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TABLE OF CONTENTS

The Relationship between Stock Market Returns and Parallel Market Exchange Rates in Zimbabwe: An Econometric Investigation (2000 to 2007) Njabulo Nkomazana	1
Teaching the Student vs Teaching the Subject and the Dilemma of the Teacher in Zimbabwe : The Case for Citizenship Education Ngoni Makuvaza	17
The Adoption of E-learning at Midlands State University: Opportunities and Challenges Lockias Chitanana	28
Pupils' Perceptions and their Teachers' awareness of continuity in Mathematics instruction at the Primary-Secondary transition phase in Gweru Urban Schools in Zimbabwe. Million Chauraya	43
Language harmonisation in Southern Africa: Toward a Standard Unified Shona Orthography (SUSO) for Botswana, Mozambique and Zimbabwe Wiseman Magwa	58
Challenges faced in the Implementation of the localised Advanced Level Geography Syllabus: A case of Harare High Schools. Simon Tirivanhu Marimo	73
Book Reviews	
Masango Mavi by Emmanuel. M. Chiwome Advice Viriri	86
Call for Papers and notes for contributors	93

EDITORIAL

In this edition of the DYKE, we have the usual range of articles. This issue consists of six research articles and one book review.

The study by Njabulo Nkomazana empirically tests the existence and nature of relationship between ZSE returns and three macroeconomic variables, the main one being the parallel market exchange rates. Engle-Granger's Cointegration analysis and the Error Correction Model (ECM) techniques were employed on monthly time series from 2000 through to 2007.

Ngoni Makuva's paper seeks to examine and expose the dilemma current teachers in High Schools are facing in their teaching profession as they attempt to fulfill the main business of their profession, which is teaching. This paper is informed by the assumption that teachers are taught what teaching involves at colleges of education and therefore should know what the holistic enterprise of teaching entails.

The opportunities and challenges that hinder the successful adoption of e-learning technology as a medium of instruction at the Midlands State University are discussed in Lockias Chitanana's article.

The study by Million Chauraya examined Form 1 pupils' perceptions of continuity in mathematics instruction at the primary-secondary school transition phase and their teachers' awareness of such continuity. The study also sought to examine Form one teachers' awareness of the need for curriculum continuity in mathematics instruction and to identify efforts they made to enhance it in their practice

Wiseman Magwa's article seeks to discuss the harmonization of the Shona language varieties namely ChiKaranga, ChiKalanga, ChiKorekore, ChiNambya, ChiNdau, ChiManyika, ChiBarwe, ChiHwesa, ChiTeve and ChiZezuru. The paper argues that a unified standard Shona writing system is achievable by way of prescribing a common alphabet, common spelling, common punctuation and a common word division system.

Simon Marimo's article examines the challenges met in implementing the localized 'A' Level Geography Syllabus. Recommendations to improve the implementation of the syllabus are suggested.

Lastly, Advice Viriri gives a critical review of Emmanuel Chiwome's book, Masango Mavi.

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN STOCK MARKET RETURNS AND PARALLEL MARKET EXCHANGE RATES IN ZIMBABWE: AN ECONOMETRIC INVESTIGATION (2000 TO 2007)

By

Njabulo Nkomazana¹

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Abstract

The study empirically tests the existence and nature of relationship between ZSE returns and three macroeconomic variables, the main one being the parallel market exchange rates. Engle-Granger's Cointegration analysis and the Error Correction Model (ECM) techniques were employed on monthly time series from 2000 through to 2007. Empirical results point to the existence of a long-term relationship between ZSE returns and parallel market exchange rates, international oil prices and money supply (M2) growth. Money supply growth is observed to exert the highest influence on stock market returns. The parallel market exchange rate, though reported to be insignificant in the short-term, regains its influence in the long run in explaining ZSE returns. However, the importance of international oil prices on ZSE returns is noted to be minimal. Despite some minor influences being observed in the short-term, they vanish away in the long term. These findings seem to point to the fact that ZSE investors or potential investors should pay more attention to the trends of the aforementioned variables for them to be able consistently beat the market. Nonetheless, other factors that are not incorporated in the study should also be considered in making investment decisions, since the aforementioned variables are reported to account for only 53.3 percent of the variations in ZSE returns, signifying the importance of the omitted factors.

Introduction

Over the past decade, Zimbabwe has experienced one of the longest and severe economic recessions since its Independence in 1980. Among other problems, the economic turmoil has given birth to a foreign currency crisis, which in turn has brought about a vibrant parallel market for foreign exchange that has robbed business from the formal market. The parallel market for

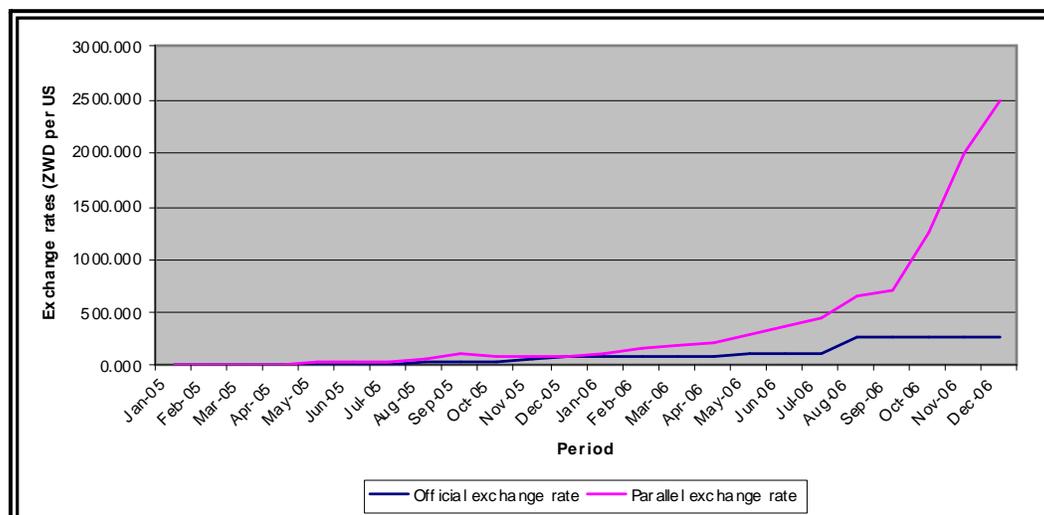
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foreign exchange, which dates back to 1998, has grown immensely over the years and is now the main source of foreign currency for many individuals and corporates. Although the precise volume of trade in the parallel market is not known, it undoubtedly exceeds that of the official market, as the parallel market is now the ‘only market of resort’ for most economic agents. The incessant growth in the parallel market can be attributed to foreign currency shortages and myriad of exchange controls in the official exchange market. The exchange rates in the two markets have thus varied enormously, with official rates remaining relatively fixed and the parallel rates varying in response to macroeconomic developments in the country. The government has been deprived of the much-needed foreign currency by the parallel market, which has even attracted the participation of authorized dealers such as banks and *bureaux de changes*¹. Nkomazana and Tambudzai (2008) assert that depressed export earnings, declining Foreign Direct Investments (FDI) and falling capital inflows such as loans and Balance of Payment (BOP) support are the major causes of the foreign currency crisis in the country.

In recent years, the importance of the parallel market on the overall economic activities has continued to grow. Virtually, all transaction prices in the goods, real and financial markets are implicitly indexed to the parallel market exchange rates. Monetary authorities acknowledge the rampant use of the parallel market exchange rates, especially in the Real Estate Sector, “where now most rentals are being indexed to parallel market exchange rates, leading to relentless monthly escalations” (Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, 2007:16).

Other sectors of the economy have also followed suite with some financial institutions in “deliberate utilization of local liquidity in purchase of foreign currency from the illegal parallel and underground foreign exchange markets” (Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, 2004:15) and “importers/exporters are doing deals in the parallel market” (Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, 2007:79). The Reserve Bank Zimbabwe (RBZ) on the other hand, has continued to control the operations of the official market with the goal of stabilizing the value of the Zimbabwean dollar, but the parallel market premiums have continued to increase monotonically, especially since 2006. This can be attributed to the culture of speculation and rent-seeking behaviour among dealers and high inflation expectations among economic agents. See Figure 1 below.

¹*Bureaux de changes* in Zimbabwe were closed in November 2002 on allegations of being “conduits for parallel market dealings” in the country. See 2003 National Budget Statement.

Figure 1: Official and Parallel Market Exchange Rates in Zimbabwe (2005-2006)

Source: Techfin Research (2008)

On the other hand, the Zimbabwe Stock Exchange (ZSE) has also recorded significant growth over the same period. Despite some periodic slumps, the industrial index over the period, especially since 2005, has been increasing sharply, characterised by frequent and persistent bull runs. The two ZSE indices (industrial index and the mining index) made historical record highs and broke them on daily basis. The industrial index for instance, rose from a mere 16.77¹ points in January 2000 to close 2007 at 1 911 538 282 points (Zimbabwe Stock Exchange, 2007). Stock returns remained attractive over the period, as they were continually above the rate of inflation. As such, many investors rallied to the stock market to hedge their funds from the hyperinflation that characterised the financial landscape during the period of study. The negative real returns in the alternative money market and the illiquidity of the Real Estate Sector market led to increased participation on the ZSE by both individuals and corporates who previously shun the stock market.

In general, both stock prices and parallel market exchange rates over the period of study were moving in tandem. The rise (or fall) in exchange rates make the ZSE shares cheaper (or expensive) for foreign investors. Thus, fluctuations in exchange rates should have an impact on equity investment decisions. It is therefore, imperative to investigate whether there is a meaningful economic relationship between the two variables.

The purpose of this study is to establish the existence and nature of relationship that exists between ZSE returns and the parallel market exchange rates in Zimbabwe. The study seeks

¹ All figures quoted in this paper reflect the revalued new currency implemented on 31 July 2006 by the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe

to make a contribution to financial literature. Published literature on macroeconomic risk factors and the ZSE is hard to find as it has not received a great deal of attention among academic researchers. The results from this study are important to investors eyeing the ZSE since the link between the parallel market exchange rates and stock market returns may be used to predict the path of stock market developments. The study helps investors to forecast ZSE returns using exchange rates and other macroeconomic risk factors included in the study. Also, the understanding of stock price-exchange rate relationships can be used by policy makers in predicting the country's economic cycles.

The paper tests the hypothesis that there is either a positive or negative long run relationship between ZSE returns and the parallel market exchange rates against the alternative hypothesis that there is no long run relationship between the two variables.

Having outlined the introductory part of the study, the remainder of the paper is organized as follows: review of related literature, research methodology, empirical findings and finally the concluding remarks.

Literature review

There are many theories and models that predict an association between macroeconomic variables and stock market returns. Of special interest in this section are those that link exchange rates, international oil prices and money supply to stock market returns and are discussed under theoretical and empirical literature reviews.

Theoretical Literature Review

This section outlines the Dividend Discount Model (DDM) and the Arbitrage Pricing Theory (APT) and how they link the aforementioned variables to stock returns.

The Dividend Discount Model (DDM)

The Dividend Discount Model (DDM), set forth by Gordon (1962), predicts that the price of a share of common stock is the present value of all future cash flows (dividends) that it is expected to provide over an infinite time horizon. Mathematically, this relationship can be spelt as follows:

Where: P_j - is the price of Common stock j, D_t - is the dividend during period t, k - is the required rate of return¹ on stock j,

After simplification, equation 1 decomposes to:

$$P_j = \frac{D_1}{k - g} \dots\dots\dots 2$$

Where: D_1 - is the dividend in period 1 and g - is the constant growth rate of dividends.

Equation 2 posits that the share price depends on future dividends (D_1) and the required rate of return (k) on that share. It therefore, follows that any macroeconomic variables (such as exchange rates) that may have an influence on future dividends or the required rate of return (discount rate) should have an influence on the share price. In other words, economic variables, which impact future cash flows and the required returns, can therefore be expected to influence share prices.

2.1.2. Arbitrage Pricing Theory (APT) 2.1.5 Arbitrage Pricing Theory (APT)

The Arbitrage Pricing Theory (APT), which was developed by Ross (1976), contends that returns on an individual stock will depend upon a variety of variables in an economy. It is built on the premise that investors take advantage of arbitrage opportunities, though they are short-lived. This means that the return of any asset can be written as follows:

$$R_i = E_i + \mu \dots\dots\dots 3$$

Where: R_i - is the total return on asset i , E_i - is the expected return component and μ - is the unexpected return component.

The surprise in return (μ) comes from market-wide (m) and firm specific (ε) sources, such that equation 3 can be written as:

$$R_i = E_i + m + \varepsilon_i \dots\dots\dots 4$$

The market-wide risk (m) under the APT is measured by economic fundamentals and can therefore be decomposed to specific economic factors as follows:

$$R_i = E_i + (\beta_{i1}\sigma_1 + \beta_{i2}\sigma_2 + \dots + \beta_{ik}\sigma_k) + \varepsilon_i \dots\dots\dots 5$$

For $i = 1 - N$

Where: β_{ik} - Reaction in asset is return to movement in a common factor, σ_k - multiple factors expected to have an impact on the returns of all assets (economic fundamentals) and N - number of assets.

The APT allows investors to focus on a handful of significant factors that seem to determine the returns on most assets, the number and identity of the factors being determined by the

¹ The required rate of return is determined by the risk commensurate with the stock's cash flows.

data on historical returns. While the APT focuses on individual security returns, it may also be used in an aggregate stock market framework, where a change in macroeconomic variables could be seen as reflecting a change in an underlying risk factor regarding future returns.

Empirical Literature Review

Studies investigating the relationship between macroeconomic variables and stock returns have been carried out in a number of stock markets using varying types of datasets. However their results are not conclusive and are mixed. Some of such studies are outlined below.

Kwon *et al* (1997) investigated the relationship between stock returns and macroeconomic variables in Korea for the period 1980 to 1992, using regression models and monthly data. Their results indicated that the Korean stock market is more sensitive to foreign exchange rates, trade balance, money supply and the production index as opposed to inflation and interest rate-related variables. Evaluating the Korean share market, Kwon and Shin (1999) also established a long run relationship between stock prices and the following macroeconomic variables: industrial production index, exchange rates, trade balance and money supply. Ibrahim (1999) analysed the dynamic interaction of macroeconomic variables and stock prices in Malaysia using Cointegration analysis and Granger-causality tests. He used monthly dataset from January 1977 to June 1996 and documents that stock prices are Granger-caused by changes in the official reserves and exchange rates in the short-run.

Muradoglu *et al* (2001) also tested the long run relationship between stock returns and monetary variables in Turkey using daily observations from January 1988 to April 1995. Their results reveal that the influence of monetary expansion and interest rates disappeared and foreign currency prices regained their expected influences in the long run. In another Malaysian study, Ibrahim and Aziz (2003), using cointegration and Vector Autoregression (VAR) estimated the following long run relationship between stock prices and some selected macroeconomic variables:

$$KLCI = 0.2476IP + 4.5197CPI - 0.395M2 - 1.5787EXC - 9.0716 \dots\dots\dots 6$$

Where: *KLCI* - Kuala Lumpur Composite Index, *CPI* - Consumer Price Index, *IP* - Real Industrial Production Index, *M2* - Monetary aggregate and *EXC* - Exchange rates

The results in equation 6 reveal a positive long run relationship between stock prices and the industrial production and the consumer price index. A negative long run association is found between stock prices and money supply () and the exchange rates.

Similarly, Jiranyakul and Brahmasrene (2005), in a Thailand study examined the relationship between the stock market index and the following macroeconomic variables: consumer price index, money supply, interest rates, industrial production index and nominal exchange rates. Using Johansen cointegration tests, they estimated the following long run relationship between the stock market index and the four macroeconomic variables during the pre-financial crisis:

$$SET_t = -1.078IP_t + 0.975M2_t - 8.44EX_t - 1.496OP_t \dots\dots\dots 7$$

(0.655) (0.358) (2.212) (0.169)⁴

Where - SET_t denotes the logarithm of market index of overall market value of listed stocks in the Stock exchange of Thailand, IP_t is the logarithm of the total industrial production index, $M2_t$ is the logarithm of changes in broad money supply, EX_t is the logarithm of the nominal exchange rate measured in terms of Thai bath per US dollar and OP_t is the logarithm of oil prices measured in US dollars per barrel.

Equation 7 reports a positive relationship between money supply ($M2_t$) and the stock price index. All other variables, including exchange rates, are negatively related to the stock market index.

Wickremasinghe (2006) also examined the causal relationship among stock prices and macroeconomic variables in the Colombo Stock Exchange of Sri Lanka for the period January 1985 to December 2004. Making use of Johansen's cointegration test, Error Correction Models, variance decompositions and impulse response functions, Wickremasinghe (*ibid*) found that there are both short and long-run causal relationships among stock prices and macroeconomic variables in Sri Lanka. He noted three feedback or bi-directional causal relationships between the stock prices and three-month fixed rate, US share price and Gross Domestic Product. Uni-directional causality was found running from stock prices to CPI, money supply and to the US dollar exchange rate. In essence, these results indicated that stock prices in Sri Lanka could be predicted using macroeconomic variables, of which the exchange rate and money supply were among them.

In an Indian study, Chakravarty (2006) examined the relationship between stock prices and a set of macroeconomic variables, using monthly time series data from April 1991 to December 2005. His findings suggested that neither exchange rates Granger-cause stock prices nor stock prices Granger-cause exchange rates.

Other researchers who have documented at least a relationship between stock returns and variables under study include Islam (2003) for Malaysia, Moskalenko (2005) for Ukraine, Karamustafa and Kucukkale (2005) for Turkey and Gan *et al* (2006) for New Zealand.

⁴The numbers in parenthesis are the standard deviation.

Methods

Model Specification

The relationship between ZSE returns and parallel market exchange rates was modeled in the following functional form:

$$SMR_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 EXC_t + \alpha_2 OP_t + \alpha_3 MS2_t + u_t \dots\dots\dots 8$$

Where - SMR_t is the stock market returns in period t , EXC_t is the parallel market exchange rate in period t , OP_t is the Crude oil price per barrel in US dollars in period t , $MS2_t$ is the money supply (M2) in period t and u_t is the disturbance or error term.

A linear functional form was considered appropriate for this study because the data does not have to be transformed first and “one can obtain explicit, or analytical, solutions of the coefficients of such models” (Gujarati, 2005:573). Other researchers in the same scope of study who have used the same functional form *inter alia* are Oyama (1997), Ibrahim and Aziz (2003) and Adrangi *et al* (2000).

Data types and sources

A sample of monthly time series data from January 2000 through to December 2007 was used in this study. The selection of the study period was guided by data availability and the need to capture the most recent developments in the stock and foreign currency markets. The end-of-the month values of the industrial index were used as a proxy for stock prices in Zimbabwe. It is from these values that the stock market returns⁵ were calculated, using the following formulae:

$$SMR_t = \frac{P_{t+1} - P_t}{P_t} * 100 \dots\dots\dots 9$$

Where - P_t is the end-of-the month value of the industrial index in period t , P_{t+1} is the end-of-the month values of the industrial index in the next period, $t+1$.

Explanatory variables chosen for the study are the parallel market exchange rates (EXC), crude oil prices (OP) and money supply (MS2). The description of each of these variables is given in Table 1.

⁵Although stock returns consist of both price changes and dividends, the study considered only the price variations component since dividends in absolute terms tend to be stable over time. It is the movement in prices, which constitutes the volatile component of stock returns. The omission of dividends, thus should not pose a problem.

Table 1: Description of Explanatory Variables

VARIABLE	DESCRIPTION
Parallel Market Exchange Rates (EXC)	This is the end-of-the month exchange rate of the US\$1 in the Parallel market.
Crude Oil Prices (OP)	This is the US dollar price of crude oil per barrel for OPEC ¹ countries.
Money supply (MS2) growth	Broadly defined monetary aggregates as measured by M2 ² monthly growth rates.

The industrial index figures were obtained from the ZSE and the parallel market exchange rates were sourced from Techfin Research⁸. Crude oil prices were obtained from Energy Information Administration website and money supply figures from the RBZ.

Estimation Procedure

The estimation of empirical results proceeded as follows:

Step 1: Stationarity tests

As a prerequisite, each time series was examined for stationarity⁹. Mathematically, a time series

X_t is said to be stationary if:

It is generally accepted that most time series used in economic analysis are non-stationary in nature. Thus, regressing a non-stationary series on another non-stationary series may produce spurious results, such as misleading high R-squared and unreliability in the forecasting power for long-term case (Gujarati, 2005). The Augmented Dickey Fuller (ADF) unit root tests were employed for this purpose. The ADF test consists of the following regression:

⁶ OPEC stands for the Organisation of Oil Exporting Countries.

⁷ M2 is defined as notes and coins in circulation plus demand deposits with the banking system plus savings deposits plus less than 30 day deposits with the banking system.

⁸ Techfin Research provides economic and investment research and consultancy services to Zimbabwe market.

