1.5. **Statement of the Problem**  
Why do pupils in post-colonial established schools perform poorly at O’ Level when compared to their counterparts who attend pre-independence established schools?

1.6. **Hypotheses**  
$H_0$: Results in secondary schools established before independence are similar to those in secondary schools established after independence in Harare’s high density areas.

$H_1$: Results in secondary schools established before independence are different from those in secondary schools established after independence in Harare’s high density areas for a variety of reasons.

1.7. **Assumptions**  
1. To a great extent, parents, teachers, school heads, the government of Zimbabwe and responsible authorities influence pupils’ learning and academic achievement in pre-independence and post-colonial established schools in Harare’s high density areas.

2. Resources found in pre-independence established secondary schools but are not found in post-colonial established secondary schools promote learning and are responsible for the different academic attainment.

3. The learners’ home environments and socio-economic status are responsible for the differences in academic attainment trends in schools which were established prior to independence and those established after the attainment of independence in Harare’s high density areas.
4. Differential educational treatment of learners is responsible for the different academic attainment trends by learners in pre-independence and post-colonial established secondary schools in Harare’s high density areas.

1.8. Objectives of the study
The objectives of the study were:

1. To find out factors which negatively affect pupil learning and achievement in post-colonial established schools and cause them to underperform at O’ Level especially when compared to their counterparts in pre-independence established schools.

2. To establish the extent to which the parents, teachers, school heads, the government of Zimbabwe and responsible authorities influence learning and academic achievement in pre-independence and post-colonial established schools in Harare’s high density areas.

3. To find out what it is that is found in pre-independence established schools which promotes pupils’ learning and achievement at ‘O’ Level but is not found in post-colonial established schools.

4. To identify areas which need attention in post-colonial schools in order to enhance learning and produce better results.

1.9. Significance of the study
This study was important in that it assisted the researcher, as an education practitioner, to establish the reasons for different academic attainment trends by pupils attending pre-independence established secondary schools and those attending post-colonial established secondary schools. It also revealed the present state of the education system and policy.
This could facilitate the implementation of any necessary positive change in the secondary education system.

The study’s intention was to help school heads in post-colonial established secondary schools to identify where their schools lacked when compared to pre-independence established secondary schools. This might lead them to emulating and implementing that which was implemented by their counterparts in the pre-independence established schools, which would raise their pupils’ academic performance and achievement at O’Level.

Teachers in the schools concerned might be assisted in terms of how they carry out instruction in their respective classes should they have a chance to come across this research.

1.10 Delimitation
The research was all about performance by pupils in state-run schools established prior to and after attainment of independence in Harare’s high density areas. Schools in all high density areas of Harare were at the centre of the research. However, actual research was carried out in nineteen schools in three educational districts of Harare province. Because of accessibility issues the researcher visited schools in Glenview-Mufakose district, High-Glen district and the Mbare-Hatfield district. All state run secondary and high schools established prior to and after independence in these districts were visited for the purposes of questionnaire administration and schools heads’ interviews. Junior teachers, senior teachers, heads of departments, deputy school heads and school heads from each school were the respondents of the research.
1.11 **Limitations**

The process of data collection was time consuming and expensive in terms of money and effort. The researcher needed money for transport, lunches and refreshments during the process.

The schools that the researcher visited were found in different suburbs. The schools in each suburb were far apart, so were the suburbs. This presented the researcher with mobility problems such that he had to source a vehicle and fuel for use during data collection. The fuel was expensive to buy.

Some of the subjects were reluctant to respond because nothing monetary or material was on offer so this caused delay in the process. A lot of persuasion was required in this case. Also volunteer respondents were sought with the assistance of school heads. Not every teacher would be approached. Rather, with the assistance of the schools’ administrators, only reliable members of staff were targeted for questionnaire administration.

The researcher was not known to most of the school heads and had to convince them in order for them to allow him access to the school and the required information.

Resistance and reluctance by some of the school heads and their staff members to cooperate and respond to questions was also a limitation. This was overcome by clear explanation of the researcher’s intention and persuasion aided with the letter of authority to carry out research in the schools from the Harare Provincial Education Office.
At one instance, in a case of resistance and reluctance to cooperate, the school head refused to respond to the questionnaires and even went to the extent of influencing his teachers not to respond. Only three members of his staff responded to the questionnaires instead of ten. Nothing could be done except asking for an explanation on the reason for the refusal to cooperate in case this school head had a valid reason. There was no clear explanation so the researcher had to make do with the three completed questionnaires.

1.12 Definition of terms
Like in any other research there are some terms which are peculiar to this research. Below are some of the terms which the researcher made reference to in this study:

1.12.1 Ordinary level (O’ level) examinations
O’ level public examinations are a measure for academic performance and attainment. These are examinations undertaken after successful completion of the ‘O’ level course, normally at the end of a four year secondary school course i.e. Form 4.

O’ level is a set standard which ought to be accomplished by every pupil before they can proceed to A’ level or vocational training.

1.12.2 Academic attainment trend
For the purposes of this study “academic attainment trends” refers to a pattern of performance by ‘O’ level pupils in government or state controlled secondary schools in Harare’s high density areas. This is a situation whereby year after year there has been consistency in the performance at ‘O’ level by students in secondary schools constructed and established prior to and after attainment of independence in Harare’s high density areas. A record of O’ level results kept at the Harare Provincial Education Offices (table 1) is a clear indication of this trend. In this case, those students in the schools established
after independence have a record of poor results at ‘O’ level when compared to their counterparts who attend secondary schools established prior to independence.

1.12.3 Pre-independence established schools
These are state-controlled schools which were established before the attainment of independence in Zimbabwe in 1980. Some of these schools are now very old but produce better results at ‘O’ level than those schools established after independence.

1.12.4 Post-colonial established schools
Zimbabwe got political independence in 1980. Attainment of independence meant that there was need to carry out reform in different sections of society. One of the fundamental and significant reforms was to be educational reform.

The school which was established as a result of independence is what is referred to, in this study, as the post-colonial established school. It is this type of school that this research was concerned with, particularly the fact that pupils in this type of school produce O’ Level results which are poorer than those produced in the school which was established prior to attainment of independence.

1.12.5 Socio-economic status
Socio-economic status refers to the pupil’s background. Some pupils are products of families that belong to high or low strata of society. The social class to which a child belongs may determine that child’s performance and attainment at school. Socio-economic status has an impact on pupil learning and achievement. According to a number of researches carried out elsewhere, most variations in pupil learning are a product of differences in family background.
School effectiveness

School effectiveness refers to the school leadership organisational practices and management of the teacher. These exert influence on pupil performance. Chivore (1994) notes that teacher effectiveness cannot be separated from school effectiveness and that school effectiveness cannot be separated from facilities. To support this fact, Chivore (1994) cites Dove (1986:198) who argues that, common sense suggests that, teachers, however well educated and trained, are rendered less effective if schools lack the basic facilities, equipment and materials necessary for teaching and learning. Dove goes on to say that developing countries are grossly under-resourced. Chivore also argues that for a teacher to be effective, effective schools are also needed. Efficient use of classroom time, the school’s organisational structure, the geography of the different areas, the number and nature of existing schools and tactics adopted by schools combine to determine how much and what sort of competition there is in particular areas. Concepts such as academic emphasis, equality of educational opportunity, school marketisation, education policy, cultural capital, academic optimism and educational opportunity were also discussed in terms of the study and as part of review of related literature.

1.12.7. Cultural capital

Cultural capital includes the knowledge, skills and competencies an individual possesses and their confidence and ability to deploy them. The determinant of the amount of cultural capital an individual possesses is their social class.

1.12.8. School marketisation

School marketisation refers to a situation whereby there is competition by schools in the neighbourhood in terms of attracting potential pupils. Some schools become popular due
to production of good results while others may be unpopular due to a variety of reasons. The popular schools would have created a good name for themselves and therefore when it comes to recruitment of pupils they have a wide choice since parents want their children to learn at such schools. The marketed schools select the pupils with best results into Form one while the unpopular schools have no choice but to enroll the ‘residue’ left by the more popular ones.

1.12.9 Equality of educational opportunity
Equality of educational opportunity refers to chances of getting good and sound education especially within a stratified society. Social democrats advocate for a society in which all children should be accorded equal chances to get educated. Social stratification brings with it social inequalities in terms of social mobility of which access to sound education is a factor of great influence. Equality of educational opportunity or lack of it determines the life chances an individual can have.

1.13. Organisation of chapters
Chapter 1 was the introductory chapter to this research. The following chapter is chapter 2 which covers the review of related literature. The review of related literature comprises the conceptual and theoretical framework. This refers to what other researchers and authors have written on issues related to the research at hand. After the review of related literature there is chapter 3 which is about the methodological procedures which were applied in the process of carrying out the research. This includes the research paradigm and design. After this there is chapter 4 which is about data presentation, analysis and interpretation which discusses collected data and their processing. Chapter 5 is the last and summarises the thesis, concludes and presents the recommendations emanating from the research. Thereafter there are references and appendices.
1.14. Summary

This research was all about a discrepancy that exists between pupils in pre-independence and post-colonial established schools in terms of performance whereby pupils in the former perform better than those in the latter schools at O’ level. After independence in 1980 a lot of reform took place as far as education is concerned. This was done as a way of ensuring equality of educational opportunity to pupils. However, more than thirty years after attainment of independence some discrepancies still exist in terms of pupil performance. Over the years, including the period 2005 to 2010, which is the focus of this study, pupils in schools established prior to independence have been performing much better than their counterparts in schools which were constructed after independence. This is despite the Government’s efforts to come up with and implement educational reform programmes.

This chapter is the first of the five that make up the research. The chapter begins with an introduction to the research and outlines the background to the research as well as the rationale for carrying out the study. The chapter also highlights the statement of the problem, aims of the study, objectives of the study, the research questions, assumptions as well as the significance of the study. Included in the chapter are the delimitation and limitations to the study as well as the organization of the research chapters.
CHAPTER 2
REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1. Introduction
Many scholars, authors and researchers, among them Bowles and Gintis (1976), Coleman (1997), Coleman and Earley (2005), Fuller (1987), Heynneman (1977), Hoy et al (2006), Chivore (1992, 1993, 1994, ),Chisaka (1999,2001,2002,2003,2007,2008,2009), Nherera (1999), Nziramasanga ( 2001), Chung (1988), among others, have outlined several psycho-social factors that impact positively or negatively on student academic performance and achievement. These factors revolve around four main schools of thought which are: (a) the geneticist school of thought (b) the culturalist school of thought (c) the social analysis school of thought and (d) the educational differential school of thought.

Environmental and social factors, policy and management issues are chief among the factors that affect student learning and achievement. Ezewu (1985:275) argues that cultural capital is one of the influential factors in students’ performance. Some of these factors are going to be discussed in the following paragraph.

2.2. Theoretical Framework

2.2.1. Introduction
A theory is a system of generalized statements or propositions about phenomena. They explain and predict phenomena in question and produce testable and therefore falsifiable hypothesis (Giddens 2006). This research was based on such theories as genetics and environment, social stratification, motivation, labeling and stereotyping, social democracy and public choice. This was so since the reasons or causes of the different
academic attainment trends by pupils in schools established prior to and after attainment of independence in Zimbabwe were not known. These theories could perhaps provide the answer to the issue.

2.2.2. Genetics and environment
Amongst the determinants of educational performance and achievement is genetics. Students inherit genes that determine their performance and achievement from their parents. According to Thompson, Detterman and Plomin (2001), genetic and environmental differences contribute to differences in performance and achievement. Cognition and achievement are affected by genetic influences. Cognitive abilities and school achievement are highly correlated. Achievement discrepancies are sometimes due to genetic and environmental influences.

The idea that genetics is an influential factor in educational performance and attainment is the result of the works of 19th century psychologists Francis Galton (1822-1909) and Alfred Binet (1857-1911) who based their work on evolutionary psychologist Charles Darwin (1809-1882)’s theory of evolution. Darwin was the champion of issues to do with heredity and he propounded the theory of heredity which includes passing on of intelligence from parents to children.

Galton and Binet came up with the behavioural genetic principles. Robert Plomin (2004) then introduced the idea that heritability of intelligence begins with the fact that genes are biologically transmitted from biological parents to the child. He also postulated that Intelligence Quotient is affected more by heredity than the environment in the nature versus nurture debate. However, behaviourists and social psychologists such as Watson J.B (1878-1958), Bruner J.S (187-1958), and Skinner B.F (1904), suggested that
performance and attainment are a result of a child’s environment. They are supported by developmental psychologists such as Piaget J. who associate performance and attainment with environmental and developmental influences.

Proponents of the genetic inferiority of lower socio-economic groups maintain that certain groups have low status because they are genetically inferior while social mobility is open to anyone with the requisite talents and that natural endowment is reflected in privilege. Talent is inherited and society rewards genetically inherited privilege. An inevitable assumption follows that it is impossible to boost scholastic achievement, using compensatory educational methods, by more than a small degree, (Jensen, 1969).

According to Haralambos and Holborn (2008), there is a general agreement that intelligence is due to both genetic and environmental influences. Social scientists are of the opinion that Intelligence Quotient is largely inherited and that generally intelligence is inherited. Haralambos and Holborn (2008:626) add that an obvious explanation for differences in educational attainment is the intelligence of the individual. Students who do well at primary level are deemed to be intelligent. Gillborn and Youdell (1997), cited in Haralambos and Holborn (2008), posit that intelligence is inherited and fixed and the differences in educational attainment are seen to result from differences in ability.

Proponents of geneticist school of thought highlight that students from low socio-economic groups who perform poorly in school do so because they lack genetic ability to perform otherwise. Home environment and socio-economic status can impact on student performance and attainment. Dove (1963), as cited in Chivore (1994), argues that there are specific home environmental factors that affect student achievement. These factors
include the parents’ persistent pressure for academic achievement for their children. This is despite the parents’ inability to provide all the necessary resources.

Douglas et al (1964, 1970) quoted in Haralambos and Holborn (2008) found that parental interest and encouragement become increasingly important as a spur to high attainment as children grow older. They also attached importance to the child’s early years, since, in many cases, performance during the first years of schooling is reflected throughout secondary school. They say that encouragement from parents forms the basis for high achievement in the education system. Douglas et al (1964) were supported by Leon Feinstein, (2003), also in Haralambos and Holborn (2008), who claim that the main factor influencing educational attainment was the degree of parental interest and support. They say that class differences in parental support accounted for class differences in educational attainment. He suggested that the positive effects of parental interest operate through motivation, discipline and support. However, sociologists like Sullivan (2001) argue that material factors play a part, independently of culture in determining levels of educational attainment.

Leon Feinstein (2003) also cited in Haralambos and Holborn (2008), were of the view that the main factor influencing educational attainment was parental interest and support. Duncan, Yeung, Brooks-Gunn and Smith (1998) support this view by highlighting that there is considerable research to support the notion that at home, the parenting practices, home environment, and parental involvement with school activities explain the variations in achievement on the basis of family income and parental education.

It is important to note that while genetics influences educational performance and achievement, there are other determinants such as achievement motive, teachers’
characteristics, educational practices, community differences in academic achievement, motivation, luck, discrimination, chance and family encouragement or lack of it. Family, community and school are interdependent in producing academic achievement and social mobility.

2.2.3. Social Stratification
This research is also based on the theory of social stratification. This theory is a possible basis for the different academic attainment trends by pupils in schools established prior to and after attainment of independence.

Social stratification refers to social inequalities that exist between individuals and groups within human societies (Giddens 2006). Advocates of the social stratification theory are functionalists like Auguste Comte (1798-1885), Talcott Parsons (1937), Emile Durkheim (1895), and Davies and Moore (1945) who postulated that social stratification is a functional pre-requisite which brings social order and stability in society. According to the functionalists, social stratification is necessary and inevitable therefore functional to society.