⁹ Mathematically, a time series X_t is said to be stationary if:

$$E(X_t) = \mu, \quad \text{Var}(X_t) = \sigma^2 \quad \text{and} \quad \text{Cov}(X_t, X_{t+j}) = \sigma_j$$

$$\Delta Y_t = \beta_1 + \beta_2 t + \delta Y_{t-1} + \alpha_1 \sum_{i=1}^m \Delta Y_{t-i} + \varepsilon_t \dots\dots\dots 10$$

Where - ε_t is the white noise error term, and $\Delta Y_{t-1} = Y_{t-1} - Y_{t-2}$

Despite the availability of other methods such as the Phillip-Perron (PP) and the Ng-Perron unit root test, most researchers have continued to use the ADF tests because it is available in many econometrics packages. Similar studies that employed the same unit root tests *inter alia* are Bhattacharya and Mukherjee (2001), Ibrahim and Aziz (2003), Islam (2003), Karamustafa and Kucukkale (2003) and Gan *et al* (2006).

Step 2: Cointegration tests

Engle and Granger (1987) have shown that it is quite possible for a linear combination of two (or more) non-stationary series to be stationary. Cointegration means that, despite being individually non-stationary a linear combination of two or more time series may be stationary. The existence of cointegration among a system of economic variables means that they have a long run equilibrium relationship between them (Gujarati, 2005). The Engle and Granger (1987)'s residual-based cointegration test was employed to test for cointegration among the variables under study. This is a two-step procedure involving: (i) Regressing stock prices on macroeconomic variables to obtain Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression residuals, (ii) Testing for the existence of unit roots in the OLS residuals. This test is conducted without the intercept and the trend. The null hypothesis of no cointegration is accepted if the unit root statistics fall below some critical values.

Step 3: Error Correction Model (ECM)

If variables are not stationary at level but cointegrated, the Error Correction Model (ECM)¹⁰ can be used to determine the short run deviations from the long run equilibrium. If variables are regressed in differenced form, valuable long-term relationships are lost between the dependent and the explanatory variables. The error term in the cointegration regression model links the short run behaviour of the variable to its long run value. The ECM was specified as follows:

$$\Delta SMR_t = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \Delta EXC_t + \beta_2 \Delta OP_t + \beta_3 \Delta MSG_t + \beta_4 ECT_{t-1} + \varepsilon_t \dots\dots\dots 11$$

Where: Δ denotes the first difference operator, ECT_{t-1} is one period lag of the error term obtained from the cointegrating equation. It is the error correction term¹¹, ΔEXC_t , ΔOP_t and ΔMSG_t captures the short run impact of all the respective explanatory variables and β_4 measures the speed of adjustment towards the equilibrium value.

¹⁰ ECM is a way of reconciling the *short run* behaviour of an economic variable with its long-term behaviour.
¹¹ It is calculated as follows:

Results and discussion

This section reports the empirical findings of the study. The findings are presented and discussed in the following order: stationarity and cointegration test results, cointegrating equation and the ECM results¹².

Stationarity and Cointegration test results.

The stationarity tests are presented in Table 2. All variables except parallel market exchange rates were found to be non-stationary at level. This means that these variables are random-walk at the level form, that is, they have a unit root. However, they were observed to be stationary after first differencing. In essence, EXC is integrated of order zero, I(0), while all the other variables are integrated of order one, I(1). These results seem to confirm the generally held wisdom that most economic time series are difference stationary and are in tandem with the findings of Ibrahim (1999), Jiranyakul and Brahmairene (2005) and Gan *et al* (2006) who all found that the economic variables that they used were nonstationary and non-mean reverting.

Table 2: Stationarity test results

VARIABLES	ADF Unit Root Tests (<i>with intercept</i>)		ORDER OF INTEGRATION
	LEVEL	FIRST DIFFERENCE	
<i>SMR</i>	-2.565	-9.813***	I(1)
<i>EXC</i>	9.503***	-	I(0)
<i>OP</i>	1.317	-5.743***	I(1)
<i>MSG</i>	-1.880	-6.552***	I(1)
<i>ER</i>	-7.200***	-	CI(0)

Note:

- The ADF critical values for *t*-statistics at 10 percent and 1 percent levels for a model with an intercept are 2.583 and 3.502 respectively.
- *** indicates statistical significance at 1 percent.
- ER denotes residuals estimated from the cointegrating equation. The ADF critical values for *t*-statistics at 1 percent level for a model without a constant and time trend is 2.588.

¹² A full set of original results can be provided upon request.

Employing the Engle-Granger's residual based cointegration test, the residuals from the cointegrating equation were found to be stationary at level, suggesting that the time series are cointegrated, CI(0). This implies that the coefficients of the cointegrating equation can be interpreted as the long run coefficients, measuring the long run relationship between the variables. In effect, there exists a long run relationship between ZSE returns and the parallel market exchange rate, together with other macroeconomic variables included in the study. The stationarity tests for the residuals (ER) are also reported in Table 2 above.

Cointegrating Equation

The estimated long run ZSE returns equation is reported below:

$$\text{SMR}_t = 0.0000526 * \text{EXC}_t + 0.19853\text{OP}_t + 1.352125\text{MSG}_t - 7.262271 \dots\dots 12$$

(3.090)	(0.598)	(5.602)	(-0.653)
---------	---------	---------	----------

$R^2 = 0.533$ $DW = 1.953$ $F - \text{Statistic} = 35.06$

Note: The figures in parentheses are the *t*-statistics.

Parallel market exchange rates and the money supply (M2) growth were significant, while the oil price movements were insignificant in explaining ZSE returns. This means that the stock market returns in Zimbabwe are better explained by exchange rates and money supply movements as opposed to international oil prices.

While the influence of exchange rates on stock returns was reported to be positive, other researchers such as Kwon and Shin (1999), Ibrahim and Aziz (2003) and Jiranyakul and Brahmasrene (2005) documented a negative relationship between the two variables for Korea, Malaysia and Thailand, respectively. However, Gunasekarage *et al* (2004) and Wickremasinghe (2006) in Sri Lanka and Gan *et al* (2006) in New Zealand, observed that exchange rate movements are not very important in determining stock returns. In theory, when the domestic currency depreciates against foreign currencies, it makes the local share market attractive to foreign investors. This should therefore, lead to increased participation in the share trading by foreigners and the stock market index will rise in response, and as such a positive relationship is the most expected, as reported from this study. These variations in the nature of the relationship between stock returns and exchange rates may be due to different levels of development of the capital markets in respective countries.

Monetary expansion is generally inflationary and as such, a positive money supply-stock-price relationship was expected. The positive influence of money supply growth on stock returns is consistent to findings by Gunasekarage *et al* (2004) for Sri Lanka and Nkomazana and Mtetwa (2007) for Zimbabwe, and supports the view that money supply growth has fuelled inflation in the country, thus forcing investors to hedge their portfolios through investing in the risky stock market. Bhattacharya and Mukherjee (2001), however, found no causal linkage between stock prices and money supply in India.

The cointegration equation above also reports the insignificance of international oil prices in explaining stock market returns in Zimbabwe. This may be explained by the speculative nature of the ZSE. In theory, increase in oil prices will be beneficial to oil-exporting countries and as such a positive relationship between stock and oil prices is expected in such countries. On the other hand, oil-importing countries (like Zimbabwe) are expected to envisage a negative relationship between stock and oil prices. In line with theory, and in contrast to the findings documented in this study, Kwon *et al* (1997) and Jiranyakul and Brahmairene (2005) noted the significance of oil prices in explaining stock returns in Korea and Thailand, respectively.

However, this variable should not be discarded since the overall model is significant as inferred from the F-Statistic. The F-statistic of 35.06 is well above 5, using the rule of thumb, showing that the explanatory variables taken together are highly significant in explaining ZSE returns. In addition, the model does not suffer from spurious regression, using the rule of thumb, since $R^2 < DW^{13}$.

A coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.533 means that about 53.3 percent of the systematic variations in ZSE returns is attributable to the explanatory variables in the equation. Other factors not included in this study account for about 46.7 percent of the variation in ZSE returns. A DW statistic of 1.953 is in the neighborhood of 2, thus using the rule of thumb, shows that the estimated long run equation for ZSE returns does not suffer from the problem of autocorrelation.

Error Correction Model Results

Since the time series were found to be nonstationary, but cointegrated, the ECM was used to determine the short run deviations from the long run equilibrium. The results from the ECM are summarized below:

$$\Delta SMR_t = -0.0000112 * \Delta EXC_t + 2.824 * \Delta OP_t + 1.867 * \Delta MSG_t - 0.987 * ECT_{t-1} - 1.524$$

(0.240) (1.580) (6.246) (-8.068) (-0.35)

$R^2 = 0.575$

DW = 1.9713

The obtained results show that the short run changes in parallel market exchange rates have negative effects on stock returns, though not significant. Oil prices are also shown to have a positive effect on stock returns, but it is still insignificant. However, money supply growth is reported to be the only significant variable in the short run. The coefficient of the error term is significant at 1 percent. This coefficient of -0.987 means that about 98.7 percent of the discrepancy between the actual and the equilibrium values of ZSE returns are corrected for in each month.

¹³ This stands for the Dubin-Wison statistic.

Conclusions

From the findings presented above, the following conclusions can be drawn:

- Macroeconomic variables such as the parallel market exchange rates, international oil prices and money supply growth have a long run equilibrium relationship together with ZSE returns.
- The parallel market exchange rates exert a significant influence on the long run ZSE returns. However, this is not so in the short run. Whilst its influence is negative and insignificant in the short-term, it becomes positive and statistically significant in the long-term. The null hypothesis that there is either a positive or negative long run relationship between ZSE returns and the parallel market exchange rates is therefore accepted at 1 percent significance level.
- Money supply growth is the most important risk factor of the three explanatory variables used in this study. Its significance in explaining ZSE returns is apparent both in the short and long-term.
- International oil prices are not among the important risk factors that should be considered by investors eyeing the ZSE, especially in the long-term. Their influence on stock returns is observed to disappear with time.
- Overall, the results indicate that ZSE returns can be predicted from some of the macroeconomic risk factors discussed above. The findings, thus violates the validity of the semi-strong version of the Efficient Market Hypothesis (EMH), that is, publicly available information can be used to consistently earn supernormal returns from the ZSE.
- Investors who are interested in investing in the ZSE should therefore, pay more attention to the parallel market exchange rates and money supply growth rather than international oil prices.
- Since the aforementioned variables account for 53.3 percent of the variations in ZSE returns, investors should also consider other risk factors not discussed in the study when making their investment decisions.

Thus, the present study concludes that the above mentioned variables are important in explaining stock market returns in Zimbabwe, which means that investors who want to earn above normal returns should also pay attention to the behaviour of these variables. Future studies in this area should, however, concentrate on applying other methods such as the General Moments Method (GMM) and should also incorporate other variables not used in this study such as trade balance and foreign exchange reserves as explanatory variables.

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TEACHING THE STUDENT VS TEACHING THE SUBJECT AND THE DILEMMA OF THE TEACHER IN ZIMBAWE : THE CASE FOR CITIZENSHIP EDUCATION

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Abstract

*This paper seeks to examine and expose the dilemma current teachers in High Schools are facing in their teaching profession as they attempt to fulfill the main business of their profession which is **teaching**. This paper is informed by the assumption that teachers are taught what teaching involves at colleges of education and therefore should know what the holistic enterprise of teaching entails. However it has been observed with regret that pressures teachers face in their attempt to be honest to their profession find them in most cases not teaching holistically but partially resulting in rather unconscious pedagogical neglect very much to the detriment of the entire teaching enterprise. The argument of this paper is that, contrary to public opinion, effective teaching should not be measured exclusively by one's ability to make students pass examinations, but rather by one's ability to produce responsible citizens in the learners for it is possible for one to have passed examinations but still be an irresponsible citizen. So teaching should be for responsible citizens. It is the intention of this paper therefore to critically examine these pressures teachers have to put up with in their teaching and to suggest possible ways of lessening them so that the teachers' pedagogical intention is maximally realized for the benefit of all concerned stakeholders but especially the students/learners.*

Background

The teacher today is in a great dilemma.. The dilemma emanates from the enormous pressure being exerted on the teachers by the various interest groups on the education and learning of the learner. These include among others the parents, administrators , the learners and the teachers themselves. These exert pressure on firstly the teacher to 'deliver' or to make the students pass at whatever cost and secondly on the student 'to be delivered' or to be made to pass at whatever cost as well.

The above situation puts the teacher and his profession in a dilemma. The dilemma emanates from whether the teacher should place more emphasis on the passing or learning of the student as the various interest groups seem to put premium on passing rather than learning of the student. In other words which is more important making the student pass or making the student learn or further still are the two co-existent. Is it possible for one to pass examinations without having learnt anything or further still is it not possible for one to teach and make students pass without having them learnt anything. These questions are central to the dilemma of the teacher as they raise fundamental questions on the main activity of the teacher that is teaching. In other words what is the teacher doing when he is teaching or what does his teaching aim to achieve?

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The dilemma can be extended to the learners too. Is it possible for one to say he/she has learnt something if he has failed the formal examinations. Can a parent say his/her child has learnt something if the child has failed the formal examinations.

Introduction

This paper was informed by the response to a casual question I have always been asking my Grad. Dip. Ed, B.Ed. and M.Ed. Philosophy students of 2005,2006 and 2007 during my introductory lectures. I have always been asking the question “What do you teach?”. The response to this question in all the instances from the majority of the students has been :”I teach History, English, Shona, Literature in English, Geography, Mathematics, Ndebele etc.” Those who were from Primary Schools would say “ I teach all the subjects in the syllabus”.

I must say these were honest and innocent responses to a seemingly simple and straightforward question. and I am sure the respondents who were all qualified teachers with a minimum of two years post-qualification teaching experience found nothing untoward in their responses for indeed they were employed to teach either History, Shona, Sociology, Home Economics etc. In any case is it not the case that even when the Ministry of Higher Education advertises in newspapers for teaching\lectureship posts in universities and colleges they clearly state that they want somebody who teaches either History, Divinity, Agriculture , Philosophy, Sociology etc. Nowhere, is it contained in their advertisements that they are looking for ‘ someone to teach students’ History, Philosophy, Psychology etc, etc. It emerged clearly from their answers that they teach subjects and are employed to do just that. One might even hazard to deduce that they are probably taught at the various colleges of education to do just that i.e teaching subjects therefore becoming ‘a case of teaching the way you were taught.’ In fact in colleges of education they are not only taught to how to teach specific subjects but are made to ‘specialize’ in the teaching of those specific subjects.

That the teachers saw nothing amiss in what they were doing reflects what may be referred to as the traditional commonsense view of teaching. The traditional commonsense view of teaching also known as the ‘banking method of teaching’ informed by the traditional pedagogy-one that de- centralises and marginalizes the learner while placing rather ‘exaggerated’ premium on passing examinations as a sign of effective teaching by the teacher and successful learning by the learner. This paper views this thrust as the major cause of not only the dilemma teachers are facing nowadays but also of the corresponding pedagogical neglect.

Teaching the subject – *Teaching the way I was taught syndrome*

The responses given by the respondents above reflect the ‘womb’ the teachers are coming from(Majeke, 1986). They point further to the culture and pedagogical system that brought them up. Accordingly, the teachers in their admitting that indeed they teach subjects not students are at the same time echoing that ‘this is the way they were taught’ . Since this is the way they were taught, and the way they were taught has enabled them to be where they are, so there cannot be any other better way of ‘delivering’apart from ‘teaching the way I was taught’ This syndrome can be explained in one of two ways. Either this is how they were taught at colleges of

education they went for training or this is how they were taught at high school before they trained as teachers. Whichever way one explains it, this paper is arguing that this is not a suitable and appropriate way of teaching especially in post-colonial Africa and Zimbabwe in particular.

This approach is unsuitable firstly because teachers are put under extreme pressure to 'deliver' and so are the learners under similar pressure to be 'delivered'. The pressure comes from various interested parties chief among them parents of learners, learners themselves, headmasters and society to some extent. These pressurize teachers to deliver at whatever cost. As a result teachers are found employing all 'tricks' to deliver, some of them very dirty, which include opening examination papers before hand and then teaching them examination questions only (The Herald, November, 14, 2006). Students especially at colleges and universities are found being sexually exploited by unscrupulous lecturers so that *they can be 'made' to pass their courses* (The Manica Post, June, 15-21, 2007) and not that they pass their courses..

This approach is unsuitable because the theory that informs it is outdated and has been replaced by other more progressive theories. The particular approach under scrutiny is the banking method of teaching informed by the Eurocentric pedagogy characterized by its insistence on 'content' and examinations at the expense of the learner (Freire, 1974 ; Shujaa. 1994). This approach, notwithstanding the criticisms made against it, is still very popular among educators and that might probably explain why it is still informing practice of teaching in our schools today. The reasons why this pedagogy is still prevalent in our schools are varied. One of the reasons that come readily to mind is the fact that 'old habits die hard' and as such it becomes easier to do the familiar than otherwise. Flowing from that it however needs to be submitted that if change is to be successful, as there had been some effort to change this pedagogy, it needs to be rooted in a well thought out theory and philosophy to inform it, in the absence of which, the change will be ineffective as it will be reduced to mere rhetoric and activism. Similarly, teaching as practice, if it is not informed by some theory to give it direction and vision will end up being haphazard with teachers employing folk and commonsensical pedagogies in their teaching characterized by the 'teaching the way I was taught syndrome'.

It is thus being suggested that the desire to move away from Eurocentric pedagogy is there, but what is and has been missing, is/ was the will and commitment to a new pedagogy. What is missing in our teaching is a well - articulated theory or philosophy to inform pedagogy in our schools from pre-school to university. A well thought out and articulated philosophy to inform both education and pedagogy is imperative, especially given our history if we are to instrumentally use education meaningfully to consolidate our sovereignty and to check the possible encroachments of neocolonialism (Gibson, 1986; Makuva, 1996). A philosophy or theory is necessary if our education is to have direction and to produce the desired products at the end of the process (Makuva, 1996; Nkhumah, 1970).

However, because teaching in this context is central, to the realization of the desired goals of our education system, it equally means therefore that, it, as practice must be informed by a sound theory or philosophy as well. If teaching is not informed by a well articulated theory it

will be reduced to ‘mere activism’ whereby practitioners do not know whether to *teach subjects students or to teach students subjects and why*. The tendency unfortunately is to do the familiar and commonsensical i.e teaching the way they were taught. What is being argued for therefore, is that teachers should not just teach (because that is the way they were taught themselves) but rather they should teach according to a particular pedagogy evolving from a particular philosophy. Thus, this paper is arguing for Afro – dialogical pedagogy as the pedagogy that should inform education and teaching in Zimbabwe with a view of deconstructing negative legacies of Eurocentric pedagogy (Dei, 1994; Shujaa, 1994). The point of departure of Afro – dialogical pedagogy is on Afrocentrism and dialogue where Afrocentrism is pointing to the content that must be interrogated by the teacher while dialogue refers to the of the manner of the interrogation by the teacher to bring about the intended learning in the students. However, for the moment we take a short brief at Afrocentrism.

Afrocentrism – A Justification

One’s perception and interpretation of reality is largely determined by one’s situatedness within space and time. Implying that it is quite possible for two people perceiving the same reality to give it different if not conflicting interpretations. This further implies that all perception and interpretation is subjective.. This view we are proposing has epistemological implications. It means that knowledge and the theories that bring it about are equally subjective and subject to biased. Subjective and biased as all knowledge is from a particular perspective or point of view (Giroux, et. al., 1989).

Accordingly, our conception of teaching should be determined and influenced by our existential situatedness in Africa and as Africans who are no longer ‘objects’ but ‘Subjects’. This conception of teaching is further influenced by our commitment to Afrocentrism, a view which asserts that both “African indigenous cultural values, traditions, mythology and history may be viewed as a body of knowledge dealing with the social world, and that Afrocentricity is an alternative, non – exclusionary, non – hegemonic system of knowledge informed by African peoples’ histories and experiences (Dei 1994 : 4). Thus, Afrocentrism maintains and advocates for knowledge that must take cognizance of the Africans’ unique historicity, existentiality and situatedness. In other words Afrocentricity is about the interrogation, investigation, deconstruction and reconstruction, interpretation and understanding of phenomena from a perspective grounded in African- centered values.

Furthermore, it is about the validation of African experiences and histories as well as a critique of the continued exclusion and exteriorisation of African knowledge from educational texts, mainstream educational knowledge and scholarship. Bielawski (1990: 29) supports this quest for validation and inclusion as he says “indigenous knowledge is not static, an unchanging artifact of a former lifeway. It has been adapting to the contemporary world since contact with ‘others’ began and it will continue to change”. It is accordingly a quest for authenticity and recognition, a critique of paradigms and theories of knowledge from the ‘north’ that tended to define and marginalize the African.

Afrocentricity is therefore challenging the notion of knowledge as given and monopolized in favor of knowledge as lived and experienced. The challenge is not being pursued in the spirit of stubborn academia but rather in the quest and spirit of existential possibilities with a view to making an impact on the lives of Africans that hitherto were based on those theories and paradigms. Such theories and paradigms that are being challenged in this context are the ones relating to pedagogy. Pedagogy and not the content or the curriculum is of special concern to this paper because the content or curriculum minus the teacher is potentially dead, it is only through the intervention and activation by the teacher that it becomes alive or assumes life. Accordingly, the teacher can either abuse or misuse it, consciously or otherwise. Shujaa(1993 :265) puts this point very vividly when he says “ when discussing African – centered education I believe that more emphasis should be placed on pedagogy than on education. My reason for this is that pedagogy conveys the importance of the teacher to the education process while curriculum is too often reduced to documentation”. Thus the role of the teacher in any pedagogy is indeed critical for the success or failure of any pedagogy rests with the teacher.