The functionalists who advocated for social stratification were criticized by conflict theorists like Karl Marx (1818-1883), Max Weber (1864-1920) and John Goldthorpe (1887-1969) who thought that social stratification was not good for society. These advocated for an egalitarian society in which all members of society would be equal and have equal opportunities and life chances.

Social stratification results in the existence of social classes, social status and social mobility. Closed social stratification systems do not allow change of class especially upward mobility but would rather maintain status quo. In such cases social status is
mainly ascribed. This means that in societies where there is closed stratification system the disadvantaged will remain disadvantaged. One of the major contributing factors to pupil performance and attainment is socio-economic status which is a result of social stratification.

Social class and socio economic status have an influence on student academic performance and achievement. Many researchers agree that social class and socio economic status top the list of the factors that affect student learning and achievement. Social class and socio economic status determine the type of school that a student attends and the facilities that the student is likely to use. To some extent social class and socio economic status determine the treatment that a student gets from the teachers and fellow students.

2.2.4. Motivation
The motivation theory of learning was propounded by Abraham Maslow supported by others like J.B.Watson. They believed that learning is a result of motivation. This implies that children are motivated to learn by rewards they anticipate getting. They learn for a purpose and would like to satisfy their needs. These could be any that are found within Maslow’s hierarchy which are lower and higher order needs i.e. food, shelter and clothing; safety and security; love and belonging; self esteem and self actualization.

Motivational factors for both the student and teacher are also determinants of student performance and attainment. Motivation or the lack of it could have been one of the factors responsible for the different academic attainment trends at the center of this research.
2.2.5. Social democracy

The advocates for the social democracy theory are people like Marx (1818-83) and Bowles and Gintis (1976). They proposed that children must have equal educational opportunity. This relates to the socio-economic status, social class, home environment, the school type and the facilities found in the school.

Social democrats believe in the need for equality of educational opportunity. They also believe that one way to move towards equal educational opportunity is to target resources on the most disadvantaged members of society. They are also concerned with social justice. Coleman and Earley (2005:85) posit that one of the ambitions of education is that of social justice. In this perspective education helps to redress social and economic inequalities by offering educational opportunities and learning that benefit all, whatever their socio-economic and cultural characteristics. According to Coleman and Earley (2005), it is especially important in this perspective that the education system effectively works towards eliminating the gap between advantaged and disadvantaged families and communities in terms of learning, enriching educational experience and formal qualifications.

Social democrats believe in meritocracy i.e. a society in which a person’s status is achieved on the basis of merit, on their talent and motivation. According to social democrats, for a meritocracy to operate effectively, equality of educational opportunity is essential. They advocate for a comprehensive secondary education system in which there is one type of school for all. The social democrats however, admit that the main barrier to this type of school is social class.
Writers such as Karl Marx (1818-83), Bowles and Gintis (1976), Chisaka (2001, 2002, and 2003), Rikwoski (2005), among others, support the social democratic school of thought and highlight that where there is no equality of educational opportunity, students perform differently at whatever level. According to the social democrats the social class system prevents education from providing equal opportunity for all young people. They suggest two main solutions to the problem of unequal educational opportunity. These are: (a) changing the education system in order to provide all children with an equal chance to succeed and (b) changing the class system by reducing the social inequalities which divide society.

Inequalities in education are seen as part of the evils of capitalist society, and are likely to persist as long as capitalism survives.

Coleman and early (1966), cited in Hoy et al (2006), believe that variations in student performance and achievement are largely a product of differences in family backgrounds which the social democrats feel must be eradicated.

The advocates of opportunity-to-learn standards argue that every student must have equal access to high quality learning by specifying key inputs (per pupil spending, textbooks, teacher training etc) in the form of binding standards. Holding schools and students accountable for performance creates incentives for schools to find out which practices work most effectively (O’Day and Smith 1993).

Bowles and Gintis, (1976), in Haralambos and Holborn (2008), argue that class background is the most important factor influencing levels of attainment. They argued that the education system reproduces inequality by justifying privilege and attributing
poverty to personal failure. They base their argument on an analysis of the relationships between intelligence, educational attainment and occupational rewards. They argue that IQ is a consequence of length of stay of one in the education system.

Giroux (1984), supported Bowles and Gintis (1976), cited by Haralambos and Holborn (2008), by saying that working class pupils are actively involved in shaping their own education. He adds that they draw upon their own cultures in finding ways to respond to schooling and often these responses involve resistance to the school. Bowles and Gintis, in Haralambos and Holborn (2008), believed that class background is the most important factor influencing levels of attainment. They said that the idea that we compete on equal terms is an illusion. They argue that although education can be free and open to all, some have much greater opportunities than others. They add that IQ accounts for only a small part of educational attainment.

Coleman and Earley (2005:85), posit that one of the ambitions of education is that of social justice. In this perspective education helps to redress social and economic inequalities by offering educational opportunities and learning that benefit all, whatever their socio-economic and cultural characteristics. It is especially important in this perspective that the education system effectively works towards eliminating the gap between advantaged and disadvantaged families and communities in terms of learning, enriching educational experience and formal qualifications. This entails educational reform.
Bureaucrats insist in the provision of equality of educational opportunity when, at national or regional level, higher authorities lay down rules and establish targets, evaluation criteria and monitoring arrangements with the aim of ensuring that education is effectively delivered. Coleman and Earley (2005) say that schools have to be coordinated as a sector of society and held accountable. They add that educational institutions are conceived as the point of delivery.

Availability of external support and facilitation, from national authorities, is essential in addressing inequalities and enabling family and community representatives to contribute to improving educational opportunities locally. Martin (1999), in Coleman and Earley (2007), says that parents with children at disadvantaged schools are keen to have greater involvement in the education of their children. Fiscal equilisation measures do not ensure equal education provision in different localities as often the actual decision on how much to spend on local services is left to local political decision-making which may determine the levying of additional local tax to support education.

2.2.6. Public choice and school marketisation

Parents in a society must be able to send their children to schools of their choice. Schools are chosen on the basis of the performance of their pupils. Schools should therefore market themselves.

‘Cream-skimming or creaming’, according to Bartlett and Le grant (1993), in Haralambos and Holborn (2008) is a situation whereby schools want to remain at the top of the league table by selecting those students they see as the most able. This happens in
an open market where consumer choice may sometimes result in provider choice. In this case the student is the consumer and is supposed to choose a school of their choice while the school is the provider and is not expected to ‘choose’ students. This is a form of differential treatment of the students at a school’s disposal.

According to Glatter, as cited in Haralambos and Holborn (2008) where there is a clear hierarchy of schools less successful schools are under-subscribed and it becomes extremely difficult for less successful schools to improve their position in the hierarchy, because of problems such as poor reputation and cuts in their budgets. Glatter adds that the geography of different areas, the number and nature of existing schools, and the tactics adopted by the schools combine to determine how much and what sort of competition there is in particular areas.

According to Haralambos and Holborn (2008:617) open enrolment enables parents to send their children to schools of their choice and this encourages schools to compete and improve their results. However, the parents depend upon the choices available locally. Where there is a clear hierarchy of schools less successful schools are under-subscribed and it becomes extremely difficult for less successful schools to improve their position in the hierarchy, because of problems such as a poor reputation and cuts in their budgets. Thus, competition does not do much to improve standards, particularly for those attending the less popular schools.

Glatter et al, in Haralambos and Holborn (2008), concluded that the geography of different areas, the number and nature of existing schools and the tactics adopted by schools combine to determine how much and what sort of competition there is in
particular areas. In his research Glatter (2004), found out that all parents seek a caring, child-centred focus although some parents want their child’s school to stress a more academic focus.

Good schools are usually associated with good quality teachers who do not like to be associated with failure. Likewise, the quality of teachers at a school, contribute immensely to the performance and achievement by the students at that particular school. Chivore (1994) supports this notion when he posits that given a choice, nobody would like his or her child to be taught by an untrained teacher. This, he says, is a fact in both developed and undeveloped countries. He adds that trained teachers are more effective than untrained teachers.

Brown and Lauder (1997) in Haralambos and Holborn(2008) highlight that new technology and new knowledge are essential for economic success. They add that raising standards in education is key to economic success. Brown and Lauder say that raising standards can be achieved through marketisation which means that educational institutions must be subject to market forces. This involves competition and choice. Schools must compete for customers in a free and open market. This means that a choice of schools must be available to parents. This will improve standards, as parents will send their children to the most successful schools, and schools will now have an incentive to improve their standards in response to consumer demands.
Glatter et al (1997), posit that the geography of different areas, the number and nature of existing schools, and the tactics adopted by schools combine to determine how much and what sort of competition there is in particular areas. Glatter et al (1997), is supported by Trowler (2003), who says that changes in the education system cannot compensate for social inequality on the wider society. As long as social inequality exists it will be reflected in educational attainment. However, whereas intelligence has a role to play in educational attainment, there are other factors like social stratification, which have greater effect.

2.2.7. Labeling and Stereotyping

The labeling theory has it that once a label is attached to a person there is a tendency for them to see themselves in terms of the label and act accordingly. There is a tendency for others to see them in terms of the label and act towards them on this basis. This may result in self-fulfilling prophecy. The self-fulfilling prophecy is such that predictions made by teachers about the future success or failure of students will tend to come true because prediction has been made. The teacher defines the students in a particular way, such as ‘bright’ or dims, according to Haralambos and Holborn (2008). There are schools which are considered as having bright or dim students and they exhibit corresponding results.

Streaming, banding, setting, and mixed ability are some of the factors that influence academic attainment. Schools at which these are practiced experience different academic achievements. School or classroom organization and teaching behaviour can influence both attainment and progress towards social and effective outcomes desired and valued by society, (Coleman and Earley, 2005).
The human being is a social animal with a quest for recognition and association. Interactionists are of the view that a person’s self concept can have a significant effect on their educational attainment. Labeling or stereotyping for whatever, reason may result in high or low performance and achievement by individual students. If students get places to attend a school which is negatively perceived, they tend to behave in a way consistent with the school type. There is a tendency by others to see those labeled students in terms of the label and act towards them on this basis (Haralambos and Holborn 2008:639). In the same vein, the self-fulfilling prophecy also states that the predictions made by the teachers about the future success or failure of students will tend to come true because the prediction has been made. The teachers’ interaction with the students will be influenced by their definitions of the students.

Interactionists argue that a person’s self-concept can have a significant effect on their educational attainment. Typing or labeling of students and their schools has an effect on the students’ performance. Teachers’ perception of the students at their schools will lead to speculation and ultimately certain treatment which has an impact on the students’ ultimate performance.

Some researchers like Leacock (1969) as cited in Bond (1997), say that the reason many low status students fail to achieve in school is that their teachers, consciously or unconsciously, project a basically non supportive attitude towards them. The low expectations held by these teachers create a self-fulfilling prophecy, since students tend to perform according to the expectations held for them. It is not so much the
inadequacies of the students but the indifference with which the students are treated that is responsible for their poor academic performance, (Rist 1977) as cited in Ross and Gray (2006).

2.3.0. Conceptual Framework

2.3.1. Culture and Habitus

Among the determinants of academic attainment and achievement are the school culture and the student’s habitus. Schools and those in control of the same may lay down a set of standards and indicate how those schools must operate. Stakeholders such as the policy makers, parents, the corporate world, the school heads and teachers as well as the affected students may develop some characteristics or culture that affect student performance and achievement.

Sociologists like Sullivan (2001) as cited in Haralambos and Holborn (2008) are of the view that material factors play a part, independently of culture in determining levels of attainment. However, there are some who argue that habitus and cultural capital are influential and useful to educational attainment.

Habitus refers to the dispositions, tastes and expectations of the social group to which individuals belong such as the family and the school. The habitus acquired in the family is the basis of the structuring of the school experiences. Cremlin (1977) cited in Coleman and Earley (2005), says that the relationship between socio-economic status and health and nutrition status is perhaps more striking or rather, more understandable, than the relationship between socio-economic status and achievement. He is supported by Burch and Gussow (1970) cited in Hoy et al (2006), who highlighted that poverty contributes towards educational failure, not simply because children from poor backgrounds are
culturally disadvantaged but because their health and nutritional status is inadequate to allow for the maximum mental development and for the realization of their educational potential. Kremlin (1977) cited in Coleman and Earley (2005), posits that the relationship between socio-economic status and educational attainment is significant. This is supported by Burch and Gussow (1970), cited in Hoy et al (2006), who say that from the moment of their birth, and even before, children from poor backgrounds are at greater risk of deficient development. They add that there are correlations between children’s socio-economic status and their exposure to psychological hazards that are relevant to education.

Socio-economic status also affects students’ performance and achievement in that the social and educational background of parents, maternal care and management, and interest of parents in school progress could all contribute to academic performance.

Researchers such as Douglas (1960) as cited in Fuller (1987) proved that the above factors have an effect on school performance. Burch and Gussow (1970:266) cited in Fuller put an emphasis on socio-economic status’ effect on academic performance and achievement. They intimated that intellectual development does not take place in relation to some artificially isolated segment of the environment (i.e. the verbal, social and cognitive environment) but in relation to the child’s total environment i.e. physical and psychological as well as prenatal and postnatal. Burch and Gussow (1970:266) in Fuller (1987), further state that the greater the importance attached to education as a factor in
social mobility, the greater the attention paid to reasons for, or correlates of educational failure. 

Ball et al (1994), argue that habitus and cultural capital are influential and useful to educational attainment. Bourdieu (1973) in Haralambos and Holborn (2008), even states that the habitus acquired in the family is the basis of the structuring of school experiences. This habitus is strongly influenced by the family’s position in the class structure. Habitus defines a person’s identity (who they are, where they belong and what is appropriate for them). The habitus of families and schools generate different amounts of cultural capital which, in turn, influence students’ choice of higher education institutions.

### 2.3.2. Educational Differential Treatment

Another explanation for the correlation between socio-economic class position and educational achievement revolves around the theory that lower class children receive inferior treatment from the educational establishment, that they are more likely to have inadequately trained teachers, to be placed in overcrowded classrooms, and to have less money spent on their education than are middle-class children.

According to Haralambos and Holborn (2008:639), teachers may expect higher or lower quality of work from the students depending on the student and the school. There are schools which are considered as having bright or dim students and they exhibit corresponding results. Students experience school in different ways. They are treated differently by their teachers, given labels, and often placed in different ability groupings. The students attach different meanings to their education and find a variety of ways to
relate to their experiences. Haralambos and Holborn (2008) add that streaming, banding, setting and mixed ability are some of the factors that influence academic attainment.

2.3.3. Cultural Capital and Academic Optimism
Cultural capital includes the knowledge, skills and competencies an individual possesses and their confidence and ability to deploy them. This is very influential in educational attainment. Class is the key determinant of the amount of cultural capital an individual possesses. Inability to afford school uniforms, school trips, transport to and from school, classroom materials and in some cases, school text books can lead to students being isolated, bullied and stigmatized and as a result they may fall behind in their school work. Low income reduces the likelihood of a computer at home with internet access, a desk, educational toys, books, and space to do homework and a comfortable home. These factors are applicable to students in the different high density secondary schools of Harare. Poverty penalty (i.e. the negative effects of poverty on educational attainment) is not inevitable, but cannot be ignored in this issue.

Cultural capital is vital. Socio-economic status and academic optimism are part of cultural capital. Socio-economic-status and previous achievement are directly related to both academic optimism and student achievement and both make indirect contributions to achievement through academic optimism.

THE THEORETICAL MODEL OF ACADEMIC OPTIMISM

![Diagram showing the relationship between urbanicity, socioeconomic factors, and academic optimism]
The relationship between socio-economic status and health and nutritional status is perhaps more striking, or rather, more understandable, than the relationship between socio-economic status and educational achievement, as has been explored by, among others, Burch and Gussow (1970), cited in Hoy et al (2006).

Source: Fuller (1987)
It is generally accepted that children from lower socio-economic groups do less well in all these areas than do their counterparts from higher socio-economic groups (Floud and Halsey 1957 cited in Hoy et al (2006.)

There is widespread agreement on the existence of socio-economic status – academic achievement correlation. However, Ross (1961:269), cited in Hoy et al (2006), says that there is controversy over the reasons for the correlation.

Rikowski (2005) posits that the development of the education systems can be best understood within a Marxist framework. According to Rikowski (2005), Karl Marx claimed that the higher the development of capitalism, the more institutions of social reproduction become capitalized e.g. education, health and other social services. This leads to business takeover of the education system or institutions. Hatcher (2005), argues that governments control education and will do so for the foreseeable future.

Social democrats support Rikowski (2005). They argue that the state should represent the interests of the population as a whole and ensure equal opportunity since every member of society has an equal chance of becoming successful. Like functionalists, social democrats see education as a means towards equality of opportunity and as essential for economic growth. They, however, argue that inequalities in society can prevent equality of educational opportunity and reduce the effectiveness of education in promoting economic growth.
Willis (1977) recognizes the existence of conflict within the education system and rejects the view that there is any simple, direct relationship between the economy and the way the education system operates. He denies that education is a particularly successful agency of socialization. Instead it can have unintended consequences.

Wilbert and Moore (1967), in Haralambos and Holborn (2008), linked the education system directly with the system of social stratification. They see social stratification as a mechanism for ensuring that the most talented and able members of society are allocated to those positions which are functionally important for society. However, their critics argue that intelligence has little effect upon educational attainment. The influence of social stratification largely prevents the education system from efficiently grading individuals in terms of ability.

Meritocracy is one aspect which social democrats view as important for the education system to be effective. Social democrats believe in a society in which a person’s status is achieved on the basis of merit, on their talent and motivation. For a meritocracy to operate effectively, equality of opportunity is essential. Social democrats advocate for a secondary education system which would promote equality of opportunity. Some advocate for a comprehensive system which is one type of schooling for all. However, the main barrier is social class.

At independence, the Zimbabwean education system was reformed to suit the social democrats’ type of educational advocacy. However, there exist some discrepancies
which cause different academic attainment trends by students in schools established prior to independence and those established after independence.

According to social democrats the social class system prevents education from providing equal opportunity for all young people. The social democrats say that there are two main education systems in order to provide all children with an equal chance to succeed. According to Haralambos and Holborn (2008:613), changes in the educational system have provided greater opportunities, for example, the proportion of young people going on to higher education has increased rapidly. They say that despite this, the class gap in achieving a place in higher education has grown even wider.

Professional development and technical assistance can have greater effects when resources and environment, including favourable class size and qualified teachers are already adequate. According to Childs and Shaft (1986) expenditures that relate directly to instruction have the most positive influence on student achievement. Equally important in predicting student achievement is the socio-economic level of students notwithstanding the provision of equality of educational opportunity.

Nyagura (1991), argues that the shift from elitism to egalitarianism not only suggests that some children have some potential and capabilities, but also underscores the important principle that access to all kinds of educational knowledge should be a right for all. He goes on to say that the rate of acquisition of such knowledge needs not and will never, be identical for all learners. It is the duty of curriculum planners, implementers, and
researchers to create conditions and situations that enable learners to benefit from their educational experiences in the secondary school.

Perhaps Zimbabwe’s education policy is a noble one but does not take care of the discrepancies that exist amongst different kinds of school in the country. Nhundu (1991) highlights that great strides have been made in educational planning in Zimbabwe, and the achievements made are important milestones in the history of the country. However, the implications of some of these remarkable successes deserve closer examination.

According to Trowler (2003), in Haralambos and Holborn (2008), changes in the education system cannot compensate for social inequality in the wider society. As long as social inequality exists it will be reflected in educational attainment.

### 2.3.4. Educational Facilities

Current education reform is designed to produce higher student achievement, and the most controversial topic is the question of how educational resources relate to student achievement. Hanushek (1997) argues that the movement to reform schools is motivated in large measures by economic issues. Childs and Shakeshaft (1986) say that supplies expenditures affect student achievement, especially when such expenditures relate directly to instruction. Rutler (1985) says that the headmasters’ competence in budgeting and accounting for material inputs contributes to students’ performance and achievement. Apart from students’ backgrounds, the school as an institution exerts great influence on students’ academic achievement. This is particularly so with reference to developing countries compared to industrialized countries (Simmons and Alexander 1978). Schools with limited material resources have a strong impact on academic achievement, according
to research by Fuller (1987). This is a possible cause of different academic attainment trends by students in schools established prior to independence and those established after independence. According to the journal on School Effects in the Third World, researchers in the third world remain focused on the effects of material inputs such as textbooks availability or overall school expenditure. Fuller (1987) is of the opinion that a school of even modest quality may significantly influence academic achievement. He adds that in developing countries simple inputs, especially those directly related to the instructional process, are consistently associated with higher achievement.

Among Fuller’s school factors which influence educational achievement in the Third World countries are:

(a) School expenditure i.e.
- Expenditure per student
- Total school expenditure

(b) Specific material input i.e.
- Class size
- School size
- Instructional materials such as texts and reading materials and desks.
- Instructional media e.g. radio.
- School building quality
- Library size and activity
- Science laboratories
• Nutrition and feeding programmes.

Class size affects learning and achievement in the sense that fewer students per teacher will improve the quality of interaction and raise achievement. School size affects learning and achievement in that when a threshold school size is reached, high quality resources will be available, raising achievement. Instructional materials are important in that the greater availability of texts and reading materials will raise the quality of learning activities, increasing achievement. Radio and other instructional media efficiently raise student achievement. Physical facilities are important because better facilities provide more motivating conditions for learning. The presence and active use of a school library will boost reading achievement. The presence of and instructional time spent in laboratories will raise science achievement. Malnutrition will lower student achievement, hence the need for school feeding programmes.

This research sought to establish whether or not the above facilities are present in both the pre and post independence established schools.

2.3.5. Education Policy

Policy, particularly to do with education should favour all children, without fear or favour. It should benefit the majority of the population, and not create discrepancies. Chivore (1993), supports this idea when he highlights that education is an all pervading aspect of human existence; is social and ideological, economic and political, and touches the nerve centre of all sub-groups in any given society. Chivore (1993) adds that education is first and foremost, political action, not only in Zimbabwe but the world over. Those who wield power determine educational policies; and the educational policies they come up with are designed to assist, sustain, maintain and perpetuate the political system.
they will have chosen for the country. This, according to Chivore, is true from the United Kingdom, the United States, the Soviet Union, down to the Republic of Zimbabwe.

Whilst the Zimbabwe government may have been striving to ensure equality of educational opportunity for all children, there could have been an oversight in as far as ensuring that standards in schools established after independence matched those obtaining in those schools constructed before attainment of independence was concerned. As aptly put across by Chivore (1994), Part of the ZANU (PF) manifesto of 1980 advocated for the special role of education as a major instrument for social transformation. He goes on to highlight that it was going to be the government’s major concern to maintain an education system of high quality in respect of both organization and content. Chivore outlined some of the educational priorities of the Zimbabwe government as follows:

- To unify the whole system of education at all levels and in terms of facilities, standards, equipment, teachers etc.

- To design and implement an education system relevant to the needs and aspirations of all Zimbabweans.

- To improve the quality of education by providing stable staff and facilities throughout the country.

The Ministry of Education Handbook (1985) also supported the same idea by stating that some of the government’s principles were the development of adequate human resources in keeping with national development strategies and adaptability to social and technological change.
The expansion of the education sector after attainment of independence did not match the resources allocated to the education sector, especially the schools established thereafter. This is one of the major reasons why the schools established before independence produced and continue to produce better results at O’ Level when compared to those schools established after independence.

Chivore (1992:28-29) cited in Chivore (1994), conceded that for an education system to translate ambitious policies into reality, financial and material resources were needed, and the Zimbabwean Planning Division needed a strong machinery to monitor the success or otherwise of these policies. Chivore (1992, however, says that some authors regard the quality of education as a prerogative of the soundness of the policies on which an education system is based.

Education policy is no doubt one of the reasons behind the differences in educational attainment by students in various schools. Smith, Heinecke and Noble (1999) argue that without providing adequate support and assuring equity in educational resources and opportunities the education policy may widen the achievement gaps by rewarding advantaged, high performing students and their schools and punishing disadvantaged ones. Smith, Heinecke and Noble (1999) further assert that the actual impact of state accountability policies on academic excellence and equity may turn out to be contingent upon the level of support available to schools, teachers and students.

The state-run schools in Harare’s high density areas are controlled by the same policy. Why there should be a discrepancy when it comes to achievement at O’ Level is the reason behind this research.
Cited in Mbengegwi (2001), Mupinga, Burnette and Redman posit that Zimbabwe’s education reforms from 1990 to 2001 were more qualitative in nature and focused on the relevance and quality of education and training through new approaches to content, technologies, and skills provision. They add that the Zimbabwe Education Act (1996), made a commitment to move from quantitative expansion to quality and relevance through the vocationalisation of school curricula. However, Chikomba et al (1986) had a different argument saying that the systems of education inherited by the African nations at the time of independence were not adequate to meet the needs of self governance and rapid economic growth and development.

On education reform, Coleman and Earley (2005:116), say that education reform is top political priority in many countries today. They add that while final policy choices will depend on local context i.e. the developmental level of the education system, as well as political priorities and cultural values, there are some core issues about teaching and learning which transcend context. Evidence suggests that successful reforms depend on three interlocking elements which are:-

- The skills, capacity and commitment of educators within the school and the local system level.

- The enthusiasm and commitment of parents and teachers.

- The ability of politicians to create the right legislative framework.
Whichever way, policy should favour students’ performance at all levels. This research sought to confirm whether or not Zimbabwe’s education policy enhances equality of educational opportunity. It sought to find out whether or not the education policy is responsible for the recurrent differences in educational attainment by the students in pre-independence and post colonial established schools, respectively in Zimbabwe and particularly in Harare’s high density suburbs’ secondary schools.

Coleman and Earley (2005) further posit that getting the policy right is only part of the jig-saw. Reforms fail for a number of reasons. If reforms are to succeed, much needs to be done also to reduce the barriers to learning which prevent many children and young people from benefitting from education. Malnutrition; lack of connection between schools and communities; limited teaching styles; materials and approaches which fail to accommodate mother tongues; strategies which do not recognize that for many children schooling is not continuous but a fragmented process; resources inequalities; and the unwillingness of teachers to be stationed in remote areas are some of the aspects to consider in educational reform. How policy makers try to implement reform is critical to its success. The fact that schools established after independence do not produce as good results as those established prior to independence signifies flaws in policy implementation after attainment of independence.

On massive educational reform, Nhundu (1999), states that critics have pointed out that providing equality of educational opportunity and the concomitant massive expansion have resulted in lowering of educational standards. Government efforts and strategies to
help meet the cost of education have not been highly effective, and in other ways should be investigated.

Although approaches to reform differ between countries and also change within countries over time, reforms are culturally and context specific, shaped by ideology and history and dependent on political, structural, individual as well as social dynamics (Murphy and Adams 1988 cited in Coleman and Earley, 2005).

Other theorists, however, regard the quality of education as mainly concerned with measurement of the effective use of input resources. This is sometimes known as the production function approach. Simply put, according to Chivore (1994), protagonists of this theory believe in that the quality of education is determined by the interactions between intra- and extra-school environments. He also says that there are those who believe that interaction at school level determines the quality of education. Other authors believe that the quality of education can be discerned through the evaluation of the outcomes of the education system.

The fact that students who attend secondary schools which were established before independence perform better than those in schools which were established after independence could be an indicator that the ideology adopted in the country did not match the needs of the country. On this Cowden et al (1986) as cited in Nhundu (1999), posit that educational sector activities and studies in any country are a reflection of that country’s ideological stance. When Zimbabwe achieved independence in 1980, it adopted
socialism as its overall ideology. With regards to the education sector, this policy focused on the need to seriously change the social injustices and imbalances of the past in which a minority group were adequately catered for in terms of educational provision and the other major section was seriously discriminated against. Educational activities and developments were clearly influenced by the new political order.

Murphy and Adams (1988) as cited in Coleman and Earley (2005) suggest that when initiating and implementing reform the following needs to be considered: the patterns of performance and what they reveal; the obstacles making the schools ineffective; the main barriers to learning that are getting in the way of students’ achievements; what is known about the school and teacher effectiveness. Before initiating and implementing reform at independence the Zimbabwean education sector should have taken cognizance of the above. Perhaps the different academic attainment trends obtaining in pre-independence and post colonial established schools, respectively, would not be recurring.

Rutler et al (1979), also cited in Coleman and Earley (2005), were of the highlighted that earlier studies have proven that there are significant differences between schools in students’ achievements even where their intakes were broadly similar. He is supported by Reynolds and Creemers (1990), who say that schools matter and have major effects upon children’s development. Schools make a difference.

Duncan (2004) states that education is a process that seeks to prepare children for the responsibilities of life or a call to specific duty. At the same time, it must prepare citizens to cope with local and global change. He adds that all systems must cope with, and
adjust to change. Cookson (2006) supports this view and highlights that educational reform is an ongoing process that really has no end. He adds that Africa, in particular has made attempts to reform the systems of education it inherited from European colonizers. Zimbabwe is no exception. In a bid to reform the education system, new schools were established soon after independence. These are the schools which, thirty-three years down the line, still do not match those established before independence. This research was concerned with establishing the reasons why the reform seems incomplete and what should be done to bring about equilibrium. Cookson (2006) also says that it is unfortunate that African educational reforms have tended to be incomplete, so that some inconsistency with African cultures and economic and ecological realities prevail. He adds that this is in contrast to Western societies where education is organized so that children can learn from adults, especially teachers. Teachers instruct learners and stimulate their cognition in well organized institutions such as schools.

In Zimbabwe, in general, and Harare in particular, some schools are more in demand than others. Schools which have a record of producing good results are more in demand than those with a record of producing poor results when compared to their counterparts. This observation is supported by the 2012 USAP document on education in Zimbabwe which states that students entering Form 1, usually aged 12-13 years, compete for places in the private and mission, day and boarding secondary schools based on their Grade 7 examination results as well as school-based interviews and placement tests. According to the document, government schools, take students by zone and then allot the rest of the places to those with the best qualifications. In government high schools in the high
density urban townships students are restricted in their options and usually are only afforded the opportunity to take 8 or 9 subjects. This is likely to be contributory to the discrepancies that exist, in terms of results, between pre-independence post colonial established secondary schools in Harare’s high density suburbs.

2.3.6. School Autonomy
State-run schools are controlled by democratic authority and administration (Haralambos and Holborn, 2008). Chubb and Moe, as cited in Haralambos and Holborn (2008), argue that schools have little freedom and autonomy under a public system because they are accountable to a large group of constituents. The government bureaucrats who run the education system also have incentives to expand their budgets, programmes, and administrative controls. These vested interests tend to undermine the autonomy of schools, restricting their ability to respond to the needs and wishes of parents (Haralambos and Holborn 2008).

Public choice theorists view education as a service that can be treated as a commodity whose alternative consumers cannot freely choose. Public theorists like Buchanan and Tullock (1962) in Haralambos and Holborn (2008), say that public services often act as a monopoly: consumers cannot freely choose an alternative provider of free education, health services or refuse collection. Furthermore, because they are publicly funded, the providers cannot go out of business. They have very little incentive to respond to the needs of consumers. Instead, it is the needs of the producers which tend to dominate decision makers for example, education comes to reflect the interests of teachers and the bureaucrats who run the system, rather than the consumers who are the parents and pupils whom the system is intended to benefit.
The school established after independence was meant to benefit parents and students who had been marginalized and disadvantaged for a long period of time. However, the failure by this school to match the standards of the pre-independence school in terms of results is the problem. The bureaucrats have not sufficiently supported and provided for these schools since some of them are still in their infancy as far as their development is concerned. Some are still in the initial phases of construction, for instance some are still in phase one when they are supposed to be in perhaps, phase three or even four.