Afrocentrism is challenging pedagogies that tend to marginalize not only the learner but more so the content of that which the learner is made to learn. It is arguing that the content of the education should be informed by the learners culture. Not that foreign knowledge is to be discarded completely but that foreign knowledge should be included but from an African perspective. Foreign knowledge should be considered only in so far as it projects the African cause. Just as African history was only taught in colonial days to authenticate theories the ‘north’ had about Africa so even European history should be taught in order to deconstruct, explode and correct the very same myths and distortions Europe had about Africa. This is precisely the reason Afrocentrism advocates for Afrocentric pedagogy as the only suitable pedagogy to check the ongoing influence of Eurocentric pedagogy in our schools as evidenced in the ‘ teaching the way I was taught syndrome’ with its over-emphasis on teaching subject and not the learner. However, it must be submitted that this calls for commitment to the African cause. It calls for people who are committed to African-centered thinking and African way of constructing and interpreting reality. Particularly, it calls for teachers who are committed to this particular way of interpreting reality for it is “the African – centeredness of the teacher that determines the African – centeredness of the teaching”(Shujaa, 1994). More importantly it calls for teachers who are committed to dialogue.

Afro – dialogical Pedagogy : A Compromise

The paper has so far attempted, firstly, to explain the dilemma current teachers are facing in their effort to teach effectively and the pressures they have to face from different stakeholders and secondly, to offer an alternative pedagogy namely Afro-dialogical pedagogy.. Afro – dialogical pedagogy is informed by Afro – centered education that uses dialogue as a mode of teaching or pedagogy. Content is important for any teaching to be meaningful should have content and this perspective argues that the content of the curriculum must be domesticated or Africanised. Notwithstanding the inclusion of bodies of knowledge from elsewhere in line with the demands of the global village, what we are saying is that those ‘knowledges’ must be

interrogated from an African perspective and must be seen to be serving the African cause. The second point of departure on Afro – dialogical pedagogy is on the teacher and the pedagogy he adopts to interrogate the curriculum. Precisely because content is neutral and inactive it therefore needs the right kind of teacher with right type of pedagogy to activate it and to give it the right kind of flavor. Accordingly, this paper is arguing for dialogical pedagogy as the type of pedagogy to interrogate the Afrocentric curriculum.

The dialogical method is the cornerstone of critical and liberative pedagogy. It is a reaction against the traditional monologue or teacher talk characterized by the mechanical transfer of knowledge where the teacher does all the talking while the learners passively listen. It is, in other words a critique of the traditional banking method of teaching. The dialogical method of teaching originates from the very nature of the human being that acknowledges that human beings are both talking and communicating beings. In other words human beings are dialoging beings As they will be dialoging, they will be talking or communicating, reflecting on reality thereby making or remaking it and as they are engaged in this reflection they will be creating and recreating knowledge. In any case, knowledge needs to be constantly remade in line with changing conditions and circumstances, for there is no knowledge that is final or absolute, all knowledge is contingent. Precisely because knowledge is a product of communication and reflection by people on their concrete existential conditions it is thus a social product and as such cannot be monopolized by any individuals not even a teacher.

Accordingly, within a teaching – learning situation knowledge should be arrived at dialogically through interaction between two cognitive ‘subjects’ namely the subjects who *relatively* know (the teachers) and the subjects who are *seeking* to know (the learners). Implying that of the two, there is no one who should claim exclusive monopoly over knowledge for they should be both engaged in a mutual search and enquiry for knowledge. In fact according to this perspective the teacher and the educatee have to be both learners and both have to be cognitive subjects in spite of their being different since both are partners in the remaking and recreating of knowledge thus both must be involved in the search for it. Consequently, teachers must be aware of the gnosiological cycle, that is the distinct moments in which people learn namely the production of knowledge and the knowing of knowledge (Freire, 1973).

Knowledge as far as possible should not be produced elsewhere as has been the tradition and then simply transferred by the teacher onto the learner ready – made for students to consume. Rather, learners should be actively and rigorously involved in both moments or stages namely in both the production of knowledge as well as the consumption or knowing of it. If we involve them we center them and we do not we exteriorise or de – center them. If we separate the two moments and then involve the learners only at the last stage i.e the consumption stage, knowledge will be meaningless and irrelevant to the learner as it had been during colonial days and then schools will be reduced to ‘tuck-shops or stores’ for selling knowledge whose special ‘salesmen’ are teachers, and I would like to think that neither teachers are comfortable with the idea of being reduced to simple salesmen nor learners to being passive ‘consumers’.

It needs however to be pointed that the dialogical method does not strictly imply that the teacher and the educatee are equal but rather they are partners in the search for and in the making and remaking of knowledge. The teacher has a certain gnosiological or intellectual advantage and experience over the learner in selecting the object course for inquiry and this should be about it all. Having exercised this advantage they go back to being partners for having chosen the object for inquiry does not mean that he has exhausted all the possible avenues and dimensions in knowing the subject as he relearns the subject through interrogating it with students. In fact, it is quite possible that students might bring in other dimensions and 'stories' to the subject under study that he never knew and assimilating those dimensions and stories he widens his knowledge base. Accordingly, it is being contented in line with post-modernism that the teacher can not be the 'author' of all 'stories' that come into the classroom for interrogation, he should accept that pupils have the ability and capability of bringing in new stories into the teaching-learning situation. If they cannot, the teacher should actually take it upon himself to create that culture. The teacher therefore remakes his cognisability through the cognisability of the educates (Shujaa, 1994). Thus, the ability and extend of the teacher to know the object of interrogation is remade and buttressed every time through the students own ability to know and to develop critical comprehension in themselves. The dialogical method, thus becomes the sealing together of the teacher and the learner in the joint venture of knowing and re-knowing. So, instead of transferring knowledge statistically as a fixed possession of the teacher, the dialogical method demands a dynamic approximation towards the object of study between the teacher and the learner.

The dialogical method also has further relational implications for the educator and the educatee. Precisely because both are supposed to be partners in the joint enterprise of searching for knowledge it therefore means there is no one who dominates the other. The relationship unlike in the traditional pedagogy that is characterized by an 'I-it', Subject-object, inferior-superior, vertical and antagonistic relationship, here the relationship is an 'I-thou' horizontal relationship characterised by empathy, love and mutual respect for one another. The learners because they are respected and involved in the learning at the two crucial stages as discussed above will become committed to and more responsible for their learning.

The hallmark of Afro-dialogical pedagogy is on dialogue and this is what distinguishes it from the 'teaching as I was taught' folk pedagogy informed by the banking method of teaching characterized by teacher monologue and teacher salesmanship and learner consumerism. The justification of Afro-dialogical pedagogy as a suitable pedagogy for Africa and Zimbabwe in particular in light of the dilemma outlined above comes from two or more fronts.

Firstly, its de-centering of African content into the curriculum not as a matter of course but as a conscious and deliberate action. This position was corroborated aptly by Shujaa (1993; 266) when he submitted that Afro-centered pedagogy "involves a purposeful learning about African cultural history and critically reinterpreting what one has been taught" (emphasis mine). Indeed, the learning must be purposeful and not incidental and it must transcend simply consuming it into critically reinterpreting it. Yes, it has to be critically reinterpreted in view of distortions and falsifications imbedded in it that had been hitherto taught as the only truth. Indeed, this paper must be considered

and understood within the spirit of reinterpreting what people had been taught as regards the merits of 'teaching the way I was taught'. It must also be read within the context of culturally de-rooting the African back into his autochthonous indigenous culture.

Secondly, after de-centering African content, Afro – dialogical education advocates not for any teacher to teach, for any teacher can teach any content presented to him to teach in any manner and most likely the teacher will teach the way he has been taught., unless of course the teacher will have been taught himself in the appropriate way. Afro – dialogical pedagogy calls for a particular teacher, one who is committed to Afrocentrism not only as an appropriate pedagogy for Africa but even more so as a way of life. It calls for that teacher who has been transformed and continues to be transformed by Afro – centered way of thinking, living and interpreting reality. Shujaa(1993) sheds more light on this when he admits that Afro – centered thinking is a process of personal transformation that brings with it responsibility for changing oppressive social conditions. We hasten to point out that the particular teacher need not necessarily be African though it is preferred if he were an African.

The other very important justification for Afro – dialogical pedagogy lies in the methodology to be adopted by the Afrocentric teacher in interrogating and teaching Afro-centered content(Dei, 1994). Since content is neutral any teaching style or methodology can be adopted on it as long as it brings about the desired educational aims, accordingly, the dialogical method of teaching has been adopted in this instance. It has been adopted as it seems to bring about some compromise between 'teaching the subject' and 'teaching the learner'. Dialogue and a culture of it, are important especially in the present era where we are trying to run away from borrowing and importing solutions and paradigms to solve our existential challenges in Africa and Zimbabwe in particular from 'them'. Thus, a culture of dialogue needs to be nurtured starting from the classroom setting, so that as students leave school they are able to dialogue critically and meaningfully about issues that affect them.

Teaching the learner the subject - Citizenship education considered

The basic question informing and running through this discussion is : 'what should teachers teach and why ?' This question seems rather too simplistic and superfluous as it indeed was, to my respondents earlier on, for it seems like the wrong question at this point in the development of education in our country. However, notwithstanding its apparent simplicity, this question happens to be very important and has serious implications for theory and practice of education in this country. Deducing from the dilemma the teachers are facing in their teaching it would appear like teachers are not the only ones who seem not to know what they should be doing when they are teaching and why. Learners on the other hand are not excluded from this confusion, they too do not seem to know what should happen to themselves when they are being taught. Indeed parents and society at large also seem not to know what should happen when they send their children to school.

However, if we rephrase the question it might lose some of its simplicity and become a very relevant question. If we rephrase it thus : 'Should they teach subjects to learners or should they teach learners subjects'. The two questions now become loaded. Before responding to

them there is need to explain them a bit further. It must be pointed out that contrary to popular view the two questions are different as their foci are different

‘Teaching subjects to learners’ has the subjects or curriculum as its focus or point of departure. To the teacher who teaches subjects to learners, the emphasis is on the curriculum, syllabus, and examinations that must be passed at all costs. The role or place of the student or the learner in this set up is peripheral, secondary or marginal as the content is the Subject while the student is the ‘object’. The prime concern of the educator in this situation is for the student to pass examinations at the end of the teaching by the teacher and learning by the student.

‘Teaching learners subjects’ on the other hand is the reverse of the above set- up where the student is the ‘Subject’ while the content is the ‘object’. In this context the learner is the main focus or concern of the teacher. The teacher should be more concerned about whether or not the student has learnt something evidenced not so much by passing some examinations but in positive change of behavior. Admitted, some form of testing must be in place but examinations should not be construed as an end but rather a means to an end, the end being a good and responsible citizen.

Accordingly, in view of the preceding tension between the two perspectives of teaching this paper is arguing for education and teaching for citizenship. In other words the aim of teaching at whatever level of teaching and learning should be for citizenship. What is being contented here is firstly a compromise and then an extension of that compromise. True, teachers must teach ‘something’ if students are to ‘learn’ something. However, emphasis should not be on the teaching but rather on the learning of the student. Putting undue premium on ‘teaching’ leads to the teacher wanting to examine the student in order for him to establish how well he has taught and not so much how well the learners have learnt. Accordingly, emphasis should be on the learning of the student and along with it comes the issue of testing to establish whether or not the student has indeed learnt something. Popular opinion seems to suggest that the only way to establish whether the student has learnt something is through examinations. We are saying examinations are a necessary but not a sufficient instrument of testing the ‘learnability’ of the student. Examinations are just a short-term measuring strategy. What we advocate for is not for a document which says ‘X’ has passed but rather evidence from the way ‘X’ lives and conducts his life that indeed say ‘X’ passed. Our conception of ‘passing’ is much broader than the current conception that limits passing to the passing of examinations in a formal teaching-learning setting. Our position with respect to ‘passing’ maintains that one’s passing of examinations must be corroborated by quality of life one leads thereafter. This is being submitted against the background that most of the people who have ‘passed’ are the ones on the forefront of the so many social ills like the so – called ‘white – collar’ crimes and corruption currently bedevelling our society. If the people who have ‘passed’ are the ones responsible for the social malaise society finds itself in then something needs to be done especially either to the instrument or the system which declares them to have passed or not. In light of this we are arguing for education and teaching that produces responsible citizens.

We are hypothesizing that teaching whose testing is on whether the graduates are responsible citizens is a better form of teaching than the one that emphasizes on passing formal examinations and yet the graduates therefrom are irresponsible citizens. Nyathi(2007) expounds on the idea of citizenship idea aptly when he argues that “responsible citizenship is all about ensuring that individuals play their part in ensuring that the country is a better place to live in”, free of corruption, violence, robbery and all forms of vices(The Herald, Saturday, 28, July, 2007).

Conclusion and Recommendations

Teachers should teach students/learners ‘contend’ in the form of subjects. However, they should not teach just because that is ‘how they were taught’ because then anyone can equally teach but their teaching must be informed by some well- thought out and well articulated pedagogy if their teaching is to be relevant especially within the Afro – Zimbabwean context. Thus, their teaching should be informed by Afro – dialogical pedagogy projecting African values. It has been hypothesized that this particular pedagogy will ease the current tension they are currently experiencing as regards ‘teaching the subject versus teaching the learner’ as the dilemma emanates from the undue focus on passing examinations as if that in itself is the sign of effective teaching and learning.

Admitted students may pass examinations in their various learning programmes but it would be much better and more desirable if they became good and responsible citizens thereafter. Citizens with a proper work ethic and not a corruption ethic or ‘a get rich quick through whatever means ethic’. We prefer citizens who are prepared to work hard *kwete tuita madhiri*. We hazard to say that it would equally be desirable if some students ‘failed’ examinations but end up being good and responsible citizens – *vanhu vane hunhu*(Makuvaza, 1996b). Thus, we hope for a day when our teaching would produce first, citizens who may or may not have passed examinations but are responsible and secondly dialoging citizens capable of meaningfully and constructively engaging themselves in dialogue over various existential issues in our society such as corruption, unemployment and general miserabilty and being capable of coming up with well reasoned diagnoses.

Precisely because old habits die hard workshops and in-service courses should be held periodically to update teachers on the latest developments in their theorizing and practicing of teaching so that their services remain relevant and not obsolete..

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THE ADOPTION OF E-LEARNING AT MIDLANDS STATE UNIVERSITY: OPPORTUNITIES AND CHALLENGES

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Abstract

This paper discusses the opportunities and the challenges that hinder the successful adoption of e-learning technology as a medium of instruction at the Midlands State University. The respondents of this study were university lecturers who are beginning to use e-learning. The results indicate that e-learning at the Midlands State University is still in its infancy. The use and exploitation of e-learning has been slower than what is expected, especially measured against its potential as a medium of instruction. This research suggests that there are a number of reasons for the limited successes, which are related to infrastructural development, support and pedagogical considerations for e-learning. This study recommends that the university initiates professional development programs with emphasis on e-learning pedagogies as well as the establishment of e-learning support structures.

Introduction

The use of e-learning to deliver high quality teaching and learning is becoming a critical component of university education, and is seen as key to excellence in modern higher education. Research suggests that universities that fail to embrace this technological progress will be unable to meet the needs of a knowledge-based society and as a result will not survive the increasing demand for university education. Volley and Lord (2000) argue that universities that do not embrace the opportunities presented by technological development will be left behind in the race for excellence in education. The traditional academic model of university lecturers as 'the source of knowledge' with a mission to transmit this knowledge through lectures and publications is undergoing profound change. E-learning is bringing about new approaches in content creation and delivery. Learning and teaching are changing as we explore the possibilities presented by new technologies, for example through the creation and use of databases and other digital learning and teaching resources.

In keeping with these global trends in university education, the Midlands State University has committed itself to the use of e-learning technologies and the virtual classroom as a principal

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mode of teaching and learning (MSU Strategic and Business Plans 2005). As one of its key result areas, the university aims at taking advantage of the opportunities presented by the information technology revolution to enhance teaching and learning as well as research output and dissemination of knowledge. In order to achieve this goal, the Midlands State University is rapidly bringing e-learning into the mainstream of its educational programs. Over the last few years there has been a phenomenal expansion in Information Communication Technology (ICT) infrastructure, and support structures. The University has moved rapidly to acquire the relevant ICT infrastructure and support systems necessary to enter the e-learning market place. In some areas this has involved setting up of new structures, while in others it has involved upgrading the existing infrastructure. For example, the University has set up a state of the art Virtual University computer laboratory as well as developing a highly interactive and easy to use e-learning platform called Changamire. The Changamire platform allows lecturers to upload learning materials for students. Through its communication tools, that is, the discussion forums and email, Changamire increases the possibility to expand student/lecturer interaction beyond the classroom. In order to tap the opportunities offered by ICT the University has expanded its local network to include lecturers' offices and selected lecture rooms. To facilitate the smooth adoption of e-learning, additional computer laboratories have been set up at other university sites outside the main campus, including the Hellenic Computer Centre which has been established at the heart of the Gweru city. The University has also established a fibre network and increased its bandwidth to 512 bits/sec.

In order to ensure that students obtain maximum benefits from the information communication development, all students in their first year do a compulsory module on Introduction to Information Technology. This module prepares students in the use of computers as research and communication tools among other things. In addition, the electronic library section of the University Library, gives students special lectures on how to use the Internet to carry out educational research. The challenge now is to support university lecturers in the new teaching and learning environment characterised by easy access to information.

What Is E-Learning?

It should be noted that there is no one universal definition of the term e-learning. The concept of e-learning began decades ago with the introduction of television and over-head projectors in classrooms and has expanded to include interactive computer programmes, 3D simulations, video and telephone conferencing and real-time online discussion groups comprising of students from all over the world. In literature, the term has been defined in various ways. Romiszowski (2004) found more than 50 different definitions of the term. One of the reasons for the multiplicity of meanings offered for e-learning has to do with the confusion arising from the convergence of older traditions, as well as the newness of the underlying technology. For example, the merging of television and computers in products like Web-TV as well as the delivery of web content to devices like the new generation of mobile phones and PDAs (giving rise to talk of "m-learning"), all of which means that e-learning itself is constantly

changing as new opportunities are created by the increasing sophistication and popularity of the underlying technology.

One of the most widely used definitions of e-learning describes it as ‘the use of digital technologies and media to deliver, support, and enhance teaching, learning, assessment and evaluation’ (HEA/LTSN Generic Centre, 2003). Another relevant definition is the one given by the Commission of the European Communities (2001), which sees e-learning as “the use of new multimedia technologies and the Internet to improve the quality of learning by facilitating access to resources and services as well as remote exchanges and collaboration”. Thus, in the broadest sense e-Learning could be viewed as the employment of technology to aid and enhance learning. In this sense e-learning would encompass activities ranging from the most basic use of ICT for example, use of PCs for word processing of assignments, through to more advanced adoption, such as the use of specialist disciplinary software, learning management systems, artificial intelligence devices, simulations etc. with a presiding interest in more advanced applications. This could be as simple as High School students watching a video documentary in class or as complex as an entire university course provided online. As technology advances, so does e-learning, thus making the possibilities endless. Thus, the concept of e-learning has evolved with the advancement in technology to what it is today. Today e-Learning has become an all-inclusive term for using information communication technology to deliver learning and training programs electronically. Based on the above we may have to satisfy ourselves by saying that e-learning is an area of learning practice which has to do with the use of the emerging and merging information communication technologies (ICT) for learning/teaching purposes.

Research objectives

The aim of the study is to assess the opportunities and challenges for the adoption of e-learning at Midlands State University. The study examines the effort made by the University to introduce e-learning as a principal mode of teaching and learning. In particular, the study seeks to assess the lecturers’ readiness to take up e-learning as well as identifying some logistical problems that are being encountered.

The rationale behind e-learning

Literature on the subject of e-learning suggests many reasons for introducing new technologies in education. Appropriate use of e-learning approaches can enhance the existing teaching and learning strategies and can enable lecturers to develop new strategies which were not previously possible without e-learning technology. Furthermore, e-learning has the potential to increase the efficiency of interaction between lecturers and students. According to Bates (2000) the main motives for establishing e-learning are to improve the quality of learning, to provide learners with information technology skills needed for their professional development, to widen access to education, to respond to the ‘technological imperative’, and to reduce

costs and improve cost-effectiveness. These correspond very closely with the reasons identified by Uys (2000), which are flexibility, links to the emerging culture of post-modernism, cost-effectiveness of delivery, improvements in the quality of learning, and addressing the increase in demand for higher education.