Public choice theory is of the view that everyone acts according to their own interests. Politicians want votes, teachers and bureaucrats want secure jobs, and it is their interests which become dominant in conventional state education systems. As a result, state expenditure increases, which results in rising taxes. This in turn damages the economy.

According to Chubb and Moe (1997) in Haralambos and Holborn (2008), public schools are controlled by democratic authority and administration. In any public school, a wide range of people can be seen as the constituents and as people who have a legitimate say in how the school should be run. These include local and national politicians and administrators, students, parents and citizens in general, who vote in elections or pay taxes. Public education, according to Chubb and Moe (1997), is not supposed to be responsive simply to the needs of those who use the services of the school; it is intended to serve wider public purposes as determined by politicians.

Schools have little freedom and autonomy under a public system because they are accountable to a large group of constituents. These constituents have their own self-
interests and sometimes these will conflict with the interests and wishes of parents and students. Politicians need to attract support to win elections. The interference by the constituents in school matters sometimes disturbs the smooth flow of activity thereby affecting the ultimate performance by students at O’ Level. According to Haralambos and Holborn (2008), the better organized the interest groups; the more likely they are to influence the government. Generally these groups have a vested interest in maintaining existing educational systems, since change costs them money and might undermine their position in the education system.

The government bureaucrats who run the education system also have incentives to expand their budgets, programmes, and administrative controls. These vested interests tend to undermine the autonomy of schools, restricting their ability to respond to the needs and wishes of parents. This in turn deprives students of equal educational opportunities. At the same time, the vested interest groups encourage ever-increasing expenditure on a school system which is unlikely to be providing what parents want.

National uniformity in educational provision and local democratic decision making are not mutually consistent. Increasing decentralization of control of school administration has resulted in schools being free to enhance their basic funding through the use of locally raised support, which varies between areas. In the case of this research, incentives in form of cash for teachers are provided by parents, varying in amounts, from school to school. These however do not provide motivation enough for the teachers in schools established after independence to apply maximum effort and produce as good
results as those produced in schools established prior to attainment of independence in Zimbabwe.

The actual impact of state accountability policies on academic excellence and equity may turn out to be contingent upon the level of support available to schools, teachers, and students. According to Smith et al (1999), there is a dearth of empirical studies on the extent to which different racial and socio-economic groups benefit from accountability policies, with or without adequate support for schooling conditions and resources.

Some studies suggest that externally set standards and tests may serve as extrinsic motivation for academic press, but that their ultimate effects on academic performance depend on schooling capacity and social support. (Newman, King and Rigdon, 1997). Additional resources provided to disadvantaged students, such as reduced class size, after school tutoring, and summer school programs, enhance achievement gains (Roderick and Bryk 1999).

2.3. 7. School Management and Efficacy
Organisational practices of the school leadership and management of the teacher exert influence on student performance. In the Zimbabwean scenario, before and after independence, management has been one of the priorities of government. Chivore (1994) observed that soon after independence, the structure and organization of the Ministry of Education included the Schools Division which was in charge of professional staffing, controlled what was learnt and taught in schools, professional administration and specialized services such as psychological services, special education and examinations. According to Chivore, the Education Development division was responsible for the
development of curricula and the production of teaching and learning materials for schools. Chivore (1993) was in support of the set-up as he said that it was clear that the structures, organization and administration of education in Zimbabwe had been changing and this was a clear indication of the inevitable dynamism of education which he said was changed on a daily basis.

Zimbabwean schools seem to have been affected by a shortage of good managers, as observed by Nhundu (1991) who said that another problem arising from the rapid increase in the number of schools was the shortage of experienced headmasters which meant poor administrative practices in some schools, although government tried to help by organizing and practicing a series of in-service programs, on-site supervision, guidance, and counseling which was followed by mini-service seminars and workshops for school heads, their deputy heads, and heads of departments.

Brookover et al (1978), quoted in Chivore (1994), noted that in the USA teachers in higher achieving schools spent larger proportions of class time in instruction due to their commitment and concern for their students’ achievement. Schools with higher achievement were likely to use more instructional activities in which groups of students learnt as teams rather than as individuals.

The length of instruction offered by the schools is bound, in part, by available material resources. Yet in many settings, the length of the school day, time spent on particular curricular areas, and the efficient use of instructional time within classrooms is more
strongly determined by management practices than by material inputs. Efficient use of classroom time is related to student performance especially in industrialized nations. Considerable progress on this potential school efficiency could be made in the Third World by sharpening classroom management and teaching skills within constrained levels of material inputs. The assignment of homework, another aspect of the organization of instruction, also shows promise in raising student achievement.

Management of the entire school also includes an important set of school factors. The school’s organizational structure, in part, drives the efficiency with which school inputs are managed. The social rules that define management practices often are tied to the local culture or grow from social norms within the government. Schools vary in terms of what they emphasise and the social rules that they employ to accomplish their goals.

School Heads employ a variety of means of supervising staff, in managing the school budget, in motivating teachers to improve their practices, in working with parents, or in disciplining students. This depends upon the head’s length of training and teaching experience before becoming headmaster or headmistress. In a study by Heyneman and Loxley (1983) students performed better in schools whose headmasters had attended more training courses and had longer teaching experience before becoming heads. Their salaries were also of significance.

On school management, Chung (1988) was of the view that in independent Zimbabwe there was urgent need to examine the administrative systems inherited from colonial
regimes in order to evaluate how far they could successfully fulfill the new societal goals. According to Chung, the colonial regime followed a policy of deliberately depriving the indigenous population of higher as well as middle level management skills and experience because it was easier to manipulate a poorly educated populace than a highly educated one. She added that Zimbabwe had gained political independence, but there was further need to consolidate that independence in the administrative and economic fields. For that, she said knowledge and experience of administrative structures and skills were critical factors without which success would be unattainable.

How schools established after independence in Harare’s high density areas are managed impacts on the performance of the students attending them. As propounded by Chung (1988), it is essential that management skills as well as understanding of management become common knowledge. She further highlights that generally, the word administration is used for public administration such as the administration of government ministries, local government, hospitals and schools, whilst the word management is used for the administration of businesses, such as factories, mines, farms, cooperatives, parastatals, hotels and other industrial and commercial enterprises.

According to Chung (1988), each form of administration or management has its own characteristics and specializations. She says that the school administration is there to ensure that every pupil receives a good education, and when an education system turns out badly educated people, we also blame this on administration. The performance and attainment trends by pupils in pre-independence and post-colonial established secondary
schools indicate that the administrators in these schools are from different backgrounds and have different skills and knowledge. Chikomba et al (1986) had a similar observation that the quality and efficiency of educational systems depend on the availability of competent planners and managers.

Nhundu (1991) had a different observation on school management. He observed that one of the problems arising from the rapid increase in the number of schools was the shortage of experienced heads. This led to poor administrative practices in some schools, although government tried to help by organizing and conducting a series of in-service programs.

2.3.8. School Characteristics and Organisation
An effective school is one in which students’ progress goes further than might be expected from consideration of its intake. It is one which adds value to students’ academic achievements and/or social and effective outcomes in comparison with schools serving similar intakes. Research on ineffective schools seems to indicate the importance of leadership. Stoll and Fink (1996) in Coleman and Earley (2005:145) discovered that some aspects of school effectiveness could be: lack of vision where teachers have little attachments ‘to anything or anybody’; unfocused leadership; dysfunctional staff relationships; inconsistent approaches to teaching; lack of challenge; low levels of teacher-student interaction; high classroom levels and frequent use of criticism and negative feedback. Leadership makes a difference in school effectiveness. Hollinger and Heck, (1999), say that a great deal of the variation in students’ performance lies within schools than between them.
A study of effective departments in secondary schools by Harris et al (1995) identified the main features of their success as including a collegial management style; a strong vision; good organization; good monitoring; clear structure to lessons; a strong focus on the students and on teaching and learning. At classroom level, the powerful elements of expectation, management clarity and instructional quality transcend culture. Whilst resource allocation may be managed in order to secure efficient and effective practice within the schools, they cannot attain their objectives unless the funding is adequate and equitably used.

National uniformity in educational provision and local democratic decision making are not mutually consistent. Increasing decentralization of control of school administration has resulted in schools being free to enhance their basic funding through the use of locally raised support, which varies between areas. A case in point is that of the differences in teacher incentives from school to school in Harare province.

2.4. **Empirical studies on academic achievement**

According to the Judges Commission (1963), in the then Rhodesia, now Zimbabwe, there was need for close associations between secondary schools and the employment and training facilities in the neighbourhood. This would act as a motivational factor to the pupils because they would learn for a purpose. If pupils know that they are likely to be employed at the end of their schooling then they apply more effort to their school work. This would in turn improve pupils’ performance and attainment.
The Judges’ Commission of (1963) concluded that in Rhodesia, now Zimbabwe, where parents are able to meet the cost of fees, their preference was for the traditional senior school environment. Schools which were in great demand, like some of those with great reputations were regularly over-subscribed by applicants from far and near. The same could apply to today’s secondary schools resulting in the consistent discrepancy in O’ Level results.

According to the Judges Commission, ideally the secondary schools should be so sited that they serve the needs of a thick cluster of primary schools within daily travelling distance. The secondary school should be regarded as the hub from which spokes radiate.

A study carried out by Chisaka (1999), revealed that social class structure and ability streaming affects student learning, performance and achievement. According to Chisaka (1999), Children from families of below average economic means tended to be over-represented in low ability classes and under-represented in high ability classes, whilst teachers tended to be more motivated when instructing high ability than low ability classes.

Chisaka (2001) established that ability grouping negatively impacts on student performance and attainment. According to Chisaka (2001) learners in low ability groups are neglected, demeaned, discriminated against, and stigmatized as those who do not want to learn. Chisaka (2001) also established that teachers tend to prepare less, often absent themselves, do not give adequate notes, and do not give adequate textbooks to low
ability groups. Also teachers fail to stimulate active learner participation in low ability groups. This de-motivates the students, more so when the teachers focus on groups rather than individuals and do not recognize individual effort.

According to Chisaka (2001), ability grouping at O’ Level assists students to learn better in groups of the same ability but students of different abilities may not learn well together as better students may tend to dominate proceedings thereby overriding others’ opinions and contributions. Chisaka adds that ability grouping denies pupils in different group’s competition, and this affects the students’ learning and performance. Ability grouping creates the superiority and inferiority complex in pupils of high and low ability respectively.

In a study by Heyneman and Loxley (1983) students performed better in schools whose headmasters had attended more training courses and had longer teaching experience before becoming heads. Their salaries were also of significance.

Honeyman and Loxley (1983) found out that various school attributes such as the availability of textbooks and school libraries, teachers, attainment and length of the instructional programme were amongst attributes that made up a block of school qualities. However, Honeyman and Loxley concede that in developing countries the block of school factors explained significant portions of the variance in achievement. They add that differing levels of school quality and social class background affect achievement.
2.5. Textbooks

Chivore (1994) argues that social organization in terms of community support, administration, leadership, public rewards and incentives, pervasive caring, teacher efficacy, high expectations, order and discipline and clear academic and social behavior goals impact on school effectiveness. He adds that teachers contribute through liaison with authorities that supply resources and their collaboration with the general community in the running of the school or class affairs. Chivore (1994) supports his claim citing Joyce, Hersh and Mckillin(1992) who argue that a variety of teaching strategies, opportunities for student responsibility, coherently organized curriculum, frequent monitoring of student progress, frequent and monitored homework, and high academic learning time characterize school effectiveness.

Chivore noted that surveys on the determinants of achievement established that teachers’ experience is an important characteristic that plays a role in their effectiveness. According to Chivore, the more the teachers’ experience, the more their students appear to learn, experience being between ten and twenty years, during which period effects are noticeable.

On the same note, Nyagura (1991) highlights that senior and more experienced teachers tend to stay at one school, and most of the schools with senior teachers tend to have equipment and material provisions. He, however, noted that teachers’ attitudes, socio-economic backgrounds, teacher expectations and in-service programmes affect student performance. The teacher cannot be effective on his/her own. Chivore (1993) further highlighted that teacher quality includes teacher shortage which he said entailed:
• Professionally trained teacher shortage.

• Shortage of teachers according to set teacher/pupil ratios.

• Shortage of teachers according to subjects taught especially at secondary level.

• Shortage in terms of effective demand, that is, when the wages offered to attract the needed supply of teachers are too low.

The supply of trained teachers for schools in Harare’s high density areas is from the same source i.e. teacher training colleges in Zimbabwe. If there is teacher shortage all schools will be affected. If there is any discrepancy in terms of teacher deployment resulting in prejudice against some of the students then this will be an issue of policy implementation or lack of it.

In this case, it emerged from this research, that staffing of trained teachers is balanced but schools established prior to attainment of independence have more experienced teachers than those established after independence and no one seems to care.

Venvenste (1985) is of the view that holding schools, teachers, and students accountable for academic performance with incentives provided (i.e rewards and sanctions) will inform, motivate, and reorient the behaviour of schooling agents towards the goal. Roderick and Bryk (1999) suggest that additional resources provided to at risk students, such as reduced class size, after school tutoring, and summer school programmes, enhance achievement gains. Advocates of opportunity-to-learn standards argue that every student must have equal access to high quality learning by specifying key inputs (per-pupil spending, text books, teacher training etc) in the form of binding standards.

According to Chikomba et al (1986), in addition to demographic challenges, Africa faces serious economic problems, and central government budgets are falling in real terms.
Reduced public spending inevitably includes reduced spending for education. Education may be particularly vulnerable to budget cuts since this sector typically represents such a large share of public expenditures. Chikomba et al (1986) that historically, investment in human resources in Africa has taken a back seat to investment in physical capital. They also add that while support for construction projects has been strong, support to educate the people needed to implement the projects has not kept pace. This, they say, has been so despite rate-of-return evidence that demonstrates high yields accruing to education. In addition, they highlight that underinvestment in human resources can be observed throughout Africa, where one can see institutions and projects that are languishing or inoperable because there are no trained people to run them.

Chikomba et al (1986) observed that quality of education was being eroded by pressure to expand educational systems with diminishing resources. They add that most of the evidence available is indirect and focuses on quantities of particular inputs, especially books, materials, and capital maintenance, and on the recent decline of these in relation to other educational inputs, such as teacher salaries. A decline in quality can also be inferred from expenditures per pupil, which have been falling since 1980 from the growing numbers of poorly trained and poorly motivated teachers; and from existence of overly large classes, which is a particular problem in urban areas, where classes of 80 or more students are not uncommon.

According to Chikomba et al (1986), by 1986, results from ‘O’ Level examinations in Zimbabwe were already discouraging. This resulted from the fact that when the number of
candidates increased due to policy initiatives instituted by the new government, national pass rates steadily declined. Low pass rates were particularly pronounced in newly established rural schools, where adequately trained staff, supervision, and textbooks were lacking. Such a predicament would by no chance spare urban schools.

Chikomba et al (1986), note that among the major handicaps to education were lack of appropriate learning resources and knowledge as to how to utilize the resources to their full advantage. Before independence, the absence of resources in the African schools and teacher training colleges meant that teachers were never in a position to realize the potential of any of the more efficient aids, such as tapes, slides, films, and models. According to Chikomba, lack of exposure to the new technologies during school or training tends to make teachers reluctant to use them when brought into the school at a later time. They note too that school administrators may not be keen to budget for expensive educational resources with which they are not familiar. It is only after exposure to various types of media at some time during studentship or in-service training that teachers can be expected to use them with interest.

Nhundu (1991) noted that pre-post secondary education plans had also been hampered by a lack of facilities, materials, and equipment. They add that at secondary school level, shortages also were evident, especially of equipment and specialist rooms. The lack of books, stationery, and other learning materials, particularly in science subjects, had been tackled by an ingenious program to produce low cost teachers’ and pupils’ manuals and science kits.
O’ Day and Smith (1993), posit that holding schools and students accountable for performance creates incentives for schools to find out which practices work most effectively. They add that professional development and technical assistance can have greater effects when resources and environment, including favourable class size and qualified teachers, are already adequate. According to Ross and Gray (2006), school principals and heads, regardless of the student population they serve, are held accountable for student achievement in their schools. They contribute through the creation of a positive instructional climate. Rossi and Gray (2006), add that principals who adopt transformational leadership behaviour contribute to teachers’ professional commitment indirectly through collective efficacy.

Organisational practices of the school leadership and management of the teacher exert influence on student performance. In the Zimbabwean scenario, before and after independence, management has been one of the priorities of government. Chivore (1994) observed that soon after independence, the structure and organization of the Ministry of Education included the Schools Division which was in charge of professional staffing, controlled what was learnt and taught in schools, professional administration and specialized services such as psychological services, special education and examinations. According to Chivore, the Education Development division was responsible for the development of curricula and the production of teaching and learning materials for schools. Chivore (1993) was in support of the set-up as he said that it was clear that the structures, organization and administration of education in Zimbabwe had been changing and this was a clear indication of the inevitable dynamism of education which he said was changed on a daily basis.
Zimbabwean schools seem to have been affected by a shortage of good managers, as observed by Nhundu (1991), who highlighted that another problem arising from the rapid increase in the number of schools was the shortage of experienced headmasters which meant poor administrative practices in some schools, although government tried to help by organizing and practicing a series of in-service programs, on-site supervision, guidance, and counseling which was followed by mini-service seminars and workshops for school heads, their deputy heads, and heads of departments.

Brookover et al (1978), quoted in Chivore (1994), noted that in the USA teachers in higher achieving schools spent larger proportions of class time in instruction due to their commitment and concern for their students’ achievement. Schools with higher achievement were likely to use more instructional activities in which groups of students learnt as teams rather than as individuals.

The length of instruction offered by the schools is bounded, in part, by available material resources. Yet in many settings, the length of the school day, time spent on particular curricular areas, and the efficient use of instructional time within classrooms is more strongly determined by management practices than by material inputs.

Efficient use of classroom time is related to student performance especially in industrialized nations. Considerable progress on this potential school efficiency could be made in the Third World by sharpening classroom management and teaching skills within constrained levels of
material inputs. The assignment of homework, another aspect of the organization of instruction, also shows promise in raising student achievement.

Management of the entire school also includes an important set of school factors. The school’s organizational structure, in part, drives the efficiency with which school inputs are managed. The social rules that define management practices often are tied to the local culture or grow from social norms within the government. Schools vary in terms of what they emphasise and the social rules that they employ to accomplish their goals.

School Heads employ a variety of means of supervising staff, in managing the school budget, in motivating teachers to improve their practices, in working with parents, or in disciplining students. This depends upon the head’s length of training and teaching experience before becoming headmaster or headmistress.

On school management, Chung (1988) was of the view that in independent Zimbabwe there was urgent need to examine the administrative systems inherited from colonial regimes in order to evaluate how far they could successfully fulfill the new societal goals. According to Chung, the colonial regime followed a policy of deliberately depriving the indigenous population of higher as well as middle level management skills and experience because it was easier to manipulate a poorly educated populace than a highly educated one. She added that Zimbabwe had gained political independence, but there was further need to consolidate that independence in the administrative and economic fields. For that, she said knowledge
and experience of administrative structures and skills were critical factors without which success would be unattainable.

As propounded by Chung (1988), it is essential that management skills as well as understanding of management become common knowledge. She further says that generally, the word administration is used for public administration such as the administration of government ministries, local government, hospitals and schools, whilst the word management is used for the administration of businesses, such as factories, mines, farms, cooperatives, parastatals, hotels and other industrial and commercial enterprises.

The performance and attainment by students in pre-independence and post-colonial established secondary schools respectively indicate that the administrators in these schools are from different backgrounds and have different skills and knowledge. Chikomba et al (1986) had a similar observation that the quality and efficiency of educational systems depend on the availability of competent planners and managers.

Nhundu (1991) had a different observation on school management. He observed that one of the problems arising from the rapid increase in the number of schools was the shortage of experienced heads. This led to poor administrative practices in some schools, although government tried help by organizing and conducting a series of in-service programs.

It is important that a school markets itself for it to attract students with a sound educational background. The recruitment procedure at Form 1 level determines, in a big way, the ultimate performance at O’ Level.
Organizational practices of the school leadership and management of the teacher exert influence on student performance. Of paramount importance is also government policy on the education system. Social reform in terms of the educational system is another area that cannot be ignored as a source of different academic performance and attainment.

Environmental and genetic differences are also believed to be contributory to different performance and achievement levels. However, in the case at hand, the students concerned share the same environment.

Zigler (1970:101) as cited in Bond (2003) presents a different dimension on the causes of different academic attainment. He is of the view that lower class children are developmentally younger than middle-class children of the same chronological age.

Social economic status overwhelms all other reasons for differences in student performance and achievement. Students from low social classes are subjected to numerous disadvantages that have a bearing, directly or indirectly, on student learning and achievement. This implies that poverty contributes towards educational failure. However, it is this researcher’s conviction that the students at the centre of this research are mostly from similar backgrounds and attend schools within the same vicinity.

Fuller (1987) is of the view that social structures in the developing countries often are less differentiated than in highly industrialized societies. He says that advantages rooted in social class and related parenting practices may be more or less influential within the third world.
Fuller adds that family practices related to the child’s cognitive development may be less strongly associated with social class within developing countries. Given the low level material resources available in many Third World schools, the influence of social practices within classrooms may play a greater role than do material inputs.

Gwarinda (1999) argues that ability streaming can encourage elitism whereby the faster learners become a special group which might be better favoured by the teacher, receiving more social rewards and privileges. He adds that the teacher is likely to ignore or write off the slower groups as good for nothing. Gwarinda (1995) also argues that factionalism based on feelings of superiority and inferiority is likely to arise between ability groups and this is likely to destroy the spirit of pupils helping each other.

Rennie (1986), Cohan (1996), Richardson and Fergus (1993), and Tomlinson (1993) cite in Chisaka (2001), are of the view that grouping is a didactical strategy to increase learning through grouping students according to their abilities. Ability grouping therefore has either a positive or negative impact on students’ performance and schools in which it is practised produce either good or poor results.

Cohan, Linchevski, Ygra and Danziger (1996), are of the opinion that ability streaming is done to increase the gap of achievement between low and high ability groups. Sorensen and Hallinan (1986), argue that ability grouping is not neutral with respect to inequality of educational opportunity since what is taught in grouped classes is not equal in quantity and quality.
Coleman and Earley (1996) posit that most of the variations in student learning are a product of differences in family backgrounds. They also say that socio-economic status overwhelms the association between school properties and achievement. Hoy, Sweetland, and Smith (2002) support Coleman et al (1996) by saying that socio-economic status and previous achievement are directly related to both academic optimism and student achievement. Socio-economic status and previous achievement also make indirect contributions to achievement through academic optimism.

2.6 Journals
According to Blackwell’s journal on “Social Economic and Educational Achievement”, generally, it is accepted that socio-economic status has a bearing on academic achievement. Andrew J Wayne and Peter Youngs (2003) in their journal on “Teacher characteristics and student achievement gains” support the idea that teacher quality and experience influence teacher effectiveness which in turn affects pupil performance and achievement.

Thompson, Douglas and Plomin(1991) in their journal on “Associations between cognitive abilities and scholastic achievement” posit that genetic influences, environmental differences and cognitive abilities are the major contributors to differences in pupil performance and achievement. However, Hoy and Tarter (2006) in their journal on “Academic optimism: A Force for Student Achievement” are of the opinion that apart from socio-economic status, there are four effective school characteristics that strongly affect pupil performance and achievement. These include strong principal leadership, high expectations for student achievement, an orderly environment, an emphasis on basic skills and frequent and systematic evaluation of pupils.
2.7 Summary

This is the second chapter of this thesis. It highlights what other scholars say in relation to this topic. Students in schools constructed and established after independence perform poorly in comparison to those in schools established prior to independence. There is a wide range of reasons for this difference. Many scholars have outlined the general factors affecting student performance but not the reasons for poor performance by students in schools that were established after independence.

Factors such as socio-economic status, academic optimism, education policy, school marketisation, equality of educational opportunity, educational facilities, school management, teacher quality, intelligent quotient, genetics, motivation, environment, school culture, school characteristics and organization, among others, have been highlighted as factors affecting student performance, attainment and achievement.

It was this researcher’s intention to discover what it is that is in pre-independence established schools that is not found in post independence established schools that enhances student performance at ‘O’ Level. Consequently this researcher’s ultimate objective was to discover the reasons for the differential academic attainment trends in the afore-mentioned schools. The findings were analysed and presented in the forthcoming chapters.
CHAPTER 3
METHODOLOGICAL PROCEDURES

3.1. Introduction
The previous chapter looked at the review of related literature which outlined the theories and concepts in which the research is grounded. It demonstrated the relationship amongst the theories and concepts outlined and the research topic. The review of the related literature also revealed the research gap in as far as the topic is concerned. After the previous chapter comes this chapter on research methodology and design.

This chapter is the third for this research and presents the research methodology that was applied. It gives an outline of research paradigm, research design, the research process, data collection instruments which were engaged, and the procedures which were followed in coming up with the relevant data. It also dwells on the triangulation, validity, and reliability issues consideration. It is also in this chapter that a detailed discussion of the handling of the legal and ethical issues is made in relation to the research at hand. A summary of the chapter then closes the chapter.

3.2. Research paradigm
This study took a quantitative approach. It is quantitative in nature since it is a survey. Survey designs belong to non-experimental hypothesis testing research. Surveys are used to examine the relationships that exist between two or more variables without any planned intervention (Welman, Kruger and Mitchel 2005). Examples of variables used in this research paradigm are age, gender, socio-economic status, and the environment, among others. The research at hand involved a wide range of constructs and variables
including the above examples. Constructs covering such aspects as motivation, school administration, screening and streaming, students’ background and home environment, school equipment and implements, the school curriculum, teachers’ training experience and commitment, among others were the basis for this research. These formed the basis upon which the questionnaires were developed.

The quantitative research methodology is virtually synonymous with positivist epistemology. The positivist research designs, according to Borg and Gall (1996), are strongly influenced by methods which include the collection and analysis of numerical data using statistical procedures. The use of mathematics to represent and analyse features of social reality is consistent with positivist epistemology.

The positivist epistemology assumes that features of social reality have constancy across time and setting hence the use of variables (Borg and Gall 1996). Borg and Gall (1996) further state that the positivist epistemology has a mechanical view of causation. Positivist epistemology also has the following features:

- Seeks to enable the researcher to investigate multiple causes of a particular outcome.
- Is closely related to scientific realism which assumes that there are multiple layers of causal structures, which are real objects that interact with each other to cause people to take certain actions or, in some instances, to take no action.
- Enables researchers to develop knowledge by collecting numerical data on observable behaviours of samples and then subjecting these data to numerical analysis.
The research at hand was done involving the above mentioned features so qualifies to fall into the positivist epistemology category. It was quantitative in nature. Borg and Gall (1996) say quantitative research methodology has the following features:

- Assumes an objective social reality.
- Studies behaviour and other observable phenomena.
- Studies populations or samples that represent populations.
- Analyses social reality into variables.
- Uses preconceived concepts and theories to determine what data will be collected. (For this reason, this researcher included conceptual and theoretical framework in the research at hand.)
- Generates numerical data to represent the social environment.
- Uses statistical methods to analyse data. (for this reason this researcher applied the SPSS method of analyzing data).
- Uses statistical inference procedures to generalize findings from a sample to a defined population.
- Prepares impersonal, objectives reports of research findings.
- Is deductive in nature.

The research at the centre of this discussion was a survey which according to Welman, Kruger, and Mitchel (2005), belongs to the positivist philosophy. The positivist philosophy is based on logical positivism. This type of research underlies the natural-scientific method in human behavioural research and holds that research must be limited to what we can observe and measure objectively, that is, that which exists independently
of the feelings and opinions of individuals. The natural-scientific approach strives to formulate laws that apply to populations and that explain causes of objectively observable and measurable behavior. This implies that people other than the researcher should agree on what is being observed, such as the score that the observation should register on a measuring instrument. The positivist approach to research is also known as the quantitative approach.

According to Welman, Kruger, and Mitchel (2005), positivists aim to uncover general laws of relationships and/or causality that apply to all people and at all times. Welman et al (2005) add that quantitative research methods do not involve the investigation process but emphasise the measurement and analysis of causal relationships between variables within a value free context. Denzin and Lincoln (1984) as cited in Welman, Kruger and Mitchel (2005) posit that:

- The purpose of quantitative research is to evaluate objective data consisting of numbers. For the purposes of the research at hand a compilation of data was made from responses to questionnaires by school heads, heads of departments and other O’ level teachers. These responses were grouped according to categories of information they elicited from the respondents and an analysis of the data was done.

- As a result of dealing with numbers, quantitative researchers use a process of analysis that is based on complex structured methods to confirm or disprove hypothesis. Flexibility is limited to prevent any form of bias in presenting the results. To confirm or disprove the hypothesis of this research, this research was analysed with the use of the statistical package for social sciences (SPSS), a
scientific method of data processing which guarantees validity and reliability of the research findings.

- The purpose of quantitative research is not to deal directly with everyday life, but rather with an abstraction of reality. The issues addressed by the research at hand are real, but abstract and need the attention of the stakeholders concerned.

- Quantitative researchers try to understand the facts from an outsider’s perspective. Therefore it is important for quantitative researchers to keep a detached, objective view of the facts that will keep the research process hypothetically free from bias.

- Quantitative researchers try to keep the research process as stable as possible. They focus on the causal aspects of behavior and the collection of facts that won’t change easily. The research at hand was concerned with the causes of differential academic attainment trends by students in schools established prior to independence and those in schools established after attainment of independence in Zimbabwe. For such a research no method would be better or more applicable than the quantitative research methodology.

- Quantitative researchers control the investigation and structure of the research situation in order to identify and isolate variables. Specific measurement tools are used to collect data. Their approach is therefore described as particularistic. In the case of the research at hand a particularistic approach was employed in the form of the use of questionnaires specific for different categories of respondents i.e. School heads, heads of departments and other o’ level teachers.

- Quantitative just like qualitative research, aims at reliable and valid results. It was the aim of this researcher to produce reliable and valid results hence the selection
of 47.5% of the population to respond to the questionnaires and interview questions. Out of 40 state controlled secondary schools found in the high density suburbs of Harare, inclusive of Chitungwiza, 19 were selected for the purposes of this research. For quantitative research results to be reliable and valid a minimum of 10% of the concerned population must be selected and be involved in the research.

- Quantitative researchers focus more on reliability, that is, consistent and stable measurement of data as well as replicability. For this purpose this researcher applied the acceptable SPSS method of data analysis.

- Quantitative research usually aims for larger numbers of cases and the analysis of results is usually based on statistical significance.

- Quantitative researchers try to understand the subject’s point of view by means of controlling the situation and using remote, empirical and inferential methods. All this applies to the current research.

On positivism, Haralambos and Holborn (2008), posit that quantitative research relies on scientific methods of data analysis. They believe that this methodology was pioneered by Auguste Comte (1798-1857), who was the first person to use the term ‘sociology’. As a positivist, Comte believed that scientific knowledge about society could be accumulated and used to improve human existence so that society could be run rationally without religion or superstition getting in the way of progress. He was supported by Emile Durkheim (1858-1917), who himself was not a positivist but advocated for scientific methods of research and analysis of human relationships in a scientific manner.
According to Comte (1789-1857), there are four aspects to be considered in scientific research:

- Scientific research should be confined to collecting information about phenomena that can be objectively observed and classified. There is objectivity in the findings of the research at hand since it was practical and scientific. The research was based on observable and measurable phenomena about which the information was provided by the persons involved in their day to day running and operations.