The major advantage of e-learning to students is its easy access. E-learning can provide a student with information that can be accessed in a setting that is not constrained by time and place. The student can go through the lessons or content at his or her own pace. This global reach offered by e-learning, allows learning institutions to offer a wide variety of learning options regardless of the learner's location. E-learning can be delivered anywhere in the world as long as the appropriate equipment and infrastructure are present. For many universities, increasing flexibility of learning is the most common reason for introducing e-learning methods. For the Midlands State University, e-learning has the potential to increase access to university education for the different types of students who include conventional, parallel, visiting and block release students. Furthermore, e-learning could enhance the University's policy of flexible packaging by adding an element of flexible delivery of learning material.

With the massification of university education going on in Zimbabwe, e-learning could help universities meet the increasing demand for university education using the dwindling resources. Other benefits, such as just-in-time delivery, reduced travel, lower costs, and increased variety, are added to the appeal of e-learning. E-learning, especially when the content is delivered on a CD-ROM or the web, can provide learning material in a media-rich format, including such multimedia forms as audio and video. Furthermore, e-learning can provide instant feedback to students. The student's progress and achievement can be assessed and feedback provided in an interactive environment.

Methods

The participants of this study were lecturers at the Midlands State University. A total of 80 lecturers were selected using a stratified random selection method. During the determination of the sample demographic factors such as age, educational experience and gender were considered. This was done to ensure that the full picture of e-learning activities and concerns were represented.

The selected lecturers were asked to complete a questionnaire which was designed to collect data on their level of computer expertise, their level of preparedness to adopt e-learning as well as the challenges they faced. The questionnaire was pilot tested on a few lecturers who were not going to participate in the study. The administration of the instrument was personally handled by the researchers and in some areas with the aid of research assistants. A total of 80 copies of the questionnaire were administered to the sampled lecturers and returned. This gave a 75% percent return rate. Data collected were subjected to statistical analysis using descriptive statistics.

Results

Lecturer Access and Use of Computers

As regards access to computers, 70% of the respondents indicated that they had access to computers in their offices while 30% did not have. Of those respondents who had access, only 57% indicated that they used the computers to plan their lectures, 43% used computers for other purposes. A considerable number of respondents 27% indicated that they had access to computers for teaching with their students compared to 73% who indicated otherwise. It was encouraging to note that 85% of the lecturers were aware that there was e-learning software that had been developed for them to implement e-learning in their teaching. However, it was disheartening to note that only 47% of the lecturers indicated that they could use the MSU e-learning platform to enhance their teaching. The results are summarised in Tables 1.

Table 1: Lecturers' access to computers

No.	Question	Yes	No
1	Do you have access to a computer in your office?	42(70%)	18(30%)
2	If yes; do you use the computer for planning and developing your lectures?	34 (57%)	26 (43%)
3	Do you have access to computers for teaching your students?	16 (27%)	44 (73%)
4	Are you aware that MSU has an e-learning platform (Changamire)?	51 (85%)	9 (15%)
5	Can you use the MSU e-learning platform to enhance your teaching as well as your students' learning?	28 (47%)	32 (53%)
10	Do you feel the need for professional development in the use of the MSU e-learning platform?	57 (95%)	3 (5%)

Lecturer's Perceived Competence in Computer Operation Skills

The collected data shows that the majority of lecturers at the Midlands State University have some satisfactory levels of computer expertise. Fifty percent (50%) of the lecturers indicated that they could perform basic functions and could use the computer independently. A further 45% of the lecturers indicated that they were advanced users of computers and could do a number of tasks with the computer. As regards the use of the Internet, the majority of the lecturers (63%) indicated that they were advanced users who could use the Internet to search for information as well as transferring and attaching files on e-mail. Of the remaining 37%, thirty-two percent (32%) indicated that they have basic skills required to browse and use e-mail independently and 5% indicated that they could not use the computer independently. The results are shown in Tables 2.

Table 2: Lecturers' level of computer expertise

(n= 60)

No.	Question	Novice	Intermediate	Advanced
6	What is your level of expertise in using computers?	3(5%)	30 (50%)	27(45%)
7	What is your level of expertise in using the Internet?	3 (5%)	19 (32%)	38 (63%)

Level of lecturer preparedness to adopt e-learning

Although the majority of lecturers indicated that they had the basic skills required to use computers as teaching and learning resources, a majority of them indicated that they are not well prepared to use the MSU e-learning program. As shown in Table 3, the majority of the lecturers (67%) expressed some doubt on their level of preparedness to use the MSU e-learning program. Only a minority (27% of the lecturers) indicated that they are well prepared to assist students in using the e-learning programme. The majority (73%) either doubted their preparedness (30%) or were not at all prepared (43%) to assist students in using the e-learning programme (see Table 3). It is therefore not surprising that almost all the lecturers (95%) expressed the need for professional development in the use of the MSU e-learning programme.

Table 3: Lecturers' level of preparedness to use the MSU e-learning software

(n= 60)

No.	Question	Not prepared	Somewhat prepared	Very much prepared
8	How prepared do you feel you are to use the MSU e-learning platform?	13 (22%)	27(45%)	20(33%)
9	How prepared do you feel you are to assist students in using the MSU e-learning platform?	26 (43%)	18 (30%)	16 (27%)

Challenges Faced by Lecturers Using the MSU e-learning Platform

Lecturers indicated that they are facing a number of challenges in adopting the MSU e-learning program. As shown in Table 4 the most commonly faced challenges are lack of access to computer laboratories with together with their students (75%), inadequate training for lecturers (72%), problems with Internet access and lack of computer access in the lecturers' offices. Other significant challenges are: lack of technical support (47%), lack of administrative/initiative at Faculty level (45%) and lack of awareness regarding ways of integrating the software into teaching (43%).

Table 11: *Challenges faced by lecturers*
(n=60)

No. 11	Challenge	Number	Percentage
i	Lack of computer access in lecturer's offices	32	53%
ii	Inadequate training for lecturers	43	72%
iii	Lack of comfort using computers	7	12%
iv	Lack of students' interest	3	5%
v	Lack of lecturers' interest	11	18%
vi	Problems with internet access	37	62%
vii	The software is too complicated to use	6	10%
viii	Lack of technical support/advice	28	47%
ix	Lack of administrative support/initiative at faculty level	27	45%
x	Lack of awareness regarding ways to integrate the software into teaching	26	43%
xi	Lack of access to computer lab with your classes	45	75%

In addition to the challenges shown in Table 4, some lecturers (45%) pointed out that some offices, especially those located out of the main campus, were not connected to the local area network. A significant percentage of lecturers (64%) indicated that the Internet speed was very slow. A substantial number of lecturers (62%) indicated that they were sharing computers. Commenting on this issue, one lecturer wrote that: "Limited access to computers in the office makes one spend days without accessing it as the computer which is available may be occupied by colleagues the time one wants to use it." Some lecturers (20%) mentioned that they had problems with old computers which were not functioning well. Other challenges reported included lack of office space (16%), lack of student access to computers (17%) and lack of student awareness to e-learning (17%).

Discussion

The findings of this research confirm Harris (2002)'s observation that the problem of implementing e-learning in higher education seems to be mainly a planning problem. Academics just cannot be expected to embrace new learning initiatives merely because of verbal encouragement (Dooley & Murphrey, 2000) or through the "build it and they will come" approach (Bower, 2001). Like in the adoption of any new curriculum innovation, the sustainable implementation of e-learning requires careful planning which has to consider the strategic, organizational, and pedagogical dimension within the University, otherwise e-learning will remain an innovation without change. A critical factor in introducing e-learning programmes is the readiness of lecturers to adopt such an approach. According to Kember (1997) the reason for the way e-learning is adopted in tertiary education lies, most likely, in the adopters' approaches to teaching, in general, which are often the result of their conceptions about teaching and learning. Recent research by Robertson (2004) also indicates that university teachers use ICT tools only if they are aligned with their beliefs about teaching and learning,

and in the way that aligns with these beliefs. If potential adopters do not realise that they have a need for e-learning, the role of professional developers, as change agents, is to help them evaluate and assess their needs. A good professional development program is one that builds awareness in the lecturers about the strengths, weaknesses, potential, and effective strategies of implementing e-learning as well as enabling them to construct better e-learning environments.

Another critical feature to the success of any initiative is the backing it receives from what Rogers (1995) classifies as the mainstream early and late majority innovator adopters, who normally make up 68% of the total staff. Although the majority of lecturers indicated they were comfortable with using the computer and the Internet, a majority of them felt that they were not adequately prepared to embrace e-learning in their teaching. The findings indicate that only 47% of the lecturers could use the MSU e-learning platform. These fall short of the critical mass of users needed for e-learning innovation to succeed.

This result confirms earlier research findings which suggest that use of e-learning in teaching practice is not only about mastery of the computer skills but also about adopting new pedagogical approaches to meet the new demands of virtual learning. For example, Bates (2000) and Rodriguez and Wilson (2000) argue that knowing how the technology works is not sufficient. Instead, teachers must become knowledgeable about technology and self-confident enough to integrate it effectively in the classroom. Lecturers, in short, must become “fearless in their use of technology” and empowered by the many opportunities it offers (Rodriguez and Wilson, 2000). For technology to become a core component of teachers’ instructional repertoire, they require not only familiarity with the equipment or medium but recognition of and skill in exploiting the most productive ways of using it to promote learning. This is confirmed by the results which show that although 95% of lecturers indicated that they had the required level of competence to use computers and the Internet effectively but only a few of them (33%) indicated that they were prepared to use the Changamire e-learning platform. Many lecturers do not have the knowledge or skills to recognize the potential for technology in teaching and learning. The result that 95% of the lecturers indicated that they needed professional development in the use of the e-learning platform confirms other research findings which suggest that e-learning technology has been virtually thrown at teachers with provision of little or no training or support (Zemsky and Massy, 2004), lending little motivation for them to use the technologies. Zemsky and Massy’s (2004) report on the failed uptake of e-learning in America, suggests that the promised boom in e-learning did not eventuate as expected because e-learning took off before people really knew how to use it. When a new technology is introduced, such as e-learning, it creates the opportunity to innovate and change existing processes. However, e-learning adoption research evidence indicates that the implementation stage has been introduced before educators were prepared for the changed teaching and learning environment.

Earlier research has shown that lack of pedagogical adaptation is one of the more compelling reasons for technology’s lack of success (Detweiler, 2004; Zemsky and Massy, 2004). Along

with the use of technology in the classroom must come a new approach to teaching. Piskurich (2004) stated that key skills required for the e-learning include the ability to set learning goals, develop a learning plan, identify resources for learning (both human and material), implement the plan and evaluate the learning. The effective use of e-learning in university education places the lecturer in a position of having to learn and implement new skills and pedagogical strategies. The way in which e-learning is delivered is new and different, and lecturers must be trained to make the most of updated teaching methods. For effective e-learning to take place lecturers should understand how the technology can be applied to their own context (Bennett, Priest & Macpherson, 1999). Instructional methods that work for students sitting in the back row of a science lab may not reach students at the far end of a cable-modem line. Laurillard (2001) also argues that innovation in course design is conditional on staff development and up-skilling and new kinds of pedagogy require new knowledge. For e-learning to be viewed as an educational innovation it requires reconceptualisation of traditional teaching and learning paradigms, especially in relation to the roles of teachers. For e-learning to realise its potential, university lecturers need to be able to construct effective environments that facilitate learning. In addition, lecturers need to know why it is important to use the technology in teaching. If these conditions are not met, e-learning will continue to have only a modest impact on teaching and learning due to the lack of training in pedagogical skills for those seeking involvement in e-learning.

Another essential element to the smooth running and development of e-learning is the provision and maintenance of adequate infrastructure. Central to the smooth running and development of e-learning is the provision and maintenance of an adequate ICT infrastructure. Although the results of the research show that the majority of lecturers (70%) have networked computers in their offices some of them indicated that they were sharing computers, a situation which they said was very inconvenient. Furthermore, the results show that lecturers face a number of challenges which hinder the smooth adoption of e-learning in the University (see Table 11). Earlier studies have shown that academics are reluctant to get involved with e-learning initiatives if there is inadequate equipment and facilities to tackle new approaches; poor technical and administrative support; a perceived lack of time; the pressure of research activities; feelings that it might lower quality of courses; a general resistance to management-imposed approaches; as well as a scarcity of appropriate professional development (Butler & Sellbom 2002, Hanson 2003, Kirkpatrick 2001, Lee 2001, McKenzie et al. 2000, Williams 2002). The University will need to strike an appropriate balance in planning for the provision of e-learning infrastructure and support facilities. The central provision of facilities and support by the University will be an essential precondition for successful adoption and development of e-learning programs. Adequate pedagogical and technical support is indispensable for e-learning to succeed. It is important to note, as the lecturers themselves suggested, that for e-learning to be successful every lecturer must have his/her own computer and unlimited access to the Internet.

Conclusion and Recommendation

The use of e-learning at the Midlands State University has not been fully embedded into the University's teaching culture and practice. The findings of this research seem to indicate that there is a slow rate of adoption of e-learning by lecturers. This is why research in e-learning adoption discussed above indicates that the roots of the problems with e-learning are primarily associated with teaching and learning processes, rather than with the use of technology per se. If the provision of e-learning is to become a key element of University education, authorities will need to provide a major programme for staff development and training (Copeland 2001). Indeed, if a move towards online learning is to be seen as strategically important, then policies and practices regarding professional development have to be a leading area of concern (Taylor, 2003; Maguire, 2005) and one that should be co-ordinated at university top management level. Professional development, as Taylor (2003:75) describes it, is "the catalyst which allows the evolutionary process to move forward less catastrophically..."

However, considering the results of this research, it is not enough to argue for specific computer skills for lecturers, as a solution to the problem experienced by lecturers in the implementation of e-learning in university education. Although ICT skills are necessary for implementation of an e-learning program, the move towards e-learning delivery should in addition put some special emphasis on pedagogical skills. Professional development training has to focus both on the development of technical skills (e.g. how to use a specific package) and the pedagogical aspects of utilising e-learning (i.e. the development and delivery) of e-learning. Amirian (2003) found that, in fact, lecturers need ongoing development in order to integrate technologies successfully by adapting teaching methods to technologies they have learned how to use well. She suggested that professional development can help lecturers to do two things: firstly to feel comfortable with the hardware and using the technologies and secondly to create learning opportunities that are designed to take advantage of the capabilities of the technology. As Ellis & Phelps (2000) argues, this calls for a well prepared professional development program to be established to support lecturers in the effective implementation of e-learning. Given the discipline based needs of e-learning development and the need to root these pedagogical requirements into the particular Faculty's teaching and learning activities, link staff should be hired to work in each Faculty to facilitate the adoption of e-learning. Lecturers should be offered pedagogical training and support through their Faculties alongside that for ICT skills.

It is also important that the University enhances the capacity for e-learning research activities; to pursue new aspects within the area; and add an e-learning dimension to existing teaching and learning processes as well as the research interests among lecturers. This work can be supported by the e-learning Fellows who, operating at Faculty level can enable the development and co-ordination of e-learning activities in a way that is tailored to the needs of each Faculty.

University development seems to work best when supported by a range of strategies (Bates, 2000). An institutional strategic plan is essential as the first step in the development of e-learning. To enable the University to manage its e-learning developments, it is recommended that an e-learning strategy has to be developed with wide consultation. The strategic plan should seek among other things to:

- identify the university curricula areas where e-learning methods could be employed to best effect, and promote use of e-learning in these areas;
- establish mechanisms to support academic staff in using e-learning facilities and tools to best effect in the development and delivery of courses;
- ensure that the quality of course delivery is maximised by using a blended approach that uses the best of traditional and e-learning methods; and
- review the types of support needed by students, and ensure that these are provided in a timely and effective manner.

It is recommended that an e-learning development and support team including IT members, Faculty and/or department based staff be established. The e-learning support strategy should emphasise the importance of partnership between the Faculties and the University's ITS department in providing e-learning infrastructure and support to lecturers and students. Resistance to change is therefore likely to be overcome if academic staff are fully involved or have full ownership in the design, development and implementation of these changes; they have to have an understanding of their new roles; and the results eventually produced are truly ascertainable (Welsh & Metcalf, 2003; Rockwell, Schauer, J., Fritz, & Marx, 2000; Lewis, 1998).

The e-learning development and support team would have the mandate to establish an e-learning strategy, which would facilitate the:

- provision of an e-learning infrastructure and a range of e-learning tools that have high quality specifications;
- collaboration among faculties and departments in the provision of information, training and support required by lecturers and students in the use of e-learning tools and facilities;
- establishment and use of appropriate standards and specifications in e-learning development, including conformity with accessibility guidelines and standards; and,
- provision of support to lecturers in their evaluations of e-learning developments and where appropriate, carry out such evaluations, especially at institutional level.

It is important to note that, although e-learning may represent a powerful tool to support university teaching and learning, successful implementation of this mode of learning requires careful planning and consideration of a number of important factors. Recognition of each of the conditions essential for the effective use of e-learning will be helpful in guiding the planning and implementation process. It is also critical to involve all of the stakeholder groups in the process of developing a shared vision of the role of e-learning for university education.

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**PUPILS' PERCEPTIONS AND THEIR TEACHERS' AWARENESS OF
CONTINUITY IN MATHEMATICS INSTRUCTION AT THE PRIMARY –
SECONDARY TRANSITION PHASE IN GWERU URBAN SCHOOLS IN
ZIMBABWE.**

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Abstract

The study examined Form 1 pupils' perceptions of continuity in mathematics instruction at the primary-secondary school transition phase and their teachers' awareness of such continuity. Three hundred Form 1 pupils in 6 selected secondary schools in Gweru-urban area, their mathematics teachers and Heads of Mathematics Departments (HODs) participated in the study in 2004. The study focused on the pupils' perceptions of content and pedagogical continuity in mathematics instruction at the transition phase, as well as continuity in their perceptions of the subject. It also sought to examine the Form 1 teachers' awareness of the need for curriculum continuity in mathematics instruction and to identify efforts they made to enhance it in their practice. Questionnaires were completed by the Form 1 pupils and their teachers, whilst interviews were conducted on the HODs.

The results showed that the pupils perceived content continuity in mathematics, but lack of continuity was found in pupils' perceptions of their teachers' instructional practices. Pupils continued to perceive mathematics positively. The teachers and the HODs showed an appreciation of the need for continuity in mathematics instruction, but were doing little to enhance curriculum continuity in mathematics instruction in a deliberate fashion. The study recommended that secondary school mathematics teachers obtain and use primary school documents such as the syllabus and textbooks in preparing their Form 1 lessons. It also recommended the adoption of deliberate strategies such as regular professional development meetings between primary and secondary school mathematics teachers, and pupils carrying their progress reports from Grade 7 to Form 1, so as to provide Form 1 teachers with sufficient mathematics background information about their pupils on which to base their instruction.

Introduction

When children move from one school to another they face several challenges. These challenges can be obstacles in their educational career (Galton, Gray & Rudduck, 1999; Noyes in Skovsmose & Valero, 2002). In Zimbabwe the primary-secondary school transition phase involves moving from Grade 7 to Form 1, and in most cases it entails changing schools.

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Several changes can have adverse effects on the pupils' learning (Felner, Ginter & Primavera, 1982; Tinto & Goodsell, 1994). The possible adverse effects involved in this change can be minimized if the transition is perceived as a continuous process by the learner. Continuity in mathematics instruction helps the learners to perceive the curriculum as a continuously cumulative and progressive course (Macnab & Cummine, 1986; Dean, 1982).

However there is research evidence that little is done in schools to ensure continuity in mathematics learning, especially where pupils move from one school to another (Dean, 1982; Cockroft Report, 1982; Galton & Hargreaves, 1999; Schiller, 2004). In Zimbabwe the Grade 7-Form 1 transition stage involves changes in the school, the teaching arrangements, the curriculum, etc., all of which can cause perceptions of discontinuity in the pupils. For example in the primary school the pupils are exposed to one teacher who teaches all the subjects, but in secondary school there is a different teacher for each subject. Hence changing school entails the need for adjustment to a new academic and social environment, which has its own new demands and expectations, and this may create perceptions of discontinuity among the pupils.

This study sought to investigate the nature of this continuity in mathematics instructional practices as perceived by Form 1 pupils, and their teachers' awareness of the problem of continuity. The key aspects of continuity in mathematics instruction examined in this study were the content linkages between Grade 7 and Form 1 mathematics, pedagogical continuity as evidenced by the pupils' perceptions of the teachers' instructional practices at the two levels, and pupils' affective perceptions of the subject.

Some studies in the United Kingdom have found a decline in performance in mathematics at the primary-secondary school transition phase (Galton, Gray & Rudduck, 1999; Times Educational Supplement (TES), 1999; Alexander, Entwisle & Dauber, 1994; Stevenson, Schiller & Schneider, 1994). This study was an attempt to investigate one possible cause for such a dip in performance at this stage, which is lack of continuity. The study did not compare the actual performances of the pupils at the two levels. Such comparison could have illuminated any changes in pupils' mathematical performance as a result of transition from primary to secondary school.

The words 'transfer' and 'transition' may have different meanings, depending on the contexts in which they are used. Galton, Gray & Rudduck (1999) regard 'transition' as "the move from one year group to the next within a school," (p.1) and 'transfer' as "the move from one school to another." (p.1). In this study the word 'transition' refers to both situations. Moving from Grade 7 to Form 1 is a transition in the sense that it involves moving from a lower to a higher level on the educational ladder, and this can occur within the same school. The same movement can be viewed as a transfer because in most cases it involves changing schools.