- Positivism is concerned with the use of statistical data. In this current research statistical data was compiled and analysed objectively to come up with valid, reliable and replicable results.

- Positivist research methodology entails looking for correlations between different social facts. This research was concerned with correlations between and amongst constructs or variables and differential academic attainment in two different types of school.

- Positivist methodology involves a search for causal connections e.g. if there is a strong correlation between two or more types of social phenomena, then a positivist sociologist might suspect that one of these phenomena was causing the other to take place. However it is important to analyse the data carefully before any such conclusion can be reached.

According to Haralambos and Holborn (2008), positivists can establish causal connections between two or more variables. If these findings are checked in a variety of contexts, then the researchers can be confident that they have attained the ultimate goal of positivism. Positivists believe that laws of human behavior can be discovered by the
collection of objective facts about the social world in a statistical form, by the careful
analysis of these facts, and by repeated checking of findings in series of contexts.

In addition, Haralambos and Holborn (2008), proffer that positivism is based upon an
understanding of science that sees science as using mainly deductive methodology. This
is the methodology that starts by collecting the data. The data are then analysed, and out
of this analysis theories are then developed. Once the theory has been developed it can
then be tested against other sets of data to see if it is confirmed or not.

In a survey all these aspects of positivism apply, hence the choice of using the survey as
the methodology for this study.

3.3. Design of the study
This research is a simple survey which was carried out with the use of questionnaires and
interview guides.

According to Borg and Gall (1996: 289), the term survey is frequently used to describe
research that involves administering questionnaires or interviews. It is one of the
quantitative research designs. The purpose of a survey is to use questionnaires or
interviews to collect data from participants in a sample about their own characteristics,
experiences, and opinions in order to generalize findings to a population that the sample
is intended to represent. In this case respondents were identified for the survey in all
selected schools. According to de Leew, Hox and Dillman (2008), the word survey is
used most often to describe a method of gathering data from a sample of individuals. It
can be seen as a research strategy in which quantitative data is systematically collected
from a relatively large sample taken from a population. de Leew, Hox and Dillman
(2008) add that a survey involves identifying a specific group or category of people and collecting data from some of them in order to gain insight into what the entire group thinks.

Survey method is a science and there are scientific criteria for survey quality. Survey quality refers to fitness for use (de Leeuw et al. 2008.) For a survey to be successful there are four cornerstones to be considered. These are coverage, sampling, response and measurement. If these are solid then high quality data can be collected. A perfect survey would minimize sources of errors i.e. coverage error, sampling error, non-response error, and measurement error. In this case, coverage error is avoided when every member of the population has a known and non zero chance of being selected into the survey. Sampling error is reduced simply by sampling enough randomly selected units to achieve the precision that is necessary. Non-response error is avoided if everyone responds. Measurement error can be prevented by asking clear questions; questions that respondents are capable to answer correctly.

In this study, the researcher avoided the forms of error discussed above. The questionnaires were structured in such a way that all respondents could respond without difficulty. A percentage representative enough (i.e. 49.5%) for the research to produce valid and reliable results was selected. Members were drawn from the teaching fraternity inclusive of the school heads, their deputies, and heads of departments, senior and junior teachers from the two kinds of school on which this research is centered.

The survey was the most suitable type of research for this study. According to Graziano and Raulin (2004), surveys gather data by specifically asking respondents about their
experiences, attitudes, or knowledge. This is the kind of data that this research was looking for. Surveys can be both simple and complicated because they impose constraints on respondents by posing specific questions.

Instruments in survey research can be diversely used. Graziano and Raulin, (2004) say that survey instruments can be used in virtually any type of research, from case studies through experimental studies. According to Graziano and Raulin (2004) there are basically two types of surveys which are status survey and survey research. Status survey is used to describe current characteristics of a population, for instance, voter preferences or teachers’ satisfaction with their professions. Status surveys are also commonly used in public health research to determine rates of illness and health-related behaviours. This type of research dates back to as early as 1830.

Survey research was developed in the 20th century. It seeks not only the current status of the population characteristics, but also tries to discover relationships among variables. Surveys are the most familiar and ubiquitous form of research in the social sciences and for a survey to be successful, detailed planning is necessary. The major goal of a survey, according to Graziano and Raulin (2004), is to learn about ideas, knowledge, feelings, attitudes, opinions, and self reported behavior of a defined population.

De Leew, Hox and Dillman (2008), are of the opinion that the first step in a survey is to determine the research objectives which must be well-defined. These are then translated into a set of key research questions. For each research question one or more survey questions are then formulated, depending on the goal of the study.
In a survey, the researcher begins by specifying the concepts to be measured. Then these clearly specified concepts have to be translated, or in technical terms, operationalised into measurable variables. This assists to avoid or reduce specification errors. This can be termed construct validity which rests on coverage, sampling, response and measurement. There is need to distinguish between conceptualization and operationalisation when thinking about the process that leads from the theoretical constructs to survey questions.

Theoretical concepts are referred to as constructs. For the purposes of this research, theoretical concepts or constructs were used in the compilation of the questionnaires and interview guides. The basis of this research therefore rested on the constructs related to the research topic to avoid specification error.

3.4. The research process

3.4.1. Pilot testing
A pilot study was carried out as a way of testing validity and reliability of the instruments.

As a step towards survey research, the concepts questionnaire should be pretested with a small group of real respondents using cognitive lab methods. In this research the researcher chose two trust schools which were not included in the actual research, for pilot studying. This way the feasibility of the questionnaires was tested and corrections were made where it was necessary.

When a survey question as posed to a respondent fails to ask about what is essential for the research question, we have a specification error. The measurement will have low construct validity. According to Leeuw, Hox and Dillman, (2004), no expert can write the perfect questionnaire simply sitting in his or her office. Respondents’ experiences are too
multitudinous in nature. Survey questions created without thorough testing on the members of the population for whom the questionnaire is intended will always miss the complexities. Testing is the only way of assuring that the survey questions written do indeed communicate to respondents as intended. Error will result if respondents misunderstand the survey questions or key concepts, do not know or cannot recall the needed information from memory, use an inappropriate method for making a judgment, or prefer to hide certain information and provide a socially desirable answer. Respondents must comprehend, which means that they must understand the literal meaning of individual items and phrases as well as grammatical ambiguity. What respondents assume the question means or implies may cause errors in their responses.

Steps in a survey involve identifying the content area, constructing the survey instrument, defining the population, and communicating results. Construction and administering of the survey instrument is guided by determining the informational area to be studied, the population to be surveyed, and how the survey instrument is to be administered.

In the case of the research at hand the researcher considered the constructs involved in the topic, the dependent and independent variables as the guides to questionnaire and interview guide construction. The questionnaires were pilot tested before actual distribution was done. The fortunate part of it all was that respondents from the two trust schools in which the pilot study was carried out were so cooperative that the researcher had no problems at all in administering the questionnaires. The two schools in which the pilot study was carried out were also easily accessible.
The pilot study revealed mistakes and errors which needed attention in the questionnaires. The necessary corrections and improvements were made to the questionnaires and interview guides.

Thereafter the actual research commenced with the administering of the questionnaires in the targeted schools. This, the researcher did on his own. He went round the targeted schools and carried out brief interviews with the school heads before distributing the questionnaires for the same school heads to respond to. Concurrently, questionnaires for the Heads of departments and other O’ level teachers were distributed for later collection.

As far as surveys are concerned there are four cognitive steps that should be followed when testing whether or not the survey questions concerned do indeed communicate to respondents as intended. The four cognitive steps are comprehension, recall, judgment, and response.

There is need to pre-test the questionnaires. According to Leeuw, Hox and Dillman (2004), in testing survey questionnaires, there are three stages to be followed. These are: the developmental stage, the questionnaire testing stage, and the dress rehearsal stage.

The developmental stage involves preparatory and background work prior to actually writing any survey questions. This includes thorough exploration of the subject matter through reading existing literature and consulting experts as well as thorough exploration of various cultural and language issues that may affect how respondents will comprehend and process survey questions.
The question testing stage involves the testing of survey questions. The aim of this stage is to ensure that each individual question meets all the principles of good questionnaire design.

Dress rehearsal is to test the questionnaire as a whole under real survey conditions with a much larger sample size than questionnaire testing stage. This stage assists the researcher to get an estimate of first contact response rates, to check timings of the length of the questionnaire and to develop pre-codes for open-ended questions. It also is concerned with assuring the smooth coordination of procedures and establishing correct survey routines. However the Dress Rehearsal is not essential in most cases. Behavior coding is also necessary for questionnaires and interview guides. It is used to understand the question-answer process more generally and is included in many survey methods experiments to document improvements in survey questions.

### 3.4.2 Population and sample

The target population for the purposes of this research was made up of all state-run schools within Harare’s high density suburbs including Chitungwiza. The research was however carried out in selected districts within Harare’s high density suburbs for accessibility’s sake.

For a survey it is important to have an intended population in mind, which, according to de Leeuw, Hox and Dillman (2008), should have a sample frame. This can be a list of the target population members. In this case the research targeted all state controlled
secondary or high schools which were established prior to or after attainment of independence in the high density suburbs of Harare and the members of the target population were school heads, senior teachers, and other selected O’ Level teachers.

According to Leeuw, Hox and Dillman (2008), it is important to watch out for coverage error in form of under coverage. This, the researcher took care of by ensuring coverage of 49.5% of the concerned schools in Harare’s high-density areas. Also to watch out for is over coverage which means that a unit of the target population will be appearing more than once in the sampling frame.

To guard against this form of error the researcher made sure that an equal number of respondents were approached from each school which was involved in the research. A total number of 10 respondents were targeted from each school. These included 1 school head, 4 heads of departments and 5 other O’ level teachers from each of the schools concerned.

The targeted population comprised state run schools within Harare’s high density areas including Chitungwiza and the results are applicable to all state-run schools constructed before and after independence in these areas.

3.4.3. Sampling
The researcher applied the stratified sampling technique. Stratified sampling is when the sampling procedures ensure that sub-groups within the population are adequately representative of the population. In this case, the researcher had sub-groups in the form of school heads, heads of departments and other O’ level teachers from each school in the
sample. The sample selected suited the purpose of this study. According to Graziano and Raulin (2004), the heart of the survey is the sampling method used to ensure the representativeness of the sample. Surveys can be carried out as longitudinal or cross-sectional studies.

The researcher also applied the convenience sampling technique. This he did by selecting a sample which was convenient but representative enough to produce results which are generalizable. According to Borg and Gall (1996), in convenience sampling, the researcher selects a sample that suits the purposes of the study and that is convenient. Borg and Gall (1996), add that the sample can be convenient for a variety of reasons such as that: the sample may be located at or near where the researcher works; the researcher is familiar with the setting and might even work in it; some of the data required by the researcher might have been collected already.

In the case of this research the sample was accessible to the researcher and he was also familiar with the settings of some of the schools involved.

The researcher guarded against sampling error by drawing a sample large enough to produce the precision desired. For this study, a sample of 49.5% of the total population was selected in order to add validity to the study since the minimum expected for a sample to produce valid and reliable results is 10%. 49.5% is way above the minimum percentage.
The sample consisted of schools located in 3 of the districts in which high density state run schools are located. In all there are 40 state run schools in the 6 high density educational districts of Harare. 19 schools chosen represented 49.5% which makes the results generalisable to state run schools in Harare’s high density suburbs. Out of the 19 schools 9 were constructed prior to independence as F1 or F2 secondary schools. 9 out of the 19 schools in question were constructed after independence as new secondary schools. One was converted from primary school to secondary. These are, in total, 10 which is 50% of the total number of schools selected for the research.

With the above computations and systematically analysed data the results should be generalisable. 49.5% is large enough for generalization purposes. Welman et al (2005), posit that the larger the sample size, the lower the likely error in generalizing to the population. They add that when determining sample size we should bear in mind the size of the population. In general, the smaller the total population, the relatively larger the sample should be to ensure satisfactory results. According to Welman et al (2005), in determining sample size, we should also bear in mind that the number of units of analysis from which we eventually obtain usable data may be much smaller than the number we drew originally.

A sample must be representative of the population. Graziano and Raulin (2004), say that in general, larger samples represent populations better than smaller samples but how large the sample should be must be determined for each project. They add that the size of the population needed to represent a population adequately also depends on the
homogeneity in the population. If the population is homogeneous then smaller sample sizes are possible.

In this case the researcher dealt with homogeneous groups of teachers and school heads in homogeneous schools.

This research was carried out as a cross sectional study which involves administering the survey once to a sample, yielding data on the measured characteristics as they exist at the time of the survey. According to Graziano and Raulin (2004), this information can be completely descriptive, such as a status survey, or can involve testing relationships among population characteristics.

As with selection of the population, the researcher watched out for group errors such as sampling error and non-sampling error. According to Biemer and Lyberg (2003), as cited in Leeuw, Hox and Dillman (2008), sampling error is due to selecting a sample instead of studying the whole population, and non-sampling errors are due to mistakes and / or system deficiencies, and include all errors that can be made during data collection and data processing, such as coverage, non-response, measurement, and coding error.

Survey data is obtained from a sample, but the goal is to learn about the population from which the sample is drawn. According to Graziano and Raulin (2004), in a survey, whenever a sample is used as a basis for generalizing to a population, the researcher will be engaging in a process of inductive inference which is the general process involved in
the use of inferential statistics. The sample must therefore be carefully drawn for it to represent adequately the population to which the researcher wants to infer.

Furthermore, the design of a survey and the precise data collection procedure affect the data analysis stage. Statistical methods must suit the sampling procedure as well as the data collection procedure. Surveys are carried out in a specific cultural context, which may also affect the way these aspects influence survey quality i.e. whether or not it is ‘fit’ for use.

From each school chosen, the researcher administered questionnaires to junior teachers, senior teachers, heads of Departments, Deputy School Heads, and the school Heads. The School Heads had a set of questionnaires and interview guides different from the others. For questionnaire distribution the researcher did it personally. Questionnaires were delivered personally and directly to the school heads who would in turn distribute them to their staff members as per request. The researcher would then return to the school for collection of the completed questionnaires. This was meant to ensure maximum return of the questionnaires. However it was not possible to have a maximum return because, like in any other research, some of the questionnaires got lost and were not returned. In one instance 7 out of 10 questionnaires were returned deliberately uncompleted.
3.5. **Data collection instruments and procedures**

3.5.1. **Instrumentation**

The researcher’s major survey instruments were the questionnaires and the interview schedule in which the questions were listed in a fixed order for all respondents. According to Graziano and Raulin (2004), the language in the questionnaires must be clear and concise and must be appropriate for the population being studied. The questionnaire must be well within the reading and comprehension abilities of the respondents.

There were basically two categories of questions; demographic and content questions. Demographic questions comprise factual items seeking information about the respondent such as age, sex, occupation; marital status e.t.c. Content items seek information on respondents’ opinions, attitudes, knowledge and their behaviour (Graziano and Raulin 2004).

Instruments which were used in this research were questionnaires for teachers, heads of departments, deputy school heads and school heads. Interview guides were provided for the heads for extra administrative data.

The use of questionnaires and interview guides were appropriate for this study since the purpose of this survey was to use questionnaires or interviews to collect data from respondents in a sample about their characteristics, experiences, and opinions in order to generalise the findings to a population that the sample represented.
While there are many advantages associated with the use of questionnaires, there are also considerable disadvantages.

According to Borg and Gall (1996), questionnaires are easy to administer. The researcher is able to reach out to many respondents within a short period of time. In this case, the researcher reached out to respondents in nineteen schools in three educational districts. Questionnaires were administered to five O’ level teachers, five Heads of Departments, and the school head from each of the nineteen selected schools. This means that ten members of staff from each of the nineteen selected schools were supposed to be involved and the researcher had to reach out to all of them, so the questionnaire was ideal.