Statement of the Problem

This study sought to assess pupils' perceptions of the degree of continuity in mathematics instruction as they progress from Grade 7 to Form 1, with reference to secondary schools in the Gweru Urban area in Zimbabwe. It also investigated Form 1 mathematics teachers'

and the HODs' awareness of the need for continuity in mathematics instruction and the efforts they make to enhance such continuity.

Research Questions

The study problem was addressed through the following research questions:

1. What are the pupils' perceptions of content continuity in mathematics at the primary–secondary school transition stage?
2. To what extent do the pupils perceive pedagogical continuity in mathematics instruction at the primary-secondary school transition phase?
3. Are there any changes in pupils' affective perceptions of mathematics at the primary-secondary school transition phase?
4. What efforts do Form 1 mathematics teachers make in trying to enhance continuity in mathematics instruction at the primary-secondary school transition stage?

Review of Literature

This section examines literature and research findings that highlight some pertinent issues associated with school transitions, especially when students transfer from one school to another as a result of moving from one level of education to another.

Murdoch (as cited by Noyes, in Valero & Skovsmose (Eds.), 2002) describes some of the challenges faced by pupils at the transition stage as including, facing different teachers and surroundings, changes in the nature of schooling itself, and differences in the length of the school day, timetabling, teaching styles and the general school curriculum. A study carried out in the United Kingdom on the effects of school transfer by Galton & Hargreaves (as cited in Galton, Gray & Rudduck, 1999) established that 45% of year 5 pupils failed to achieve better results on tests of mathematics and language at the end of the transfer year when compared to the previous year in the feeder school. This was accompanied by a decline in motivation towards some subjects. Schiller (2004) states that signs of academic difficulties following school transitions include failing courses, declines in grades, and higher rates of absenteeism. The Times Educational Supplement (TES) (1999) reports the findings of a government-backed study in the United Kingdom that showed that up to 40% of 11-year-olds failed to make satisfactory progress during their first year of secondary school. The study attributed this lack of progress to the prevailing programmes, which placed too much emphasis on the social rather than the academic effects of transfer.

The sentiments above allude to academic tribulations caused by the primary-secondary school transition that sometimes causes a decline in performance, among other adverse effects.

The desirability of curriculum continuity in school transitions has been highlighted by several authors. Dean (1982) says that there must be some continuity in the curriculum to enable pupils to successfully follow it throughout one school, or even from one school to another, when pupils are transferred. According to Bernkopf (1978) mathematics has a hierarchical structure in which one concept builds on another and depends on it. This observation concurs with Gagne (as cited in Macnab & Cummine, 1986, and in Ashlock & Herman, 1970) who

stressed that successful learning of a mathematical task depends on mastery of several lower-level sub-tasks, and that an individual may not be able to learn a particular topic if he/she has failed to achieve any of the subordinate topics that support it at a lower level. These sentiments underscore the significance of content linkages from one phase to another if successful learning of mathematics is to be attained. Since primary school mathematics constitutes the foundation upon which secondary school learning of the subject builds, the existence of content continuity at the transition phase is therefore critical.

The need for pedagogical continuity at the primary-secondary school transition stage in mathematics is in line with the constructivist view of learning, which, according to Selden & Selden (1996), regards cognition as adaptive in the sense that it organizes experiences so that they 'fit' with a person's previously constructed knowledge. In the context of this study, pupils' prior knowledge and skills gained in the primary school are the pillars of successful secondary school mathematics learning. Instructional practices that utilize this knowledge base are therefore likely to enhance perceptions of pedagogical continuity at the transition stage.

Curriculum continuity between primary and secondary school subjects can be achieved through various strategies. Dean (1982) advocates for liaison between primary and secondary schools. Such liaison could involve interchanging of schemes of work and holding subsequent discussions, establishing special posts for meetings among teachers from different schools, and familiarizing secondary school teachers with content and methods in the primary school. The Cockcroft Report (1983) identifies other possible areas of liaison. These include secondary school teachers visiting their feeder primary schools, a record card showing each pupil's performance taken from primary to secondary school, and information about a pupil's learning difficulties being availed to the new secondary school teacher by the primary school teacher.

The above strategies could serve to enhance curriculum continuity in instruction across the various subject areas as pupils move from primary to secondary school. Secondary school teachers would gain a lot of information about the content and pedagogy used in the primary school, as well as important academic background information about the pupils entering secondary school. Such information would serve as a basis for adopting pedagogies in the secondary school that enhance curriculum continuity. However the success of these strategies clearly depends on the contexts in which they are tried. In Zimbabwe the implementation of some of these strategies is quite practical and realistic because secondary schools have clearly identified feeder primary schools, which are within reasonable distances of each other. Hence it is possible for secondary school teachers to meet their primary school counterparts from the feeder schools to discuss on issues relating to curriculum continuity as alluded in the above strategies. Such meetings could be organized under the auspices of current teacher professional programmes such as the Better Schools Programme in Zimbabwe (BSPZ).

It was the purpose of this study to determine if pupils perceived content continuity in mathematics, as well as continuity in teachers' instructional practices at the primary-secondary

school transition phase. The study also sought to find out what knowledge Form 1 mathematics teachers had about primary school mathematics curriculum, and whether such knowledge was sufficient to enable them to facilitate continuity in the pupils' learning of the subject.

Method

The study was conducted in 6 schools selected from a population of 14 secondary schools in the Gweru Urban area in Zimbabwe. The 14 secondary schools consisted of 5 former Group A, 6 former Group B and 3 church schools. Group A schools were those reserved for the Whites during the Rhodesian era, and these are located mainly in the low-density suburbs of the city. Group B schools were reserved for the Blacks and are located mainly in the high-density suburbs. The 3 church schools are all located within low-density suburbs of the city.

The 14 secondary schools were stratified according to former Group A, former Group B and Church schools for purposes of selecting the study sample. The main consideration in stratification was the resource base of the schools. Former Group A schools were traditionally well-resourced as compared to the other schools. Church schools also have generally better resources as compared to the former Group B schools. Availability of curriculum documents such as textbooks and library facilities were some of the considerations in stratifying the schools according to the criterion described above. Two schools were randomly selected from the former Group A category, 3 from the former Group B schools and 1 from the Church schools.

The respondents for the study were all Form 1 mathematics teachers, a sample of Form 1 pupils, and all the Heads of Mathematics Department (HODs) in each of the selected schools, in the year 2004. In each school there were 2 mathematics teachers teaching the Form 1 classes. The Form 1 pupils were stratified according to sex for purposes of selecting the sample, except one girls' only school. Random selection was done in each class according to the proportions of boys to girls in all the Form 1 classes. Table 1 below shows the composition of the respondents who participated in this study.

Table 1: Composition of the research sample

School	Pupils		Teachers	HOD
	Male	Female		
A	27	27	2	1
B	0	29	2	1
C	20	20	1	1
D	27	35	2	1
E	21	34	2	1
F	29	31	2	1
Total	124	176	11	6

Altogether 300 pupils consisting of 124 boys and 176 girls, 11 Form 1 mathematics teachers and 6 HODs took part in the study. In one school the HOD was also teaching Form 1 classes.

The research instruments consisted of questionnaires for Form 1 pupils and their mathematics teachers, and an interview schedule for the HODs. The pupils' questionnaire consisted of likert-type items, which sought to find out their perceptions about the mathematics teaching they experienced while in Grade 7 as compared to Form 1. It also had some open-ended items where they stated what they liked and disliked about mathematics teaching at the two levels. An example of an item on the students' questionnaire was,

“Write down any THREE subjects which you enjoyed learning most in:

a) primary school. b) secondary school.”.

The teachers' questionnaire consisted mainly of open-ended items which sought to find out their awareness of the need for continuity at the primary-secondary transition phase in mathematics teaching, and strategies they used in their practice to enhance such continuity. An example of an item on the teachers' questionnaire was,

“What do you think Form 1 teachers need to do (if any) to ensure that there is a linkage between Primary School and Secondary School mathematics learning by pupils?”

The HOD interview instrument had similar questions to those for Form 1 teachers but included some items on administrative aspects such as supervision. An example of the interview questions was,

“What strategies, if any, do you use as a department to ensure that Form 1 students perceive secondary school mathematics as a continuation of primary school mathematics?”

All the instruments were pilot-tested at a secondary school, which was not later used in the main study. Some items were modified as a result of the pilot-testing, but no numerical estimates of validity and reliability of the instruments were computed.

Data were collected during Term 3 of 2004, just after the end-of-year examinations, to enable the pupils to use their year-long experiences in Form 1 mathematics lessons in responding to the questionnaire. Through prior arrangements, the instruments were completed and collected on the same day of visiting each school.

The pupils' responses were summarized in frequency tables according to the research questions and these were compared for changes in responses at each of the two levels. Data from the teachers and HODs were mainly analyzed qualitatively and their responses were compared to those of their pupils.

Results

Data are presented and analyzed thematically according to the research questions proposed for the study.

Pupils' perceptions of content continuity

The pupils' responses to items relating to mathematics content are shown in Table 2 below. The responses were classified as SA= Strongly Agree, A= Agree, N= Neutral, DA= Disagree, SDA= Strongly Disagree.

Table 2: Pupils' responses to items relating to mathematics content (n=300)

STATEMENT	SA	A	N	DA	SDA
Grade 7 maths is closely linked to Form 1 maths.	67 22%	129 43%	30 10%	54 18%	12 4%
My knowledge of Primary School mathematics has helped me a lot in understanding Form 1 maths.	112 37%	126 42%	23 8%	24 8%	13 4%

The responses to both items seem to indicate that the majority of the pupils perceived content continuity between Grade 7 and Form 1 mathematics.

The pupils gave the following as the most common primary school mathematics topics they found most relevant to Form 1 mathematics: Fractions and Percentages (50%); Addition, Subtraction, Multiplication and Division (46%); Ratio, Rate and Proportion (43%); Area, Perimeter and Volume (24%).

Overall the data showed that the pupils perceived content continuity in mathematics between the two levels and were able to identify specific topics that typified the linkages.

Pupils' perceptions of pedagogical continuity in mathematics instruction

Table 3 below shows the comparative frequencies of the pupils' responses to statements about the Grade 7 and Form 1 mathematics teachers' pedagogy. Responding to these items was done by the pupils in the presence of the researcher, item by item. Hence there was a hundred percent response rate to each item. The table shows a decrease in levels of agreement with each of the statements on teacher pedagogy from Grade 7 to the Form 1. For example, on the statement that the teacher explained concepts clearly, a total of 89% either strongly agreed or agreed with the statement for the Grade 7 teacher, while 68% either strongly agreed or agreed with the statement for the Form 1 teacher. The same trend is observed on the statement that the teacher demonstrated procedures clearly, where 77% either strongly agreed or agreed with it for the Grade 7 teacher and 62% either strongly agreed or agreed for the Form 1 teacher.

The trend was observed on all the statements, except the statement on the use of teaching and learning aids where the majority of the pupils either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement at both levels, indicating that the mathematics teachers at both levels were rated as not using teaching and learning aids. For the Grade 7 teacher, 47% either disagreed or strongly disagreed with the statement, while 61% either disagreed or strongly disagreed with it for the Form 1 teacher.

Overall the pupils perceived the Grade 7 mathematics teachers as better than their Form 1 counterparts on the aspects constituting classroom instructional practices. This might be an indication of discontinuity.

Table 3: Pupils' levels of agreement with statements about their mathematics teachers' pedagogy (n=300)

STATEMENT	Grade 7 Teacher					Form 1 Teacher				
	SA	A	N	DA	SDA	SA	A	N	DA	SDA
Teacher explained concepts clearly.	143 48%	123 41%	4 1%	25 8%	4 1%	85 28%	118 39%	18 6%	35 12%	45 15%
Teacher demonstrated procedures clearly	115 38%	121 40%	24 8%	26 9%	14 5%	84 28%	102 34%	22 7%	47 16%	43 14%
Teacher used teaching and learning aids.	40 13%	85 28%	34 11%	75 25%	66 22%	36 12%	52 17%	38 13%	93 31%	90 30%
Teacher showed interest in mathematics.	142 47%	109 36%	13 4%	17 6%	13 4%	97 32%	114 38%	25 8%	39 13%	36 12%
Teacher was patient with pupils.	107 36%	108 36%	24 8%	38 13%	19 6%	69 23%	90 30%	36 12%	63 21%	38 13%
Teacher answered pupils' questions.	125 42%	126 42%	15 5%	16 5%	11 4%	78 26%	108 36%	31 10%	40 13%	33 11%
Pace of content coverage was comfortable for me.	114 47%	121 40%	23 8%	29 10%	8 3%	59 20%	95 32%	35 12%	62 21%	37 12%

The pupils were asked to list the things they liked about the way mathematics was taught to them, first at the Grade 7 level and then at the Form 1 level. This was an open-ended item designed to find out their perceptions of specific aspects of mathematics lessons at the two levels. Only a total of 185 pupils responded to this item. Table 4 shows the comparative frequencies of their responses, in decreasing order of popularity.

Table 4: Professional aspects liked about mathematics instruction at Grade 7 and Form 1 levels. (n=185)

ASPECT	GRADE 7	FORM 1
Teacher explanations	101 (58%)	61 (33%)
Teacher demonstrations	46 (25%)	27 (15%)
Teacher's patience	27 (15%)	19 (10%)
None	11 (5%)	29 (16%)

The responses in Table 4 seem to reflect decreasing perceptions in the level of popularity of the aspects they liked about mathematics pedagogy at the two levels, but the validity of this observation may be weakened by the small numbers of pupils who responded to this item. It is also worth noting that pupils' perceptions of good mathematics teaching were centered on the teacher's activities only, which may be an indicator of the teacher-centeredness of instructional practices in mathematics at both levels.

On the whole the data showed decreasing positive perceptions on those aspects of pedagogy covered in the study between Grade 7 and Form 1, which might indicate discontinuity.

Pupils' affective perceptions of mathematics

Some items on the pupils' questionnaire sought to elicit their affective perceptions towards mathematics at the two levels. This was meant to find out if there were any changes in their attitudes at the transition stage from Grade 7 to Form 1.

Table 5 shows the comparative frequencies of the pupils' responses to statements about their self-rating on the affective aspects of the subject at both levels. All the 300 pupils responded in full or in part to these items, hence percentages in the Table 5 below are expressed out of 300.

The responses show decreasing popularity of the pupils' self-ratings on the three statements, from Grade 7 to Form 1, which might indicate a possible discontinuity in their affective perceptions of the subject.

Table 5: Pupils' agreement with statements about self-rating on mathematics (n=300)

STATEMENT	GRADE 7					FORM 1				
	SA	A	N	DA	SDA	SA	A	N	DA	SDA
I enjoyed learning mathematics	139 46%	113 38%	21 7%	12 4%	13 4%	72 24%	107 36%	35 12%	34 11%	30 10%
I understood most of what was taught	102 34%	136 45%	22 7%	31 10%	8 3%	44 15%	74 25%	50 17%	60 20%	35 12%
My performance in mathematics was good	129 34%	112 37%	21 7%	28 9%	8 3%	79 26%	60 20%	54 18%	20 7%	40 13%

The pupils were asked to list any three subjects they enjoyed learning, first in primary school then in Form 1. Table 6 shows the comparative popularity of those subjects found at both the primary and secondary school levels. General Paper is not a subject taught at secondary school.

Table 6: Pupils' responses to subjects enjoyed most at the two levels. (n=300)

SUBJECT	PRIMARY SCHOOL	SECONDARY SCHOOL
English	259 (86%)	139 (46%)
Mathematics	254 (85%)	169 (56%)
General Paper	201 (67%)	N/a
Shona/Ndebele	139 (46%)	66 (22%)

Table 6 shows that Mathematics was second to English in popularity in the primary school, but was rated as the most popular subject in secondary school, in spite of the increased number of subjects on offer. This shows that mathematics continued to be one of the most popular subjects at both levels, which might be an indication of continuity of positive affective perceptions towards the subject from Grade 7 to Form 1. This is despite some indication of discontinuity in the pupils' self-ratings on the affective aspects in Table 5. This could be due to the fact that whilst there are at least 10 subjects in secondary school, only 3 of them are a continuation from primary school as distinct subjects. Hence they might not have formed deeply held attitudes towards the other 7 subjects after studying them for about 10 months.

Form 1 mathematics teachers' efforts to enhance continuity in instruction.

The questionnaire for Form 1 teachers and interview schedule for HODs sought to find out if they appreciated the need for continuity in mathematics instruction at the transition stage. The instruments specifically sought to find out if they had the material resources necessary to establish continuity and the strategies they used to enhance the continuity. Table 7 below shows their responses to some of these questions. The results showed that the teachers were aware of the need to link primary school content to secondary school content in their mathematics lessons, but seemed not to have the relevant primary school documents to establish such linkages. They indicated that they pre-tested assumed knowledge prior to teaching some new topics as a strategy to enhance continuity in pupils' learning of the subject.

Table 7: Form 1 mathematics teachers' responses (n=11)

Question	Yes	No
Do you have the Primary School Maths Syllabus?	1	9
Is it necessary to have the Primary School Maths Syllabus?	10	1
Do you have some copies of primary school maths textbooks in the department?	1	9
Do you have some copies of primary school maths textbooks in the school library?	1	10
Do you sometimes refer to some primary school maths textbooks when preparing Form 1 maths lessons?	1	10
Do you give your pupils tests to assess assumed knowledge prior to teaching some topics?	9	2

In response to the item on what could be done to ensure that there is linkage between primary and secondary school mathematics, the teachers gave the following suggestions.

Having a copy of the primary school mathematics syllabus (4), revision of what was done at primary school (2), regular meetings between primary and secondary school teachers (2), testing assumed knowledge before teaching (1), and referring to mathematics textbooks used in primary school (1).

Responses from the HODs showed a similar pattern. The following table shows their responses to some of the items.

Table 8: Heads of Departments' (HODs) responses (n=6)

Question	Yes	No
Do you have a copy of the primary school maths syllabus in the department?	0	6
Do you have any primary school maths textbooks in the department?	1	5
Do you have any primary school maths textbooks in the school library?	3	3

The responses to the first two items were found to be consistent with those of the teachers. Responses to the third item seem to partly contradict the teachers' responses. While only one teacher indicated that there were some primary school mathematics textbooks in the school library, three HODs gave a similar response, which was a reference to 3 schools.

The overall pattern, however, was that the schools seemed not to have the necessary primary school mathematics documents which could be used to enhance content linkages in Form 1 mathematics lessons.

The HODs cited the following as some of the strategies which could be used to ensure that there is continuity in mathematics teaching and learning between Grade 7 and Form 1, interaction between teachers at the two levels (2), mathematics resources in the primary school to be available in secondary school (1), staff development for teachers at both levels (1). The responses alluded to an appreciation of the need to ensure that there is continuity in mathematics instruction at the transition stage.

The Form 1 teachers and HODs gave the following as the primary school mathematics concepts and skills which are necessary for learning the subject at secondary school level: Addition, multiplication, subtraction and division (8); fractions (6); directed numbers (6); geometrical constructions (3); geometry concepts (3); real number system (1) and inequalities (1). However directed numbers, geometrical constructions and inequalities are Form 1 topics which are not taught in the primary school, hence this may be any indicator of lack of clear knowledge of what content is taught in the primary school.

Four teachers stated that they knew their pupils' Grade 7 mathematics grades, while 6 did not know. One hundred and twenty-two (41%) pupils indicated that their Form 1 mathematics teachers had asked them about their Grade 7 mathematics grades, while 115 (38%) said they had not been asked. The overall picture was that some Form 1 mathematics teachers seemed to lack sufficient mathematics background information about their pupils on which to base their instruction.

Discussion

The results show that some pupils perceived content continuity in mathematics at the primary-secondary school transition stage. Such perceptions are evidently healthy for the learning of

the subject which has a hierarchical structure (Bernkopf, 1978), and whose mastery of new concepts depends on knowledge of other pre-requisite concepts (Gagne in Ashlock & Herman, 1970; Dean, 1982). The spiral nature of the Zimbabwean mathematics curriculum (Zimbabwe Primary School Mathematics Syllabus; Zimbabwe General Certificate of Education; Zimbabwe O'Level Mathematics Syllabus 4008) also serves to reinforce content continuity. Hence the mathematics teachers at both levels need to operationalize the content linkages emphasized in these syllabi in order to buttress the pupils' perceptions of content continuity. However the absence of key primary school mathematics documents, such as the syllabus and textbooks, in the secondary school militates against reinforcing content continuity in mathematics instruction at the transition stage.

The results indicate lack of continuity in pupils' perceptions of teachers' pedagogy at the Grade 7-Form 1 transition stage. Generally the Form 1 teachers were perceived less favourably than their Grade 7 counterparts on those aspects of mathematics teaching covered in the study. Whilst it is appreciated that Grade 7 and Form 1 are different learning environments (Noyes in Valero and Skovsmose, 2002), such a 'dip' in positive perceptions of the teachers' instructional activities may result in 'micro-ruptures' (Grugeon and Artigue, 1995) in pupils' learning of the subject, leading to a possible decline in performance (Galton, *et al.*, 1999; TES, 1999). Thus there is need for Form 1 teachers to base their classroom practices on what goes on in the primary school, and on more comprehensive information about their pupils' mathematical background.

The results show continuity in the pupils' affective perceptions of the subject at the transition stage. The pupils ranked mathematics as one of their popular subjects at both levels. The majority rated themselves positively on the affective aspects of mathematics at both levels, although less so for the Form 1 stage. This result underscores the need for Form 1 mathematics teachers to perpetuate such positive perceptions through their instructional practices.

The study found that the teachers appreciated the need for continuity in mathematics instruction. They pre-tested assumed knowledge prior to teaching some mathematics topics, which is a viable strategy for enhancing continuity in learning at the Grade 7-Form 1 stage. However most of the teachers and HODs indicated that they did not have any of the basic primary school mathematics instructional documents in their schools, but such self-reports could be interpreted in two ways. The first could be that the documents were lying around in the school libraries and departmental offices but were not being used. The second is that the documents were in fact not available in the schools. Whatever the true situation was in the schools, the responses indicated lack of use of primary school mathematics documents by the teachers in preparing Form 1 lessons. The basis and validity of the pre-testing becomes questionable in such a situation. The categorization of some secondary school mathematics topics as primary school content raises questions about the teachers' knowledge of the content taught in the primary school. Lack of comprehensive mathematics background information about their individual pupils, may weaken the teachers' efforts to assist individual pupils with persistent problems in learning the subject.

Recommendations

The study recommends that the mathematics practitioners in secondary schools make an effort to acquire and use primary school documents so that content continuity is enhanced at the primary-secondary school transition phase. Whilst it is very likely that primary school mathematics curriculum documents are available in most secondary schools, especially in the libraries, secondary school teachers need to use them more effectively in preparing their lessons. Such reference to the primary school syllabus and textbooks can help a lot in enhancing continuity in the pupils' learning of the subject in secondary school.

The study also recommends the adoption of some deliberate strategies which can serve to enhance positive perceptions of pedagogical continuity as pupils progress from Grade 7 to Form 1 (Dean, 1982; Cockcroft Report, 1982). Such strategies could include pupils bringing their progress reports in primary school to secondary school so that Form 1 teachers familiarize themselves with a reliable performance record of each pupil. Currently pupils bring only the Grade 7 result slip for enrolment in secondary school. No other documented information about their formative academic progress in primary school is available to secondary school teachers. Regular meetings between primary and secondary school mathematics teachers could also help both to be more familiar with the content and pedagogies at the two levels. Form 1 teachers would base their instruction on such knowledge and this would foster continuity in the pupils' learning of the subject at the transition stage. Currently professional development meetings are commonly held separately, i.e. primary school teachers have meetings separately from those for secondary school teachers.

Conclusion

The results seem to unravel some pertinent issues relating to continuity in mathematics instruction which should be of concern to mathematics educators. The current practice in Zimbabwe is that primary school graduates bring only the Grade 7 result slip as the only academic record of their performance. Form 1 mathematics teachers mostly don't have comprehensive knowledge about their pupils' performance in the subject in the previous school. Under the present environment in schools where class sizes are very large and each teacher is teaching up to 6 classes, it may be tedious and time-consuming to collect such information about individual pupils in their classes. However an academic record of each pupil's performance in primary school could guide Form 1 teachers a lot in their efforts to enhance continuity in mathematics instruction, which in turn could enhance successful learning of the subject in secondary school. Any perceptions of discontinuity in pupils' learning can be detrimental to their success in the subject. The study recommends the adoption of strategies targeted at enhancing continuity in mathematics instruction at this transition stage.

Current teacher professional development activities within schools in Zimbabwe seem to occur as if there are academic boundaries between primary and secondary schools. There is evidently very little cross-sharing of professional and curricular information among teachers across the two levels. This could be attributed mainly to a lack of appreciation of the need for such professional dialoguing as there are no official policy pronouncements either for or

against such interaction. Hence this study highlights this 'gap' and advocates for professional development activities that equip teachers operating at either of the two levels with sufficient knowledge about the enacted academic curriculum of their subject. With such knowledge primary school teachers would better prepare their pupils for secondary school work. Secondary school teachers would also be more knowledgeable about academic activities in the primary school in their efforts to enhance curriculum continuity in the instruction of their subject areas.

It needs to be acknowledged however that this study did not address all the critical aspects of continuity in mathematics instruction, most notably performance in the subject. The author feels that there is need for further related studies in other contexts different from the one used in this study, if the issue of curriculum continuity in mathematics at the primary-secondary school transition stage is to be fully understood and enhanced in Zimbabwe.

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**LANGUAGE HARMONIZATION IN SOUTHERN AFRICA: TOWARD A
STANDARD UNIFIED SHONA ORTHOGRAPHY (SUSO) FOR
BOTSWANA, MOZAMBIQUE AND ZIMBABWE**

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Abstract

This article seeks to discuss the harmonization of the Shona language varieties namely ChiKaranga, ChiKalanga, ChiKorekore, ChiNambya, ChiNdau, ChiManyika, ChiBarwe, ChiHwesa, ChiTeve and ChiZezuru. The current Shona orthography uses a conjunctive system of word division that was recommended by Doke in 1931. Detailed word division and spelling rules are found in Fortune's (1972) A Guide to Shona Spelling. The writing system currently being used by the various Shona speakers and writers is deficient since it does not cater for the broader issues of Shona dialectal variations. The spelling system being used by the Shona is purely conventional and bears very little relation to what they speak. The paper argues that a unified standard Shona writing system is achievable by way of prescribing a common alphabet, common spelling, common punctuation and a common word division system. It would be naive to expect a uniform practice at the spoken level. The paper concludes by advising speakers of the different Shona dialects that the spirit of language unification and harmonization should always be that of cooperation and not that of hegemony or conquest.

Introduction

ChiShona is classified by Guthrie (1948) in Zone S10 (South Eastern Bantu) and it is spoken in Botswana, Mozambique and Zimbabwe. The language has ten distinct dialects namely ChiKaranga, ChiKorekore, ChiTeve, ChiHwesa, ChiBarwe, ChiNambya, ChiManyika, ChiNdau, ChiKalanga and ChiZezuru. The dialects are mutually intelligible thus they can be linguistically considered as dialects of the same language. Despite this high level of mutual intelligibility in its spoken form, the written form of this same language is very problematic in a number of ways. Since the beginning of the writing system by competing missionary societies, some regional dialects of Shona have been presented as different languages. This was the case with ChiKalanga and ChiNambya. Others such as ChiBarwe, ChiNambya, ChiTeve and ChiHwesa were left without so much a mention of whether they could be harmonized

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with Central Shona or left out to develop on their own (Doke, 1931). Efforts to standardize the language started as early as 1890, but the perspective remained narrowly focused on Central Shona. Speakers and writers of the different dialects continued to seek writing systems that created more differences and also were the source of difficulties in spelling, word division and punctuation due to the absence of a standard orthography.

The writing system currently being used by the various Shona speakers and writers is deficient since it does not cater for the broader issues of Shona dialectical variations and it also does not allow speakers to write the language the way they speak it. The orthographic emphasis is on the creation of peculiarities as opposed to resolving the linguistic issues of adequately accounting for the communicability and broad representativity of the writing system. Speakers and writers particularly from the ChiNdau, ChiBarwe, ChiHwesa, ChiTeve, ChiNambya, ChiKaranga, ChiKalanga, ChiManyika and ChiKorekore dialects are compelled by these circumstances to write, what in most cases they do not speak, resulting in numerous errors of spelling and word division. The spelling system being used by the Shona people is purely conventional and bears very little relation to what they speak (Chimhundu, 1992). For instance, in the current system, based on non-linguistic graphic presentation decisions, the Karanga are compelled to write <maheu> (sweet beer) instead of <maxeu>, <tswanda> (basket) instead of <xwanda> showing that the current orthography bears no relation to the actual utterances made by the people of the different dialects. The Ndau sub-group is under a conventional obligation to write <mutowo> (type) or <vanhu> (people) instead of <mhlobo> and <vantu> respectively. The Hwesa, who use words such as <nkuku> (hen) and <nkonto> (war) have to contend with the standard forms <huku> and <hondo> respectively. Each of the ten dialects has experienced similar writing problems, clearly showing that the Shona writing system is far from being standard, hence the need to design a new standard Shona orthography that caters for the linguistic needs of speakers of the different Shona varieties.

Origins of the Name Shona

The name Shona according to Magwa (1999), originated from the Ndebele group of people who referred to the western areas where non-Ndebele speakers had settled as 'Ntshonalanga' and the people who stayed there as 'amaTshona.' Biehler's publications (1906a and 1906b) refer to the language spoken by the people of Mashonaland as 'ChiSwina' and the people who speak that language as 'MaSwina'. Another missionary, Rev. Pelly (1898) used the name 'Chino' to refer to the language of Mashonaland, whilst Rev. Etheridge (1903) used the term 'ChiZwina' when he translated St Mark's Gospel into ChiShona. The name 'ChiSwina' or 'ChiZwina' has some connection with *svina* or *tsvina* (dirt) and it has also been connected with *shona* or *chona*, which simply means despise or disappear (Doke, 1931; Gombe, 1998). Furthermore, Doke (ibid) states that the Zulu-speaking raiders from the East Coast used to describe their victims mainly people of the west, as *shona* (setting of the sun) and it has been stated that the Ndebele group on the west called a hill to the north-east of Gwelo (now Gweru) 'Tshona' and the people beyond it 'amaTshona'.

The idea that the name is a contemptuous nickname is widespread but is always based on nothing more certain than these very uncertain etymologies. Gombe (1998:24) says this about the origin of the name Shona:

Chokwadi chaicho hachina anonyatsoziva kuti zita iri rakabva nepi. Maduramazwi edu ose hapanawo rinopa tsananguro yenhoroondo yezwi iri, kana kutsanangura havo kuti rakabva nepi, uye kuti rakatanga kushandiswa riini.

Nobody seems to know where this name originated from. Our dictionaries also fail to give satisfactory explanations about the history of this name, the real meaning of the word and there is no explanation as to where it originated from or when it was first used

What we have according to Gombe (ibid), are mere hypotheses, which need further verifications. It is therefore true that the name Shona is not pleasing to the natives of Zimbabwe, Botswana and Mozambique because it is a group name imposed on them from outside ignoring ethnic distinctions that exist. As a result, each ethnic group in the three neighboring countries that speak ChiShona prefers to be identified using the proper dialect name such as Karanga, Kalanga, Korekore, Nambya, Hwesa or Ndaou to mention just a few.

Doke (1931) on the other hand, argues that Shona was a name that unified in fullness of time the dialects of the area generally and officially known as Mashonaland which presently comprises different administrative provinces called Mashonaland East, Mashonaland West, Mashonaland Central, Manicaland, Masvingo and Midlands. No name, Doke further argued, besides Shona, could unify the dialects in any way simpler.² ChiShona is therefore an artificial term used by linguists to refer to an agglomeration of mostly but not completely mutually intelligible dialects found within and outside Zimbabwe (Kahari, 1990). The advantage of using the name Shona to refer to the agglomeration of mutually intelligible dialects is that it is not a true name of any of the people whom Doke (1931) had proposed to group under the term 'Shona speaking people'. Shona, therefore was a foreign name that was very unlikely to be uncomplimentary like the other names used during the colonial era such as 'Kafir' (ibid).

Outside Zimbabwe, the language is spoken mainly in Botswana and Mozambique (Magwa, 2002). ChiKalanga dialect spoken in Hwange, Nyamandlovu and Bulima-Mangwe districts of Zimbabwe is also spoken in Botswana near and around Francistown and Tutume districts³. The ChiLilima, ChiPeri and ChiTalahundura sub-dialects are found in Botswana whereas ChiNyai, ChiNambya, ChiKalanga and ChiRozvi are peculiarities in Zimbabwe. Only 30% of the Ndaou speaking people reside in Zimbabwe and over two thirds are in Mozambique (Magwa, 1999). The ChiNdaou sub dialect is spoken in Chipinge, Chikore and Chimanimani districts of Zimbabwe and in Mozambique it is spoken in Moribane, Chimoio, Neves Ferreira and Buzi districts. ChiDanda variety is spoken in Mosurize and Sofala districts of Mozambique. The

² Doke's Recommendation Number 3 states that the name of the unified language be Shona and in the native Ciòona. This recommendation embodies the conclusion of the majority of the Language Committee at its last meeting and in support of it Doke quotes to some length from the report of the chairman of that Committee, presented at the end of 1929. For more details read Doke, C. M. (1931): *Report on The Unification of the Shona Dialects*. Hertford: Stephen Austin and Sons Limited. (pp 78-80).

³Read Magwa, W. (1999) *Manyorerwo eChiShona : Bhuku rinotsanangura mitemo yokumyora mutauru wedu*. Gweru: Mambo Press.(pp 1-7)

ChiShanga sub-dialect is found in Buzi, Beira, Sofala, Chiloane, Govuno and Neves Ferreira districts of Mozambique (Chimhundu, 2005). ChiTavara sub-dialect of ChiKorekore is found both in Zimbabwe and Mozambique. In Zimbabwe it is spoken in Makonde and Hurungwe districts whereas in Mozambique it is found in the Tete District (Doke, 1931). The ChiTeve sub-variety is spoken in Moribane and Chimoio districts of Mozambique.

The Linguistic Deficiencies of the Current Shona Orthography

The writing system currently being used by the various Shona speakers and writers is deficient since it does not cater for the broader issues of Shona dialectical variations and it also does not allow speakers to write the language the way they speak it. The orthographic emphasis is on the creation of peculiarities as opposed to resolving the linguistic issues of adequately accounting for the communicability and broad representativity of the writing system. Speakers and writers particularly from the ChiNdau, ChiBarwe, ChiHwesa, ChiTeve, ChiNambya, ChiKaranga, ChiKalanga, ChiManyika and ChiKorekore are compelled by these circumstances to write what in most cases they do not speak, resulting in numerous errors of spelling and word division. The spelling system being used by the Shona people is purely conventional and bears very little relation to what they speak (Chimhundu, 1992). For instance, in the current system, based on non-linguistic graphic presentation decisions, the Karanga are compelled to write <maheu> (sweet beer) instead of <maxeu>, <tswanda> (basket) instead of <xwanda> showing that the current orthography bears no relation to the actual utterances made by the people of the different dialects. The Ndau sub group is under conventional obligation to write <mutowo> (type) and <vanhu> (people) instead of <muhlobo> and <vantu> respectively. The Hwesa, who use words such as <nkuku> (hen) and <nkonto> (war) have to content with standard forms <huku> and <hondo> respectively. Each of the ten dialects has experienced similar writing problems, clearly showing that the Shona writing system is far from being standard, hence the need to design a new standard orthography that caters for the linguistic needs of speakers of the different Shona varieties.

However, there is reasonably a common vocabulary base among all the ten Shona dialects. Even a cursory study of publications in these dialects convinces one of their inherent affinities. Between eighty and ninety percent of the vocabulary is common to the areas resided by the Shona speaking people in Botswana, Mozambique and Zimbabwe. The main points that bind into one language the Shona main dialects are the following:

- An underlying common vocabulary base with words such as *sadza* (thick porridge), *mukadzi* (woman), *nyama* (meat) and *baba* (father) being common in almost all the varieties of ChiShona.
- Common sharing of particular phonetic features and phonological processes such as:
 - Use of a five-vowel system <a, e, i, o, u> e.g. *Hechino chiram*u changu.
 - Use of significant tones as in *guru* (big) and *guru* (stripe)

⁴ Read Chimhundu 2005:156 and Magwa 2007:18-21.

- Employment of whistling fricatives <°, ž> as in *svika* (arrive) and *zvakanaka* (they are good)]
 - Phenomenon of velarization <k, g> as in *khamba* (leopard) and *gomba* (pit)
 - Employment of implosives <b, d> as in *baba* (father) and *dada* (be proud)
- Common sharing of grammatical features like monosyllabic noun prefixes in words like: *mu* - + -*rume* (male) *chi* - + - *ngwa* (bread)
 - Significant super addition of prefixes to nouns as in: *ka*-+ *mu* - + - *komana* (slim boy)
 - Uniform tense indication system using tense and aspect formatives: *cha*, *ka* as in *ndichaenda* (I will go) *takadya* (we ate)
 - A common decimal enumeration as in *motsi/poshi* (1) *piri* (2) *tatu* (3) *china* (4) *shanu* (5) *tanhatu* (6) *chinomwe* (7) *rusere* (8) *pfumbamwe* (9), *gumi* (10)

(Doke, 1931; Magwa, 1999).

These are just but a few of the aspects that show that the dialects are mutually intelligible hence they are dialects of the same language. An English passage translated into all the ten dialects demonstrated that Shona dialects are mere variations of the same language.⁴ The translations showed that there is not much difference between these Shona varieties, hence it is possible to have one unified standard orthography for speaker – writers in Mozambique, Botswana and Zimbabwe.

The Morpho-syntactic Nature of the Writing System

The current Shona orthography uses a conjunctive system of word division that was recommended by Doke in 1931. Detailed word division and spelling rules are found in Fortune's (1972) *A Guide to Shona Spelling* (pp 21-50). As with spelling, the statement of the rules of word division in the current orthography is over-elaborate and ridden with inconsistencies of both principle and application. Chimhundu (2005: 63) states that some of the converse rules and qualifying rules are unnecessary. There are practical problems that speaker-writers are experiencing in internalizing and applying the current rules consistently hence the need to review these rules that were crafted in 1967.

Since the last revisions made in 1967 up to the present day, speakers of the different Shona dialects are experiencing a number of difficulties that come as a result of a defective alphabet, spelling, word division and punctuation system. The current orthography is linguistically

⁴Read Chimhundu 2005:156 and Magwa 2007:18-21.

constraining in a number of ways since the standard alphabet does not have symbols to represent all the sounds that are found in the various Shona dialects.

The Phonological Base of the Alphabet

The Ministry of Education in Zimbabwe approved the orthography being used to write ChiShona in Zimbabwe in 1967 and the alphabet had the following letters:

<a, b, bh, ch, d, dh, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, m, mh, n, nh, ny, n', o, p, r, s, sh, sv, t, u, v, vh, w, y, z, zh, zv> (Fortune, 1972; Magwa, 1999).

In this alphabet, all the distinctive speech sounds or phonemes have letters or digraphs provided for without the addition of any new or special symbols. As for sound combinations the approved digraphs and trigraphs are as follows:

<bh, bv, bw, ch, chw, dh, dw, dz dy, dzw, dyw, dzv, fw, gw, hw, jw, kw, mh, mw, mbw, mhw, mb, nd, ng,nh, nhw, nw, ngw, nzw, nz, nzv, ny,nyw, pw, sh, shw, sv, svw, sw, tw, tsw, tyw, ty, tsv, vh, zh, zhw, zv, zvw, zw>

The consonant clusters represented in the current Shona orthography are the nasal combinations, affricates and <w> combinations. There is a wide range of <w> combinations because nearly all consonants and consonant combinations may be followed by <w> before vowels in syllables.

The absence of letters <l> and <x> on the standard alphabet compels speakers of ChiKalanga, ChiKaranga, ChiNdau and ChiKorekore dialects to write what they do not speak. The deficiencies in the current orthography further obligate writers and speakers from the above-mentioned dialect speakers to write as follows:

<mutowo> not *<muhlobo>* (Ndau)
<tumbudzi> not *<xumbudzi>* (Korekore)
<rudo> not *<ludo>* (Kalanga)
<tswanda> not *<xwanda>* (Karanga)

Another challenge is the use of breathy voice sounds representation. Breathy voice, as a phonetic feature, is so common in most Shona dialects. However, it is not fully represented in the standard spelling. The voiced glottal <h> has been readily used in making it possible for the current orthography to represent all the distinctive speech sounds that were recognized by Doke (1931) as breathy voice. Apart from <bh, dh, nh, vh, zh, hw> the letter <h> is not allowed to accompany certain consonant sounds found in some Shona words such as:

<nghanunu> (canon)
<rhori> (lorry)
<mbhaura> (blazier)
<ndhari> (beer for selling)

The present alphabet fails to distinguish between:

- <r> in <roro> (fruit) and
- <rh> in <rhori> (lorry)
- <r> in <rumba> (run) and
- <rh> in <rhumba> (type of music)
- <nd> in <ndiro> (plate) and
- <ndh> in <ndhari> (beer for selling)
- <mb> in <mbada> (leopard) and
- <mbh> in <mbhaura> (blazier)

Although most Shona people perceive breathy <h> in the words <rhori, nghanunu, ndhari mbhaura> they cannot represent this breathy voice in writing if they are to apply rules of the current Shona orthography. The acceptable spellings are <nganunu; rori, ndari and mbaaura>. Officially, the combinations <rh, mbh, ndh, ngh> are not permitted.