With the questionnaire method of data collection, respondents respond in a free and sometimes comfortable environment and are likely to provide honest responses (Borg and Gall, 1996). Many issues can be addressed in one questionnaire. Questionnaires save time. They are not as time consuming as observations and face to face interviews.

They are also economic to administer. Welman et al (2005) highlighted that survey questionnaires provide the greatest possibility of anonymity, since no name or identification is given. In most cases the questionnaire may be returned without any indication of who has completed it. As a result, the chances are better that such questionnaires are completed honestly. These are some of the advantages this researcher benefited from employing the questionnaire method of data collection.
However, critics say that questionnaires cannot probe deeply into respondents’ opinions and feelings. This the researcher did not experience in this particular research. He actually got more data than he bargained for.

According to Borg and Gall (1996), once questionnaires have been distributed it is impossible to modify the items, even though they may be unclear to some respondents. Respondents may misunderstand some of the aspects on the questionnaire and go on to provide false information. However the respondents in this survey were well-versed with the issues being dealt with. Judging from the responses got through pilot testing, they had an appreciation of and responded well to the aspects in the questionnaires.

According to Borg and Gall (1996) some respondents may not return the questionnaires or may delay in returning the questionnaires. Some may lack knowledge and understanding on the topic. The ‘hallo’ effect, according to Borg and Gall, may work against honest responses. Some respondents may be tempted to impress the interviewer and may provide biased responses. The researcher guarded against this by leaving the questionnaires with the respondents to complete in their own time independent of the researcher. Also he gave the respondents ample time to respond without having to hurry them and putting too much pressure on them as this could have driven them into providing false data and perhaps trying to impress the researcher thereby leading to invalid and unreliable research results.
3.5.2. Instrumentation Procedure

In this survey, self report measures were employed for the purposes of data collection. These measures, according to Borg and Gall (1996), refer to paper-and-pencil instruments in which individuals respond to items that reveal aspects of personality, self-concepts, learning styles, attitudes, values, interests, and other related constructs. These measures do not require individuals to perform but generally ask them to reveal whether they have the traits, thoughts, or feelings mentioned in the items. The self report measure has a lot in common with a test which refers to any structured performance situation that can be analyzed to yield test scores, from which inferences can be made about how individuals differ in the construct measured by the test.

One criterion for judging the suitability of a measure to be used in research, according to Borg and Gall (1996), is to have standard conditions of administering and scoring. This will increase objectivity of the research. A test with standard conditions of administering and scoring is called a standardized test. This applies to self report measures as well. If a researcher obtains significant findings in his research study, other researchers will be able to replicate and expand on it because they can create the same conditions of administration and scoring by consulting the test manuals if standardized self report measures are applied.

This researcher administered the questionnaires in person. This he did by visiting the schools in question to meet the respondents. He requested for their cooperation and implored them to respond to questionnaires which he left with them and collected later.
For interviews, the researcher made appointments with the school heads whom he interviewed and got on the spot responses.

To ensure maximum collection of administered questionnaires the researcher made appointments with the respondents for the dates and days he would return to collect the responses. In some cases he got maximum cooperation and found the completed questionnaires ready for collection, while in other instances extension of time would be effected in order for the respondents to complete the questionnaires as expected.

Below is a highlight of the questionnaires which were distributed and collected for analysis in order to make meaning.

1. Total questionnaires distributed : 183
2. Total questionnaires returned : 161 = 87.98%

3. Total Questionnaires Distributed To:

   a) Schools established before independence : 83
      - Total returned : 74 = 89.15%
      - Questionnaires not returned : 9 = 10.84%

   b) Schools established after independence : 100
c) School heads  
- Total returned : 18
- Total returned : 17

d) School heads in schools established before Independence  
- Returned : 8=100%

e) School heads in schools established after Independence  
- Returned : 9=90%

f) Teachers in schools established before Independence  
- Returned : 66=88%
- Not returned : 9=12%

-Total returned : 87=87%
- Questionnaires not returned : 13=13%
3.5.3. **Primary Data Sources**

Primary data source refers to original works of research or raw data without interpretation or pronouncements that represent an official opinion or position. Included among the primary sources are memos, letters, reports and records, among others. Primary sources are the most authoritative because the information has not been filtered or interpreted by a second party (Cooper and Schindler 2008). In this case the researcher used primary data in the form of records of O’ level results for the concerned schools kept at the Harare Provincial offices. This data served as evidence of the discrepancy that exists between secondary schools established prior to independence and those established after attainment of independence in Zimbabwe in 1980 (table 1.) This data also served as the stepping stone to this research.

The other source of primary data for this research was the data that the researcher got after administering questionnaires to respondents in the schools in which the research was conducted. According to Cooper and Schindler (2008) primary data are sought for their proximity to the truth and control over error. They add that the main advantage of using primary data is that it can be easily relied upon as the data is fresh, without any contamination. Although it is time consuming, primary data is required to ensure that the views and input from primary sources concerning the subject matter is incorporated.
3.5.4. Secondary Data
Secondary data is information collected by others for the purposes which can be different from the current researcher’s objectives. The relevant secondary data sources can be archived documents, periodicals, search engines, textbooks and journals. According to Saunders et al (2009) the advantage of using secondary data is that it is easy to collect and readily available. It is also available from multiple modes unlike primary data. Secondary data have had at least one level of interpretation inserted between the event and its reading (Cooper and Schindler 2008).

For the purposes of this research this researcher made use of a variety of secondary data sources as alluded to in chapter 2. Saunders et al (2009) however, are of the opinion that the use of secondary data has its limitations in that it may not purely satisfy the researcher since the data were collected by someone else for some other purpose. If the initial researcher made an error then the current researcher may also carry the same error, and hence the importance of trusting the authenticity of sources before one uses the information.

3.6. Data presentation, analysis and interpretation procedures
After collection of the questionnaires upon completion by the respondents the researcher coded the responses in each questionnaire. It was necessary to employ statistical techniques to analyse the data. For this purpose the researcher employed the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) to input and analyse data. The research study used data analysis tools of the quantitative approach including analysis of variance (ANOVA), Hypothesis testing, the mean scores, respondent and factor analysis, and percentiles. Where necessary, content analysis was used. The data was then presented in form of
simple statistics or frequencies aided with tables, bar graphs, gant charts and pie charts. Interpretation of the same then followed.

3.7. Triangulation, validity, and reliability issues consideration

To ensure validity of the data collected and reliability of the instruments used the researcher applied stratified sampling in which every stratum or sub-group in the population was represented. In this case these sub-groups were made up of the school heads, heads of departments, and other O’ level teachers. Also the sample (49.5% of the total population) was representative enough to produce valid results. For reliability purposes the researcher pilot tested the questionnaires. A pilot study was carried out in two Trust schools after which necessary improvements were effected on the instruments.

Ethical considerations refer to the application of a code of conduct or expected societal norm of behaviour while conducting research (Canavan 2007). In this case the researcher observed the legal and ethical requirements consistent with acceptable research work. Firstly the researcher armed himself with a confirmation letter from the Zimbabwe Open University as evidence that he actually was a student.

The researcher then sought permission from the Harare Provincial Director to carry out research in the schools under his jurisdiction. This permission was granted through a letter which was directed to those responsible such as the District Education Officers and the school heads. This letter took the researcher through up to the end of his research.

The researcher made an undertaking to respect the rights, privacy, dignity and sensitivities of the research population and also the integrity of the offices and schools
which were involved in the research. He also promised and ensured confidentiality of whatever transpired between him and the population. The information provided was treated with the strictest of confidence. To ensure confidentiality, the respondents were not asked to identify themselves. They remained anonymous.

To preserve the integrity of ongoing office work and school activity, the researcher made appointments and notified the education offices and schools of his intentions in advance. This ensured that there would not be any disruptions to day to day activity.

A promise, which is yet to be fulfilled, was made that the research findings would be made available to Harare Provincial Education Centre and anyone else to whom promises were made. No secret or selective communication was done which could have prejudiced any of the stakeholders.

As is ethical with research, the researcher requested in his questionnaires that the respondents be as honest as they could. At the same time the researcher assured the respondents that their responses would be as anonymous as was consistent with research. The researcher stuck to the promise.

3.8. Summary
This is the third chapter in this thesis. It highlights the methodological procedures which were applied in the course of the research. It touches on research paradigm, design of the study, population covered, the sampling procedure, instrumentation applied and the instrumentation procedure. In all instances a justification of the methodology applied is
made. Also the chapter outlines the data presentation and analysis procedure. Not to be left out are the legal and ethical considerations which were taken into account in the process of carrying out the research.
CHAPTER 4
DATA PRESENTATION, ANALYSIS, AND INTERPRETATION

4.1. Introduction
This chapter is the fourth in the series. In this chapter data that were collected are presented, analysed and interpreted to bring out the meaning of what was found as a result of the research. This is done through the use of simple descriptive statistics or frequencies aided with tables, pie charts, bar graphs and content analysis.

The findings are discussed in view of the reviewed literature, objectives of the research and the hypothesis. Respondent analysis is also done in this chapter. Tables for respondent analysis are also presented to make understanding of the process easy. The findings are interpreted and linked to the objectives of the research.

4.2. Data presentation:
Data collected during the researching exercise were presented as follows:

Table 2: Coded Responses from School Heads In Schools Established Before Independence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Section A</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.Gender</td>
<td>Number Of Respondents</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>8</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.Age in years | Number of respondents | Code |
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Below 25</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Age Group</td>
<td>Number of Respondents</td>
<td>Code</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------</td>
<td>-----------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26-30</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>31-35</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>36-40</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>41-45</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>46-50</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>50+</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>7</td>
</tr>
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</table>

3. Academic Qualifications

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Qualification</th>
<th>Number of Respondents</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
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<tr>
<td>O’ level</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>A’ level</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Diploma/certificate in education</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bed/Bsc/BA</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>MA/MSC/MPHIL</td>
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<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4. Secondary School Teaching

<table>
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<th>Years</th>
<th>Number of Respondents</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10</td>
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<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-15</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16-20</td>
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<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20+</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Section B

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question number</th>
<th>Strongly agree-5</th>
<th>Agree-4</th>
<th>Disagree-2</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>0</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<td>1</td>
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<td>8</td>
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<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
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<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
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<td>5</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>4</td>
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<td>0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**KEY**

- Questions 1 to 12 were about the constructs on which the research was based:
1. Question 1 was on motivation of the school heads by their salaries, incentives and other benefits.

2. Question 2 was on the time of the construction of the school.

3. Question 4 was on the support the school got from authorities.

4. Question 5 was on the results the students got at particular schools.

5. Question 6 was about adequacy of infrastructure and other resources.

6. Question 7 was about the home background and the learners’ performance.

7. Question 8 was about timorousness of fees payments.

8. Question 9 was about support from the SDCs/SDAs.

9. Question 10 was about teachers’ training and experience.

10. Question 11 was about the enrolment system for learners getting into Form 1.

11. Question 12 was about the heads’ supervision of their teachers’ and students’ work.

**Table 3**

Responses from teachers and heads of departments in schools established prior to independence. Section A

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>1. Gender</th>
<th>Number Of Respondents</th>
<th>Code</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>20</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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</tr>
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<td>Above 50</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Section B

Questions 1 to 20 were about the following constructs on which the research was based:

1. Teachers’ salaries, incentives and other benefits.
2. Efficiency and effectiveness of the schools’ administration.
3. Results of learners enrolled from Form 1.
4. Streaming of learners according to ability.
5. Allowing learners to repeat before they sat for O’ level if they did not perform well.
7. Learners’ backgrounds.
8. Learners’ nutritional status.
10. Resources found at the school.
11. The school curriculum.
12. Practice for O’ level examinations.
13. Class size.
15. School infrastructure e.g. (15) laboratories and (16) libraries.
16. Teachers’ training, experience and commitment.
17. Teachers’ confidence and trust in the learners.
18. Learners’ confidence and trust in their teachers.
19. Learners’ respect and admiration for high achievers.

Table 4.

Responses to questions1to20 of section B by teachers and heads of departments in schools established prior to attainment of independence

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Question no</th>
<th>Strongly agree-5</th>
<th>Agree-4</th>
<th>Not Sure-3</th>
<th>Disagree-2</th>
<th>Strongly disagree-1</th>
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Table 5

Responses from teachers and heads of departments in schools established after attainment of independence. Section A

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<thead>
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<th>1. Gender</th>
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<td>Female</td>
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<table>
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5. Current Grade

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5. Current Grade

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5. Classes/Forms Taught

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Section B

<table>
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<th>Question no</th>
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<th>Not sure-3</th>
<th>Disagree-2</th>
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4.3. Data analysis and interpretation

4.3.1. Analysis of variance

Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was carried out to test whether there was any significant difference in the results from the schools established before and after independence.

H₀: Results from schools established before independence are similar with those established after independence.

H₁: Results from schools established after independence are different from those established after independence.

Table 6

Analysis Of Variance (ANOVA)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
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<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
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<td>.250</td>
<td>.137</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
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<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>25.750</td>
<td>15</td>
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<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

We reject the null hypothesis since our p-value (0.717) is greater than 0.05 and therefore conclude that at 5% level of significance there was difference in the results from the two types of schools.
In the period between 2005 and 2010 learners in schools which were established prior to independence performed much better than those in schools which were established after attainment of independence in 1980. By looking at the table of results even without carrying out any calculations it can be noticed that learners in schools established prior to independence performed much better than those in schools established after independence. Not only was this the case during the period in question but even beyond this period. What was important was therefore to establish the reasons why this is the case.

4.3.2. School Heads’ Responses:

4.3.3. Working Environment

A good working environment is an environment which is conducive to teaching and learning. This is also an environment in which the school head and teachers are free to showcase their capabilities without a lot of restrictions.

i) 38% of school heads in schools established prior to independence and 18% of the school heads in schools established after attainment of independence respectively agreed that their schools were autonomous. According to these school heads’ responses, schools established before independence were more autonomous than their counterparts. The autonomy that they enjoyed enabled them to lead the schools in such a way that they produced good results. Where there is reasonable autonomy there is a better chance of making sound and reasonable decisions pertaining to the management of the school by the school head. This is the advantage which school heads in schools established prior to independence had and was lacking in schools established after attainment of independence.

Schools established after independence are under closer monitoring by the authorities than the latter. However this does not mean that the authorities provide enough
support in terms of infrastructure and equipment. Instead, the monitoring translates into interference which sometimes has adverse repercussions on the learner. There is need to decentralize authority if schools heads are to be efficient and effective. This in turn promotes learner performance, attainment and achievement at O’ level. This is demonstrated in the bar graph below:

ii) Supervision of learners and the teachers creates an environment conducive to learning and production of acceptable results. It is amongst some of the most important responsibilities of a school head. It has an impact on the performance of both the teacher and learner. Good school heads carry out this kind of supervision. In response to the question of supervision, most of the school heads from both schools said that they regularly supervised their teachers’ and students’ work. Supervision or lack of it is therefore not amongst the underlying factors accounting for the differences in academic attainment by the learners in pre-independence and post colonial established secondary schools in Harare’s high density areas.
4.3.4. **Material and Moral Support.**

Material and moral support is one of the most important aspects in terms of school development and management. Its provision or absence has great impact on learner academic performance, attainment and achievement.

It is interesting to note that 25% of the school heads from schools built before 1980 were not sure whether there was moral and material support from their authorities, whilst the same percentage from their colleagues in schools established after attainment of independence said there was no support. This is so because of the autonomy that schools established prior to independence enjoyed. They could not realize where there was support or not. This is not the same in schools established after attainment of independence. The school heads in these schools felt that they needed more material and moral support from the other stakeholders to their schools. This is one of the aspects responsible for the differences in academic performance attainment and achievement by the learners in the two kinds of school. There was latent material and moral support in schools established prior to attainment of independence. This promoted their learners’ performance and attainment. The lack of such support could be the reason behind the fact that some schools established after attainment of independence are still at infancy stage in terms of infrastructural development. Most of these schools do not have such infrastructure as libraries and laboratories. This is demonstrated in the diagram below:
4.3.5. Teachers’ Qualifications and Experience.
Requisite training and experience are paramount attributes contributing to the effectiveness of the teacher. In this research it came out as a result that the teachers in the schools concerned differ in terms of training, discipline and experience. This had an impact on the performance, attainment and achievement by the learners in the two types of school.