ChiKalanga, ChiBarwe, ChiKaranga, ChiNdau, ChiHwesa and ChiKorekore have several other sound realizations and combinations that are not found on the current spelling system;

- e.g. ChiNdau: <kudhla> (to eat)
<ntunzi> (fly)
<kuthwa> (pound)
<khamba> (leopard)
- ChiKalanga: <ntene> (insect)
<madleyo> (pastures)
<mpheni> (lightning)
<ludo> (love)
- ChiKorekore: <xumbudzi> (goats)
<mpeni> (knife)
<khamba> (leopard)
- ChiKaranga: <xwanda> (reed basket)
<maxeu> (sweet beer)
- ChiHwesa: <muphare>(boy)
<nkuni>(firehood)
<khunguwo>(crow)
- ChiBarwe: <zentsse>(all)
<-psvaira>(sweep)
<mpfuti>(gun)

It is interesting to note that the current orthography has so many deficiencies to the extent that people with certain ChiNdau names find it almost impractical to write them using the standard orthography since certain combinations are not part of the standard alphabet (Magwa, 1999:35).

e.g. *Dhliwayo* (dhl)*

Mhlanga (mhl)*

* denotes that the letter combination is not acceptable

Lexical and Phonological Considerations in Standardization of the Orthography

Vocabulary forms that were adopted by the Shona Language Committee to be the standard were selected using the principle of “what was deemed to be pronunciation of the majority of the dialects” (Fortune, 1972:32). Unfortunately, the principle was inconsistently applied because it:

- Did not allow the use of <w> by Manyika and Korekore speakers in class 2 affixes and opted for the <v> used in ChiKaranga and ChiZezuru to be written as the standard form, e.g. <vanhu> not <wanhu>.
- Opted for affricates used in all other dialects but did not allow the fricatives used in ChiKaranga as alternative forms.

e.g. <pfuma> not <fuma>

<tsine> not <sine>

<nzeve> not <zheve>

<tsvina> not <svina>

- Refused to accept or recognize alternative spelling forms

e.g. <uchi> not <vuchi>

<upenyu> not <vupenyu>

The foregoing discussions demonstrate the issues that the current orthography has. Most of the rules at the phonological, syntactical and lexical levels are or were still inconsistent. For speakers in various Shona variants, these conventional and linguistic issues pose a problem. Linguistically speaking, the simple statistical advantage of phonological lexical or syntactic rules is not enough to resolve the issues. It is on this basis that a revision of the orthography was necessary, and it had to be comprehensive, dialectally to ensure that orthography rules

⁵ The first harmonization workshop was held on 23-24 February 2006. The second was on 28-29 June 2006. The sole objective of the two workshops was to harmonize the orthographies of the following Shona varieties: ChiKaranga, ChiBarwe, ChiHwesa, ChiKorekore, ChiZezuru, ChiNdau, ChiNambya, ChiKalanga, ChiManyika, and ChiTeve.

were objective and linguistically broad based. The orthographic research of the past years has therefore moved towards an establishment of a unified standard orthography whose aim has been to integrate Shona variants, phonologically systematize the alphabet symbols, and morpho-syntactically specify presentation of words and structures in the writing system.

A New Standard Unified Shona Orthography: Asset or Liability?

Although ChiShona is on its way towards full standardization as a written and literary language, there is need to carry out another comprehensive revision of the alphabet, spelling, word division and punctuation system so as to create a standard acceptable to all dialects. The orthography, particularly the alphabet, must be expanded so as to cater for the needs of the different Shona people who should write their language the way they speak it. In response to this, the Centre for Advanced Studies of African Society (CASAS), in association with the African Languages Research Institute (ALRI) and the Shona Language and Culture Association (SLCA) held workshops in Harare at the University of Zimbabwe in February and June 2006 to harmonize and standardize the ten Shona dialects.⁵

The New Alphabet

The Standard Unified Shona Orthography Committee (SUSOC) proposed a new standard unified system of writing ChiShona that would permit speakers of the different dialects to write in the same way, while still allowing for variations in choice of vocabulary. The committee discussed and made resolutions on the alphabet, spelling, word division, borrowing and punctuation. The 1967 Shona alphabet, which is the source of many orthography problems, had some of its restrictions removed. The new unified standard Shona alphabet preferred letters rather than symbols and the following letters are to be used to represent the single sounds or phones that are used in all the dialects or varieties of ChiShona spoken in Botswana, Mozambique and Zimbabwe:

<a, b, c, d, e, f, g, h, i, j, k, l, m, n, n', o, p, r, s, t, u, v, w, x, y, z> (Magwa, 2007:48).

In addition to these letters of the alphabet, a set of recommended digraphs and trigraphs has been provided to guide speakers and writers to spell Shona words correctly and consistently. These digraphs and trigraphs should be used as the basis for building syllables, morphemes and words in the different Shona dialects.

*Inventory of Letter Combinations**A. Consonants*

The letter combinations to accompany the ‘new alphabet’ are as follows:

Letter	Combination	Examples
b	bh, bhw, bv, bzv, bw	<i>bhora, bhwaira, bveni, bzvinya, bwiro</i> <i>NB <bw> is written as <bg> in some areas as a mere orthographic habit but there is no phonetic justification.</i>
c	ch, chw	<i>chikoro, - gochwa</i>
d	dh, dhw, dl, dw, dy, dyw, dz, dzv, dzw	<i>dhora, dhwa! mdleyo, - budwa, - dyara, dywaga, - dzidza, dzvinyu, - dzwany</i>
f	fw	<i>- gofwa</i>
g	gw	<i>gwatar</i>
h	hw	<i>hwahwa</i>
j	jw	<i>-jwany</i>
k	kh, kw	<i>khamba, kwete</i>
m	mb, mbh, mbw, mh; mhl, mhwa, ml, mp, mph, mv, my	<i>mbuya, mbhaura, mbwende, mhuru, mhlanga, - fumhwa, Mlambo mpeni, mpheni, mvura, Myambo</i>
n	nd, ndh, ndhl, ndw, ndy, ng, ngh, ngw, nh, nhw, nk, nj, njw, nt, nts, nw, ny, nyw, nz, nzw, nzv, nzvw	<i>ndege, ndhari, ndhlandhlamo, ndwise, ndyaringo, ngoma, ngombe, nghanunu, ngwena, nhoru, -denhwa, nkuku njiva -kanjwa, ntene, zentse, - nwiwa, nyama, -menywa, nzira, nzwisi so, nzvimbo, - tunzvw</i>
p	ph, pf, psv, pw	<i>muphonga, pfuti, - psvaira, - pwatika</i> <i>NB -<pw> is written as <pk> or <px> in some areas</i>
r	rh, rw	<i>rhoru, rwizi</i>
s	sh, shw, sw, sv, svw,	<i>shumba, shwarara, - swedera, svikiro, -tesvwa</i>
t	th, ts, tsh, tsw, tsv, tsvw, ty, tw, tyw	<i>-thuka, tsamba, tshamba, tswanda, tsvimbo, - tsvetsvwa, tyava, -twara, -tywakatika</i>
v	vh	<i>vhiri</i>
x	xw	<i>xwanda</i>
z	zh, zhwa, zv, zvw, zw	<i>zhezha, zhwerere, zvichemo, -rozvwa</i>

B. Vowels

Only 5 contrastive vowels <a, e, i, o, u> should be used and long vowels may appear in demonstratives, ideophones or interjectives as follows:

Ideophones: *dhuu* (finish)
 mhuu (sound of a cow)

Demonstratives: *ichoo* (there it is)
 uyoo (that one)

Interjectives: *yowee!* (alas)
 Ee! (yes)

NB: Only a maximum of two vowels is allowed at the end of the above grammatical terms.

The Treatment of Tone

Although tone has grammatical implications, as it makes semantic differences, it is not necessary to mark it as the meaning of words is in most cases discernible from sentential and discourse context (Doke, 1931). The other reason for not marking tone is that it will burden the writing system unnecessarily. It is likely to complicate graphic presentation of vowels and consonant symbols. Without tone markings, an utterance would appear as follows:

Ndichaenda kumusha (I shall go home)

NB *The above sentence is meaningful even though tone markings have not been indicated.*

Criteria for Word Division

- (i) The conjunctive word division system should be used to write ChiShona thus all affixes should be written together with their stems (nouns, verbs and adjectives) as single units.⁶

e.g. *Achaenda*
 Ndibaba
 Ihombe

- (ii) Adjectives demonstratives, pronouns, selectors, quantitatives and enumeratives should be free standing.

e.g. Adjective: <*hembe chena*>

⁶Read, "Report on the Shona Harmonization Workshop" held on 23rd-24th February 2006, pp 6-8: The Report was compiled by Professor W. Magwa (MidlandsStateUniversity) and Professor H. Chimhundu (University of Zimbabwe).

Demonstrative: <*vana ava*>
 Selector <*musha uye*>
 Quantitative <*mabhazi ose*>
 Enumerative <*imwe mhuka*>
 Pronouns <*ini handidi*>

- (iii) Adverbial phrases should be written separately from the preceding verb.
 e.g. Adverb of time – *waenda masikati*
 Adverb of manner – *vaita zvakana*
 Adverb of place – *gara kuchikoro*
 Adverb of degree – *chema zvikuru*
- (iv) Ideophones are perceived as one word and should therefore be written as separate words.
 e.g. *do kuwa*
tande nenzira
 The maximum acceptable length of an ideophone is three syllables
 e.g. *dhururu*
ngiriri
- (v) Compound nouns should be written conjunctively as in the following examples:
Chivhindikiti
Dapurahunanzva
- (vi) Reduplicated noun verb and ideophonic forms should be written as one word because they represent single lexical items. In other words reduplicated forms should be written without a space or hyphen in between.
 e.g. Nouns: *usikusiku* not *usiku siku*
rungwanangwana not *rungwana ngwana*
 Verbs: *fambafamba* not *famba-famba* or *famba famba*
Chemachema not *chema-chema* or *chema chema*
 Ideophones: *garegare* not *gare gare*
mhanyemhanye not *mhanye mhanye*
- (vii) Interjectives should be written separate from the main word forms.
 e.g. *Yowee! Ha! Hezvo!*
- (viii) Enclitics should be written together with the main word.
 eg. *Ndipewozve ?*
Handeka

Handling of Borrowed Words and Established Names

Borrowed words should be written as they are pronounced in the local languages. The borrowed word should follow a clearly defined pattern of adoption and phonologization as indicated below. The borrowed item should be nativized and standardized.

e.g. *bhotoro* (bottle)
dhokotera (doctor)

Writing Place Names

Names of places such as villages and towns as well as names of languages will be written as pronounced.

e.g. *Rashiya* (Russia)
Hingirandi (England)
Tirango (Triangle)

Place names that have not been phonologized will be written as they are spelt in the source language.

eg. Athens, Paris, Greece.

Finally, personal names should be written as they are spelt in the source language.

eg. George, Johnson, Tafara, Moyo, Samukeliso or Hadebe.

Linguistically speaking, the foregoing criteria for writing are solid and should apply to all Shona variants without much problem. However, orthography as a convention requires that all elements that feed the convention must be managed to satisfy the requirements of a unified standard form. With the diversity in phonology and lexical variations this exercise becomes a permanent liability. Language planners and teachers must find innovative means to keep these divergences managed within a constructive linguistic context which emphasizes mutual intelligibility and sharing of linguistic and literary resources in the development of language varieties.

Challenges

The main problem with the majority rule principle that was used to select standard vocabulary items is that the selected norm shifts from dialect to dialect with each feature that is being looked at. Therefore it becomes very difficult for any of the speakers and writers to internalize the rules and apply them consistently. The majority rule principle also has the short coming of being selective in that other varieties like Hwesa, Barwe and Nambya are peripherised and at times left to die after being labeled minority languages. Other dialectical features that are distinctive but have not been accommodated by the standard orthography are ejective voiceless

stops <p, t, k > in ChiManyika, with consequent ambiguity in such spellings as <kamba> (tortoise) and <khamba> (leopard).

There are also demands for the accommodation of the ChiNdau, ChiNambya, ChiKalanga and ChiBarwe breathy voice nasal stops such as those found in words like <mphuka> (animal) and <munthu> (person) since they are not recognized by the current writing system. Another big area of inconsistency is when and where not to insert the glides <v, w, y> between vowels to represent various pronunciations in dialect. Up until now, there is no common understanding of what standard Shona orthography is with reference to possible variations in spelling across the dialects. Even though a unified grammar was standardized on the basis of ChiKaranga and ChiZezuru, in practice we find that none, not even Karanga nor do Zezuru speakers themselves apply grammatical rules consistently. In view of these practical problems, the argument that this paper advances is that a review of the whole orthography be started.

Conclusion

Writing the Shona language in a dialectally harmonized system is important for the future development of the language since it will ensure sharing of common linguistic resources and encourage orthographic convergence. A new unified standard Shona writing system if developed will help Shona speakers to write what they speak and the problem of Shona speaker-writers failing to write what they speak could be resolved before the end of this decade. The paper has clearly demonstrated that a standard writing system is achievable by way of prescribing a common alphabet, common spelling and common word division system. But, it would be naïve to expect a uniform practice at the spoken level. This would be an unrealistic and undesirable expectation which “has never been and never will be realized anywhere in the world in respect of any natural language” (Chimhundu 1992:87). It is however important to realize that the spirit of establishing a standard writing system for the Shona varieties as enshrined in the Standard Unified Shona Orthography (SUSO) documents, should be that of cooperation and not that of conquest. This simply means that the harmonization and standardization of the dialects should develop naturally without coercion. Finally, Shona language experts should always bear in mind that the development of a genuine standard language is work that needs careful planning, guidance and patience.

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CHALLENGES FACED IN THE IMPLEMENTATION OF THE LOCALIZED ADVANCED LEVEL GEOGRAPHY SYLLABUS: A CASE OF HARARE HIGH SCHOOLS.

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Abstract

The paper examines the challenges met in implementing the Localized 'A' Level Geography Syllabus. The study was conducted at 2006 in 52 Harare High Schools offering the localized 'A' Level Geography syllabus. The sample for the study consisted of 108 'A' Level Geography students, 54 'A' Level Geography teachers, 3 education officers and 14 former Geography 'A' Level students already enrolled at the University of Zimbabwe. The research used both qualitative and quantitative aspects of research. Data was analysed using the manual sort and count, grouping, coding, classifying and categorizing to identify trends and patterns as they were emerging. Thick description was also employed using information and excerpts from questionnaires, interviews, observations and document analysis. The major findings were that teachers are not using the new 'A' Level Geography syllabus in planning their lessons. Teachers are still using notes that they made from the previous syllabus and students' exercises, which are derived from the old syllabus. Teachers are not confident when teaching the new syllabus and in planning their lessons. The content in available textbooks is largely not relevant to the new 'A' Level Geography syllabus as some case studies are out-dated and that the textbooks do not have local and regional examples. Teachers are having problems in implementing the new 'A' Level syllabus as intended by the curriculum planners. The study recommends that teachers, as classroom practitioners, should discuss approaches in their districts or cluster workshops, seminars and staff developments on how to improve the implementation of this new 'A' Level Geography syllabus with a view to making them feel more confident in the teaching and learning of Geography.

Background to the study

The implementation of new programmes and curricular innovations is a critical component of educational research. The last five years in Zimbabwe have been a time of changes in all subjects of the secondary curriculum due to the localisation of the Advanced Level ('A' Level) curricular in 2002 (Chavhunduka & Moyo 2003). In some cases, there have been a general updating and rationalisation, while in others traditional subjects have been integrated. (ibid)

In Zimbabwe, from the colonial era up to the year 2000, the Cambridge University, as an external board ran 'A' Level examinations. The Zimbabwe School Examinations Council (ZIMSEC) took over in November 2002 (*Sunday Mail* 2004). The new syllabi were introduced in the wake of the localization of the 'A' Level examinations.

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In 'A' Level Geography, over and above sections A and B, a third section, section C was introduced and the topics were re-arranged. The new Syllabus 9156/1/2 was introduced in November 2002. A new topic in Physical Geography, "*Hazardous Environments*" and a new topic in Human Geography, "*Environmental Management*," were introduced. New content was added, and some of the older content removed. A particularly noteworthy addition was the inclusion of human impacts at the end of each major topic (ZIMSEC 'A' Level Geography syllabus 2003). The development of the new syllabus also affected the structure of the questions in both papers in that each question now considers Bloom's taxonomy of questioning techniques where all abilities are tested in one question using structured questions. The concentric approach is greatly emphasized. (ibid)

The aim of these changes was to capture contemporary issues such as global warming, environmental issues and disasters and relate the subject's content to the interests, needs and context of Zimbabwean learners. This research seeks to find out approaches used in implementing the new localized 'A' Level Geography syllabus and challenges encountered. A syllabus may have a perfectly sound aims and objectives, which can be distorted in the implementation process. Gross (1990) reports that lack of understanding of the new roles to be played by the teacher, students, absence of training facilities and school organization may fail to respond sufficiently. Insufficient physical resources and inappropriate teaching and learning groups are factors that militate against successful implementation of curricular innovation. This means that successful implementation of a new syllabus depends on the orientation of the implementers. Griffith and Howson (1996) advise that no matter how good a curriculum looks on paper, that curriculum becomes worthless if the whole spirit of the curriculum is lost in the translation into actual lessons. This implies that teachers may actually garble the message intended as mediators during the implementation of the syllabus. There seems to be a public outcry over discrepancies between curriculum intent and curriculum reality.

Ottevanger (2001) notes that materials are produced to support teachers to implement new teaching strategies and whilst promoting such strategies, the materials are also meant to guide teachers in planning and actual teaching of lessons in a way intended by the curriculum. This means that curriculum implementation materials are those that close the gap between the curriculum developers and the curriculum implementers, that is facilitating the new curriculum or new intentions to be carried out in a way as close to what the developers intended as possible. The study will establish how the available materials in schools are helping in implementing the localized syllabus.

The curriculum may be seen as made up of three components; the intended curriculum which is drawn up in the form of syllabus policy statements, teaching materials and the implemented curriculum which is the most important part that the attained curriculum or what the learner has actually learned (Cochran-Smith & Lytle, 2001).

In a study of the school curriculum by Jaji and Nyagura (1989) noted that the attained curriculum clearly shows divergence from the intended curriculum. In other words what the syllabus is intended to achieve and what is attained is different. Winter (1998), in his study of science education in Asia, pointed out that some of the greatest problems of curriculum reforms are examinations. The author cites external examinations as the major obstacle to development

of science education courses, which are relevant to the local situations. In other words, the curriculum has to be relevant to the needs of students, teachers and society but the question lies on whether the new syllabus is effectively implemented, and how examinations constrain adoption of curriculum innovations. In view of these challenges, Geography teachers have multiple responsibilities in syllabus implementation. They must help students learn some of the accumulated knowledge by human kind and they must help them to acquire skills for the acquisition and discovery of new information. In addition, they must also help students acquire more general problem solving communication and social skills. It is therefore, essential to assess the implementation of the new 'A' Level Geography syllabus.

Munowenyu (1997) assessed the ability and needs of teachers for the implementation of Geography in Zimbabwe. He assessed teachers' perception of the practical Geography kit, which was distributed to secondary schools in Zimbabwe from 1989 to 1990. The study explored the kit's influences on promoting the use of fieldwork in the teaching and learning of Geography in the country. The findings were that the Geography kit was not fully utilized as was intended in the teaching and learning of fieldwork. In some schools, the instruments were gathering dust in the storerooms. Teachers have inadequate training in how to use the Geography kit. This has motivated the researcher to find out whether the new 'A' Level Geography syllabus is being implemented as intended and to establish whether the teacher uses the available resources to plan their lessons.

On the role of instructional materials in syllabus implementation, Nieveen (1999) asserts that practicality was viewed with respect to the ability of the material to stimulate learning content through contextualization of subject content, use of locally available materials and support for learner-centred teaching and learning. Specifically, the study seeks to determine the practicality of the new syllabus and how it is being implemented. Textbooks are viewed in terms of their functionality, that is, their ability to facilitate the teaching and learning process as intended by the syllabus.

Exemplary curriculum materials have been produced in a number of curriculum innovations. Ottevanger (2001) asserts that in these innovations, materials were produced to support teachers in implementing new teaching strategies. This implies that whilst promoting such strategies, the instructional materials must be produced to guide teachers in planning lessons in a way intended by the syllabus developers. Such materials or textbooks are effective if they contain procedural specifications for both teachers and students. The study sought to establish the usefulness of the available textbooks to the teachers and students and find out whether content in the available textbooks is relevant to the new 'A' Level Geography syllabus.

It was against this background that this study sought to find out how the Localized 'A' Level Geography Syllabus is being implemented in Zimbabwe. Specifically, the study sought to answer the following research questions.

- a) What challenges do schools/teachers face in syllabus implementation?

- b) How are the teachers prepared before syllabus implementation?