Deducing from the responses from school heads it was found that teachers from schools which were established before independence were more trained and experienced than their counterparts in those established after independence. 19% of the school heads from both kinds of school strongly agreed that the teachers in their schools were well-trained, disciplined, and experienced. 31% of the school heads in the schools established prior to independence agreed that the teachers in their schools were well-trained, disciplined, and experienced while 24% of school heads in schools established after independence also agreed. 7% of the school heads in the schools established after independence strongly disagreed that the teachers in their schools were well-trained, disciplined and experienced. This means that differences in results in the two kinds of school were
influenced by this factor. This was, in fact, one of the strongest contributory factors to the discrepancy that existed between the learners in the two kinds of school. This is shown in the bar graph below:

![Bar Graph](image)

**4.3.6. Learner Background.**

The background of the learner contributes significantly to their performance, attainment and achievement. The background is made up of the social class to which the learner belongs as well as those things found in their environment. This determines what they have or have not as well as what they experience before, during and after the time they will be at school.

It is important to note that 32% of the school heads from the schools established before independence and 45% of the school heads in the schools established after attainment of independence agreed that their pupils’ backgrounds affected their performance. This means that academic performance and attainment by learners from both kinds of school were affected by their home backgrounds. However, while this was the case, a larger percentage of those in schools established after independence were affected. This is a
factor that was remotely associated with the differences in the learners’ performance and attainment. This is demonstrated in the bar graph below:

![Bar graph showing differences in learners' performance and attainment before and after independence.](image)

### 4.4. Teachers’ and Heads of Departments’ Responses:

![Histogram showing teaching experience before and after independence.](image)
4.4.1. Teaching Experience
The training and experience that the teacher has determines how they deliver their lessons and manage their classes. The more the training and experience the teacher has, the better the delivery and ultimately the performance of the learners.

There more experienced teachers in schools established prior to independence than those in schools established after attainment of independence. Only 7% of the teachers in schools established prior to independence agreed that they had less than 5 years of experience while 31% of the teachers in schools established after independence agreed to the same, as shown in the bar graph above. In schools established the distribution of experienced and inexperienced teachers was well balanced. There was blending of youth and experience. This was confirmed by the school heads’ responses to the same question, as has been alluded to earlier on. The aspect of training and experience emerged as one of the most influential factors to the discrepancy in attainment by the learners in the two types of school.

4.4.2. Salary, Incentives and other Benefits
As demonstrated in the graph above, most of the teachers interviewed were not motivated by their salaries, incentives and other benefits. This was more so in the schools constructed after attainment of independence. This is shown by the high percentage of respondents who disagreed, to the notion that their salaries, incentives and other benefits motivated them to work to their best ability. In the case of females it showed that only half of them were motivated by incentives, to work. This was the case in both the schools established prior to independence and those established after independence. To say this is one of the reasons why there are discrepancies in the trend of results would be an overstatement. Only a few schools had respondents who agreed that they were motivated by the incentives provided by their schools from the General Purpose Fund of the school. Worth noting was that the issue of incentives was a sensitive and contentious one and most of the respondents were unwilling to discuss it.

4.4.3. Learner Welfare and Background.
The background of a child will determine his or her performance in school. Most of the children from both schools came from poor backgrounds. However, 42 and 41 percent of teachers from both schools, respectively, said the learners were well fed whilst 39.7 and 26 percent from schools established before and after independence, respectively, said they were not sure. 47 percent of the teachers said the parents of the learners did not show concern over their children’s performance against 27 percent of the parents who showed some concern over their children’s school work. This therefore was not a contributory factor to the differences in performance and attainment by the learners in the two types of school.
4.4.4. **Screening and streaming.**

55% of the schools established after independence were not screening students going for Form 1. This can be shown by the graph below.

**Question:** *At this school, only those students with best results at Grade seven are screened and selected into Form 1.*

The Intelligence Quotient of the learner determines the learner’s performance, attainment and achievement. The learner’s performance at Grade 7 is mainly the result of their Intelligence Quotient. Selecting learners for Form 1 on the basis of Grade 7 results is tantamount to grouping fast learners and enrolling them while grouping below average learners and denying them entry into Form 1 at that particular school. The schools established prior to independence selected those learners with a high Intelligence Quotient and leave the rest for the schools established after attainment of independence. This results in a discrepancy whereby the schools established after independence enroll learners with low Intelligence Quotients and this has an impact on the O’ level result in those schools.

15% of the respondents from schools established prior to independence agreed that their schools selected only those students with best results at Grade 7 into Form 1 while 5% strongly agreed. In schools established after independence only 3% agreed or strongly agreed to the same fact. This shows that a discrepancy existed in terms of how recruitment was done in the two types of school. This recruitment discrepancy translated into performance and attainment discrepancy. Of all the underlying factors accounting for the different academic attainment trends, screening proved to be the major reason.
4.4.5. **School Culture and facilities.**

**Question:** *Students at this school are well-equipped with such things as textbooks, sewing machines, and computers, agricultural and building tools for their*
The results in the bar graphs above are showing that some schools are well equipped whilst others were not. A large percent was saying they were well equipped. We can safely say the schools were having enough resources in both the schools established before and those established after independence respectively. It implies therefore, that the issue of equipment is not one of the major factors accounting for different academic attainment trends in the two kinds of school.

Question: There is a functional and useful library for teachers and students which helps improve results at O’ Level.
1. The pie charts above are showing that schools established before independence had more libraries (47%) as compared to those established after independence. Most of the schools established after independence did not have a library in place. Up to 70% of the schools did not have libraries.

It is interesting to note that 42 percent of the respondents from schools established before independence agreed that the schools had libraries as compared to 42 percent of those from schools established after independence who disagreed that there was a library in place. Schools established after independence did not have enough laboratories. Only 37% of the schools had laboratories and the rest did not have. 55% of schools established before independence had laboratories. This contributed a lot to the different academic attainment trends in the two types of school.

iii) Library Availability

A library is one of the most useful and important parts of the infrastructure within a school set up. The availability or lack of it has a great impact on the academic performance and attainment of the learner. Supplementary reading before during and after school time assists learners in a big way. Learners who are deprived of the
opportunity to have and use a library are seriously disadvantaged. The same applies to learners who are deprived of a laboratory in which to demonstrate and carry out scientific experiments. This is the predicament which the learners in schools established after attainment of independence encountered every day. They therefore could not match those in schools established prior to independence in terms of academic attainment.

As part of the school culture schools established before independence: 50% of the schools were streaming classes according to their performance while others were not. Students who were not doing well were allowed to repeat. Up to 70 percent of teachers said there were extra lessons conducted.

All the schools were found to be having hot seating and big classes and the teachers’ responses pointed out that this tended to affect the students’ performance. It was difficult for them to attend to individual students’ needs. This was obtaining in both the schools established prior to and after the attainment of independence. This was not one of the major factors accounting for the different academic attainment trends.

4.4.6. Teachers’ Working Conditions

Up to 36% and 40% of the teachers from schools established before and after independence respectively said their salaries and incentives motivated them to work while more than 60% and 52% respectively said that their salaries and incentives did not motivate them. This could not be one of the factors contributing significantly to the different academic attainment trends.

The majority of the teachers said they were handling very big classes such that attending to individual pupils’ needs was very difficult. However they said that they believed in the students’ potential to perform much better.
Teachers from both types of schools said that they were also well qualified for their jobs. Most of the teachers were having at least a diploma. This affected students in both types of school positively and the construct did not qualify to be amongst the underlying factors accounting for different academic attainment trends in schools established prior to and after attainment of independence, respectively, in Harare’s high density areas. This is shown by the graph below:

4.4.7. Underlying factors accounting for the differences in attainment.
Whilst there are a number of factors responsible for learner performance, attainment and achievement, the following contributed to the differences in the pass rate:

a) Form One Intake:
Chief amongst the underlying factors accounting for different academic attainment trends in schools established prior to and after attainment of independence was the difference in criteria used for selecting learners into Form 1 by the two types of school.

Schools established after attainment of independence were taking in learners with poor results at Grade 7 for Form 1 unlike those schools established prior to independence which had a wide range from which to select and chose the best. This affected the results at O’ level as the learners in schools established after independence would be average and below average learners.

Learners are supposed to choose schools of their choice within their vicinity but the schools established prior to independence were overwhelmed by applicants even from outside their areas of jurisdiction. They therefore had a wide range of choice regardless of where the students came from. They therefore selected the best leaving the ‘chuff’ for the schools established after independence.

b) Teachers’ perception:

Teachers in schools established after attainment of independence viewed their students as residue rejected by schools established prior to independence since they would have failed to secure places there due to poor results at Grade seven. The treatment these students got from their teachers was full of contempt and this negatively affected their performance at O’ level.

c) School Facilities:

Most of the schools built before attainment of independence had laboratories and libraries while most of those established after independence did not have. This in turn affected the reading
culture in the schools and contributed to the differences in academic performance and attainment.

c) Teachers’ perception:

Teachers in schools established after attainment of independence viewed their students as residue rejected by schools established prior to independence since they would have failed to secure places there due to poor results at Grade seven. The treatment these students got from their teachers was full of contempt and this negatively affected their performance at O’ level.

d) Teachers’ experience:

In schools established before attainment of independence there were more experienced and more qualified teachers than those in schools established after independence. This caused the discrepancy when it came to the O’ level results.

e) School Autonomy

To a certain extent, school autonomy accounted for the different academic attainment trends in the schools in question. There was more autonomy in schools established prior to independence than in those established after attainment of independence.
CHAPTER 5
SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1. Summary
The research aimed to analyse O’ level results obtaining in secondary schools established before and after the attainment of independence in Harare’s high density areas. The major focus was on why learners in schools established after the attainment of independence in 1980 perform poorly when compared to their counterparts in schools established before the attainment of independence in Harare’s high density area schools. A number of researchers and authors both local and internationally have outlined and discussed several factors which impact positively or negatively on learner performance, attainment and achievement. This being the case, however, none of them bothered to research on the factors leading to a situation whereby there is a discrepancy in terms of performance, attainment and achievement by learners in schools established prior to independence and after respectively.

Why do learners in post-colonial established secondary schools perform poorly when compared to their counterparts in secondary schools established prior to independence? This was the statement of the problem.

This being a quantitative type of research there was need to hypothesise it.

- Results in secondary schools established before independence are similar to those in secondary schools established after independence in Harare’s high density areas.(Ho)
Results in secondary schools established before independence are different from those in schools established after attainment of independence in Harare’s high density areas. (H1)

These were the hypotheses for the research. The first was the null hypothesis while the second was the alternative hypothesis. The null hypothesis was proved to be wrong. The implication is that there was evidence that learners in secondary schools established after attainment of independence performed poorly when compared to those in secondary schools established prior to attainment of independence. What was left was to look at the factors responsible for the discrepancy. The objectives of the study were to find out factors which negatively affected pupil learning and achievement in post-colonial established schools and caused them to underperform at O’ level especially when compared to their counterparts in pre-independence established secondary schools; to establish to what extent stakeholders influenced learning and academic achievement in the two types of school; to identify areas which needed attention in post colonial schools in order to improve learner performance, attainment and achievement; and find out how best the school heads and the teachers in post colonial established secondary schools could assist in the attempt to eradicate the discrepancy that existed between two types of school in terms of learner academic performance, attainment and achievement.

The significance was such that the research would assist the researcher as an educational practitioner, reveal the present state of the education system, help stakeholders, school heads and teachers in the concerned schools as well as influence policy.

All this was stated in chapter 1 which also included delimitation and limitations to the study and definitions of special terms.
The findings of the research proved that:

1) Learners in secondary schools established prior to independence perform much better than those in schools established after attainment of independence in Harare’s high density areas.

2) In general the performance, attainment and achievement of learners in schools found in Harare’s high density areas are influenced by factors such as: school heads’ supervision of teachers’ and pupils’ work; moral and material support from the stakeholders; learners’ welfare and backgrounds; teachers’ working conditions including salaries incentives and other benefits; learners’ attitudes towards their schoolwork; school culture and facilities including availability or lack of things such as textbooks, sewing machines, computers, agricultural and building tools for lessons; teachers’ qualifications among others. However these were not the factors directly responsible for the different academic attainment trends in the two types of school.

The underlying factors accounting for different academic performance, attainment and achievement trends by learners in schools established prior to independence and those in schools established after independence are that:

i. In secondary schools established prior to attainment of independence there are more experienced teachers than those in secondary schools established after attainment of independence. Many teachers in the schools established prior to attainment of independence have more than twenty years of secondary school teaching experience unlike in schools established after attainment of independence where only few of the teachers have more than twenty years of teaching experience. More teachers in the schools established prior to attainment
of independence than in schools established after attainment of independence teach up to A’ level and this experience enables them to contribute significantly to learner performance and attainment at O’ level.

ii. Most of the schools established prior to independence have libraries and laboratories while those established after independence do not have. This has a great impact on the performance, attainment and achievement of the learner in the two types of school.

iii. Secondary schools established prior to independence select and enroll for Form 1 learners with the best results at grade 7 and leave those with poor results to be enrolled in schools established after attainment of independence. These schools therefore enroll average and slow learners which has a bearing on the O’ level results. This is the major reason why learners in schools established after attainment of independence perform poorly when compared to those in schools established prior to attainment of independence in Harare’s high density schools.

iv. Teachers in schools established after attainment of independence know that their schools enroll learners for Form 1 after those schools established prior to independence. They therefore perceive and treat their pupils as ‘residue’ rejected by those in schools established prior to attainment of independence. This has a significant contribution to the difference in academic performance, attainment and achievement.

v. Schools established prior to independence are more autonomous than those established after attainment of independence. To some extent this has an impact
on the academic performance, attainment and achievement by the learners in the two types of school.

5.2. Conclusion
A discrepancy exists in secondary schools found in Harare’s high density areas whereby learners in schools established after attainment of independence perform poorly when compared to those in schools established prior to attainment of independence. This is caused by a variety of reasons herein referred to as the underlying factors accounting for different academic performance, attainment and achievement trends in the concerned schools. These reasons have been outlined above.

With such a scenario at hand it is prudent for stakeholders in the concerned schools to see to it that they put in place and implement plans that will see secondary schools established after attainment of independence being elevated to the same status as those established prior to attainment of independence. Learners should be able to choose a school of their choice without necessarily having to enroll at a school because it will be the only one left with vacancies. Schools should also have the luxury to enroll as they wish.

5.3. Recommendations
5.3.1. The researcher recommends that:
1) The ministry responsible for education in secondary schools, the responsible authorities and parents within the vicinity of the secondary schools established after attainment of independence make some effort to complete construction of these schools. Some of them are still in infancy as far as their construction phases are concerned.
2) Each school in the high density areas of Harare should have in place a library and a laboratory.

3) Schools should perform to an extent that they are free to choose those learners they feel deserve a place as their pupils when it comes to enrolment at Form 1. They should market themselves through production of good results even against all odds.

4) Teachers should apply themselves fully to their duty without any discrimination especially in terms of learners’ previous performance.

5.3.2. **For further research:**
- There is need for further research on the reasons why some schools are still in the early construction phases more than thirty years after attainment of independence.

- There is need to find out how development, in terms of infrastructure, can be implemented in schools established after attainment of independence.

- There is also need to carry out further research on what can be done to close the gap between schools established after attainment of independence and those established prior to independence in terms of learner academic performance, attainment, and achievement at O’ level.
REFERENCES


APPENDICES

i. Letter of authority

ii. Sample of O’ level results

iii. Questionnaires