Methods

Research design and Sample

The research used both qualitative and quantitative aspects of research to enable the researcher to collect both qualitative and quantitative data from schools offering localized 'A' Level Geography syllabus. The qualitative research methods allowed the researcher to pursue themes emerging from the data, during the research process. Lincoln and Guba (2000) assert that qualitative research is concerned with the process rather than simply with outcome of products. Quantitative methods were used to collect data through an inventory and checklist. The checklist includes available resources, textbooks, schemes of work and students' exercise books. The study was conducted in Harare High Schools offering localized 'A' Level Geography. The sample for the study consisted of 108 'A' Level Geography students, 54 'A' Level Geography teachers, 3 education officers and 14 former 'A' Level students already enrolled at the University of Zimbabwe. The respondents in the sample represented all the High Schools in Harare offering localized 'A' Level Geography.

Instrument

The main focus of the questionnaire to the 'A' Level Geography teachers and students was to find out the main challenges teachers, current 'A' Level students were facing and former 'A' Level students faced in implementing the syllabus and to investigate their experience in the Geography classroom. The questionnaire was also meant to establish the preparedness of the teachers before syllabus implementation. In- depth informal and formal interviews with the teachers, former students, current students and education officers were conducted to build up rapport, explore key aspects and probe deeper into emerging categories about the challenges schools/teachers are facing in syllabus implementation.

Procedure

A pilot test of the questionnaire and interview was done to teachers and students at three schools in Chitungwiza offering localized 'A' Level Geography. The researcher self-administered the questionnaire after getting informed consent from the respondents. The purpose of the research was explained to the respondents and procedures to be followed during the research. The researcher employed non-participant observation using schedules and checklist prepared in advance on the items to be observed. A number of relevant documents were analysed, these included the syllabus, textbooks used by teachers and students, previous examination questions, schemes of work and students' exercise books. Collected data was analysed using the manual sort and count, classified, categorized and trends and patterns analysed as they emerged. Thick descriptions were also employed using information from the questionnaire, interviews, observations and document analysis.

Results

Table 1: Summary of results from current 'A' Level Geography students' questionnaire.

Question/Theme	Current students (2005-2006) (n=108)				
	SA	A	N	D	SD
a) I find it difficult to interpret the Geography 'A' level syllabus.	30(28%)	47(44%)	0 (0%)	23(21%)	8 (7%)
b) What is the extent of the relevance of the content in available textbooks to the new syllabus?	VG	G	P	VP	
	27(25%)	33(31%)	31(29%)	17(15%)	
c) What sections of the syllabus do you find most difficult to learn? List them in order of difficulty.	-1 st order 90% indicated Climatology and Hazardous environments. -2 nd order 81% indicated Hazardous environments, Sketch map and Fieldwork.				
d) What topics are given more time/attention in content coverage? Why?	Population, Settlement, Hydrology, maybe the topics are easy to teach, textbooks are readily available for the topics and they are interesting topics.				
e) Do you have books recommended for syllabus? (a) Yes (b) No	Yes		No		
	64 (59%)		44 (41%)		

KEY

Strongly agree (SA), Agree (A), Neutral (N), Disagree (D) & Strongly disagree (SD)
Very good (VG), Good (G), Poor (P) & Very poor (VP).

The results from the current 'A' Level Geography students reveal a number of outcomes from the respondents:

The 'A' Level Geography students are having problems in understanding the new 'A' Level Geography syllabus. Seventy-two percent indicated that they find it difficult to interpret the Geography 'A' Level syllabus.

The current 'A' Level Geography students thought the extent of relevance of the content in available textbooks is very little as to the requirements of the syllabus.

The students were also asked to list sections of the syllabus that they found most difficult to learn and 90% of the students indicated that they found *Climatology* and *Hazardous Environments* difficult to learn and were in the first order of the list. In the second order of the list, 81% indicated they found *Hazardous Environments*, *Sketch Map* and *Fieldwork* difficult to learn. They also reported that they found *Geomorphology*, *Manufacturing*, *Biogeography*, *Environmental Management* and *Structural Landforms*, difficult to learn.

However, the current 'A' Level Geography students elaborated that the textbooks do not have local and regional examples, case studies are outdated and that there were topics that were not well covered in the textbooks, which include, *Mapping* and *Fieldwork*, *Hazardous Environment* and *Environmental Management*. Former 'A' Level students also supported

this by revealing that the textbooks available were not adequate though in schools, D. Waugh: “An Integrated Approach” and M. Carr: “New Patterns: Process and Change in Human Geography” were 100% and 85% respectively in order of their availability. But of major concern was the absence of B.J. Lennon and P. G. Cleves; “Techniques and Fieldwork in Geography” and J. M. Pritchard: “Practical Geography for Africa” which were 27% and 18% respectively. The above textbooks form the basis of both Sketch map and Fieldwork at ‘A’ Level Geography. Fifty-five percent of the students mentioned in the interview that they shared or are sharing textbooks in Geography classes.

Table 2: Summary of results from former ‘A’ Level Geography students’ questionnaire.

Question/Theme	Former students. (2004 & before) (N=14)	
a) What is the extent of the relevance of the content in available textbooks to the new syllabus?	-No relevance 62%.	-With relevance 38%.
b) Did your teachers cover all topics in the syllabus? Elaborate.	Yes 3 (21%)	No 11 (79%)
	<u>Elaboration</u> Only one optional topic was covered.	
c) What topics were given more time/attention in content coverage? Why?	Hydrology, Fluvial processes, Settlement and Population-they had available textbooks in the school, and teachers had resources on these topics. They are easy topics to teach.	
d) Did you have books recommended for syllabus?	Yes	No
(a) Yes	4 (28%)	10 (72%)
(b) No		

The former ‘A’ Level Geography students who sat for the 9156 syllabus and were given a questionnaire and interviewed indicated that they wrote ‘A’ Level Geography examinations in 2003 and 2004. Former ‘A’ Level Geography students indicated that the available textbooks used had little relevant content to the requirements of the syllabus.

The students revealed that teachers were not covering all topics in the syllabus, teachers covered only three core topics in both Physical and Human Geography papers instead of four and only one optional topic was taught instead of two which are recommended by the syllabus.

The results also reveal that 64% of the former ‘A’ Level Geography students indicated that the topics “*Population Geography*” and “*Hydrology*” were given more time in content coverage and were listed in the first order. The same topics were placed in the second order with about 57% indicating that they are given more attention in content coverage. The findings revealed that these topics were given more time or attention because the topics are either easy or that the information is readily available in the textbooks.

Table 3: Summary of results from ‘A’ Level Geography teachers’ questionnaire.

Question/Theme	‘A’ level Geography teachers responses (n=54)	
a). Are you confident when teaching the new syllabus and in panning lessons? a)Yes b)No	Yes 20 (39%)	No 34 (61%)
b). What is the extent of the relevance of the content in available textbooks to the new syllabus?	-No relevance 37 (63%)	-With relevance 17 (37%)
c). What sections of the syllabus do you find most difficult to teach? List them in order of difficulty. Reasons	-39% indicated Sketch maps and Fieldwork. -29% hazardous environments and environmental management -29% Climatology, Biogeography and Geomorphology Operate without recommended books; content in textbooks has little relevance.	
d). Where do you derive your objectives and students’ tests and exercises? a) Old syllabus b) New syllabus	New syllabus 23 (42%)	Old syllabus 31 (58%)
e). Do you have books recommended for the syllabus? (a) Yes (b) No	Yes 17 (33%)	No 32 (67%)
f). Was a try-out stage done at your school before implementation of the new syllabus? (a) Yes (b) No	Yes 0 (0%)	No 54 (100%)
g). Did you attend any in-service training on how to implement the new ‘A’ Level Geography syllabus?	Yes 0 (0%)	No 54 (100%)

From the teachers questionnaire only 39% indicated that they are confident to teach the syllabus. Teachers were asked to list sections of the syllabus that they found difficult to teach and indicated that they found “Sketch map and Fieldwork” difficult to teach and others found “Hazardous Environments” and “Climatology” difficult. They also reported that Biogeography, Geomorphology and Environmental Management were difficult to teach. Reasons outlined were that of relevant textbooks which tackle the content as required by the ‘A’ Level Geography syllabus.

A matter of very grave concern is that when asked if they had recommended textbooks, 67% indicated they were teaching without recommended textbooks. Only 33% indicated that they had relevant textbooks. Geography teachers revealed that neither a try-out stage nor in-service teacher training was done on the implementation of the localized ‘A’ Level Geography syllabus.

Results from Interviewing Education Officers

The Education Officers from ZIMSEC, Curriculum Development Unity (CDU) and Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture also revealed that neither a try-out stage nor in-service teacher training was done. This was blamed on the lack of finance and human power on the part of the government. This has resulted in teachers lacking confidence in the implementation of the new localised 'A' Level Geography syllabus. However, the Ministry of Education Sport and Culture is making an effort to encourage teachers to organize themselves into cluster groups and discuss problematic topics in the subject.

The education officers from ZIMSEC said the syllabus was implemented as intended since 70% of the content was accessible to the teachers. This was deduced from the examiners' reports of the previous examinations. The education officers from CDU and Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture revealed that there were no follow-ups after the production of the syllabus. The CDU officer indicated that it was the duty of the Ministry of Education Sport and Culture to make a follow-up on how syllabi are implemented, whilst the officer interviewed from that Ministry complained about the lack of finance and shortage of work force. When asked whether teachers were confident in implementing the new syllabus, there were no clear answers, since there was no follow-up to the schools. However, the education officers from ZIMSEC and Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture mentioned topics that teachers are facing challenges in teaching such as *Hazardous Environment*, *Environmental Management*, *Sketch map*, *Fieldwork*, *Climatology* and some Optional topics such as *Glacial* and *Peri-glacial Environments* and *Coastal Environments*.

In the development of the new localized 'A' Level Geography syllabus, only six high school teachers were involved which is 9% of the Geography 'A' Level teachers in Harare. The six teachers were in fact representing the whole nation. A representative sample of the teachers was not used in developing the syllabus.

Results from Lesson Observations

The lesson observations and exercise books analysis revealed that 63% of the teachers' schemes of work used the new 'A' Level Geography syllabus, whilst 25% were still using the old syllabus and 12% were using both. On trying to establish where the objectives were derived from, 56% of the teachers were using the new 'A' Level Geography syllabus content topics, 25% were using the textbooks content topics and 19% were using the old syllabus content topics. Only 45% of the teachers' schemes of work for lessons met the goals and objectives of the syllabus whilst 55% were not.

Results from Document Analysis

The students' exercise books revealed that of the written exercises, homework and research assignments, 17% were taken from the past examination question papers Syllabus 9056 before November 2002 and 9% from the past examination question papers Syllabus 9156 after November 2002. Fifty-eight percent of the questions were taken from the textbooks and hence most of the questions were not derived from the syllabus objectives. Sixteen percent

of the questions were set neither from the past examination question papers nor textbooks but were set directly from the 9156 syllabus objectives.

For the students' test, 49% were from the 9056 past examination question papers the old syllabus, and 23% were taken from the 9156 past examination question papers the new syllabus and 28% of the test questions were taken from the textbooks.

Discussion

The findings from both current and former 'A' Level Geography students reveal that teachers are not covering all the topics in the syllabus. In light of this, teachers should teach all the topics in the syllabus in order to give the students a wide choice of questions in examinations or follow the syllabus guidelines. Winter (1998) pointed out that the greatest problems of curriculum reforms are examinations. If all topics in the syllabus are not covered this will leave students with a narrow choice of questions in the examinations and it will affect the quality of results in Geography. There are some topics in the new 'A' Level syllabus that both teachers and students regard as easy and others they regard as difficult.

The findings from the teachers and students indicate that the content in the available textbooks had little relevance to the requirements of the syllabus and most of the recommended textbooks are not available in the schools. Heyneman, Forrel and Sepulveda-Suardo (1985) say, on the issue of textbooks availability and their extent in relation to relevance, deficiencies in the availability of such essential materials such as textbooks have very adverse effects on academic achievement in Geography. This was likely to affect the performance of the students in the learning of Geography. Provision has to be made of the recommended textbooks with relevant content that caters for the requirements of the syllabus.

Results in Table 1 and Table 2 seem to indicate that there is a close correlation between topics found difficult to teach by the teachers and the topics found difficult to learn by the students. There are no recommended textbooks for these same topics. This affects the teaching and learning of Geography. Ottevanger (2001) and Cochran-Smith & Lytle (2001) noted the importance of support materials to support teachers in implementing new teaching strategies.

The findings from the education officers indicate that neither try-out stage nor in-service teacher- training were done before syllabus implementation. The education officers believe that teachers are capable of organizing themselves to undergo some staff development, since among them; there are experts and experienced teachers. Gross (1990), Griffith and Howson (1996) and Munowenyu (1997) suggested the idea of in-service training before implementation of any programme. The revelation by the education officers of no follow- ups to the syllabus implementation and lack of finance could mean that whatever is taking place, as far as the implementation of the new localised 'A' Level Geography syllabus is concerned, is not known by the responsible authorities.

On the approach used in the development of the new localised 'A' Level Geography syllabus, one would conclude that it was more of participatory rather than inclusion. Lockhard (2000) and Wright (1992) say that in developing new syllabi, all stakeholders must be actively involved. This means that the teachers' confidence will be built since they will be implementing what they would have developed. This will result in effective teaching and learning of Geography.

The document analysis results indicate that teachers are not using the new localized 'A' level Geography syllabus. Therefore, teachers need to undergo in-service teacher training through workshops and seminars on how to implement the new 'A' Level Geography syllabus. In scheming and deriving objectives the administrators should encourage teachers to use the current Geography syllabus following the goals and objectives of the syllabus. If there is no proper supervision, Shumba (1998) and Jaji and Nyagura (1989) explain that it will result in what they referred to as divergence of the intended curriculum from the attained curriculum.

The challenges faced by the teachers are quite genuine that if addressed, there would be an improvement in the quality of 'A' Level Geography results. There is need, therefore, to eliminate these challenges if all parties who play an important role in improving the teaching and learning of Geography are made aware of the challenges the teachers and students are facing.

Implications and Recommendations

The study highlights some challenges 'A' Level Geography teachers and students are facing in implementing the new localized 'A' Level Geography syllabus. Since neither induction nor in-service of teachers was done when the new localized 'A' Level Geography syllabus was introduced, teachers are not confident in implementing the localized syllabus. In view of the challenges faced in implementing the new localized syllabus teachers, as classroom practitioners, should chart the way forward on how best to implement the localized 'A' Level Geography syllabus as enunciated by the national curriculum policy. Teachers are encouraged to use the objectives from the new localized 'A' Level Geography syllabus to set their exercises and tests. Syllabus developers are encouraged to include teachers when developing new syllabi. There is need for the try-out stage and in-service training for teachers before syllabus implementation. There is need for practical examinations in the form of projects to be done internally. There is also need for subject education officers at district levels in order for them to supervise the teaching and learning of Geography and that the examiners' reports be published timeously every year. Teachers are encouraged to cover the whole syllabus, if the candidates are to have a wide choice of questions to answer in the examinations. Local scholars should be encouraged and supported to write textbooks, research papers with current information and case studies, which includes local, regional and global examples. The internet will assist to provide the most recent materials and journals can be purchased and teachers will have relevant information. It is the contentions of this study that if the challenges teachers are facing are addressed, this will result in a smooth implementation of the syllabus and yielding of quality results.

Conclusion

The findings from this study suggest that the majority of the 'A' Level teachers are encountering challenges in implementing the new localized 'A' Level Geography syllabus. There was neither a try-out stage nor in-service training done before implementing the new localized syllabus. Some respondents reveal that they are not confident in implementing the localized 'A' Level Geography syllabus. There is also evidence from the findings that there are topics, which are difficult to teach and to learn, for example, Climatology, Hazardous Environments, Fieldwork and Sketch map. Teachers do not adequately cover some topics. Some topics are given wider coverage than others and hence there is inadequate coverage of all the topics in the syllabus by the teachers. The content available in textbooks is, to a greater extent, not relevant and case studies are out-dated.

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BOOK REVIEWS

**MASANGO MAVI (1998) BY EMMANUEL MUDHLIWA CHIWOME,
MAMBO PRESS: GWERU, PP103, ISBN 086922719X**

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Emmanuel Chiwome's *Masango Mavi* (1998a) attempts to summarise the leading issues, which, underlay critical debates and discussions in the post-independence Zimbabwe. People were made to believe that Zimbabwe's "political independence would usher in the millennium, solve all social problems, and create a fuller life for everyone. So much was promised and so little was to be realized - or indeed was realizable, given the deficient vision and the immensity of the difficulties that disillusionment was bound to set in" (Obiechina, 1990 : 121). The continual exploitation of blacks by whites, the injured consciousness of the few black's minds because of colonialism, the unavailability of fertile soils to till and many more are Chiwome's thematic concerns. He explores the socio-economic plight of the masses in whose name the liberation struggle was fought. Chiwome gives readers a very sharp sense of history and his novel portrays the epoch before, during and actively concentrates and delineates post-independence problems facing the generality of the Zimbabwean people. He depicts the collapse of people's hopes and how disillusionment has set in.

The novel has interesting contemporary African politics in general and the Zimbabwean ones in particular. Thematically, Chiwome's satire has managed to capture the readers' minds to the point of shedding tears to the disappointment into which Zimbabwean political independence has turned. There is "predominance of themes of history and the land" as has been observed by Jo Dandy (2002:91). Without the land, the economic base of Zimbabweans is plundered and they are being consigned to being squatters in their own land. Long back, Chiwome (1998a:4) puts it that:

Hapana aivati musagara apa kana kuti garai apa. Apa rimai, apa musarima, apa temai, apa musatema, apa musadai uku musaenda uku musazodiiwee.... tikatama tichibva muno kuenda kune imwe nzvimbo tinobva tatoita masikwata kana vapoteri vanotarisirwa pasi novobwo.

None controlled their settlements. None told them where to plough and where not to, where to clear the land and where not to, what to do and where to go...when people

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move from this place and resettle at another place they are considered squatters or refugees who are looked down upon by permanent residents.

The land holds so important a place in the system of values in Zimbabwean culture but what can the toiling peasants get from these poor sandy soils that are in rainfall unreliable areas? Chiwome (Ibid:5) says:

Vanofirei vanhu vacho murukangarahwe?... Muvhu rakaita seredu iri munzvimbo isinganayi mvura unobudirira sei? ... Zvinobatsirei kuita master farmer munzvimbo yakadai... unogona kuita master farmer asi iwe usiri hurudza ... umaster farmer kuti vawane zvitupa zvokuturika kumadziro.

Why do people toil in vain in these rocky places? The soil is infertile and there is no reliable rainfall. What does it benefit one to be a master farmer in these conditions? Is the Farming course done so that people get Master Farmers' certificates to beautify their walls?.

This work of art was not just written to saturate the market but Chiwome's endeavours are to comprehend reality and solve human predicaments. His sharp vision of the post-independence Zimbabwe seeks objective truth and knowledge through a number of narrative techniques. The stream-of-consciousness technique though not a new narrative technique has been properly handled. This renders Chiwome's work of art a unique one in that he delves deep into the character's psyche and gives a post-colonial insight into the lives of the Shona people after their traditions have been entangled by Western cultures. He does not give a romantic reference to the pre-colonial past. Through this psychological realism, he demonstrates the capacity to capture reality within a historical perspective, which shapes the satirical elements in the story. He, through his characters, strives for authenticity typical of the 18th century epistolary novels. The first person narrative is a wonderful source of his humour (*ndyaringo*) where the whole story becomes cinematic thereby creating intimacy with the reader. The main theme of the fragmentation of Shona society is caused by colonialism. He even uses this technique to capture the neurosis caused by the social fragmentation and by the war of national liberation.

He also employs the *in-medias-res* to show that reality is not understood in a linear sense. A creative writer like Chiwome, through this *in-medias-res* technique vividly and skilfully portrays the social disorders, the trials and tribulations of the ordinary masses in the post-independence Zimbabwe. Among the numerous techniques he uses are the meaningful names in portraying his characters. This elevates the style adopted by the novelist as Welleck and Warren (1973:219) say, "The simplest form of characterisation is naming. Each appellation is a kind of vivifying, animizing and individuating."

After the publication of *Zvairwadza Vasara* (1984) *Chakwasha* (1990) and *Vavariro* (1991) by Musengezi, Chimhundu and Choto respectively, critics felt that an authentic portrayal of the Zimbabwean liberation struggle was given but not much has been done on the depiction of post-colonial problems facing poor Zimbabwean peasants. Chiwome's *Masango Mavi* (1998a) came at the right opportune moment and it quenches the Zimbabwean people's quest

for objectivity. Zimbabwean readers have yearned for a known bliss in reading this novel. For Chiwome, the war of national liberation has brought a number of changes, changes that have provided a host of ever growing grievances among the people and chief among them is the land hunger. Gunner (cited in Dandy 2002:95) puts it that “Zimbabwean Chimurenga was a guerrilla war and it was in important ways a people’s war, with land and a sense of dispossession at its centre”. Chiwome (1998a:41) says:

Vose vakanga vapotswa nefumo rehondo vakanga vazara netariro yokupinda nuKenani, nyika yechipikirwa inoerera uchi nomukaka.

All those who had survived the atrocities of the *Chimurenga War* were full of hopes to enter Canaan, the country of promise that flowed milk and honey.

The ordinary people’s great expectations and high aspirations of independence were in their sincere hope that the freedom from colonial domination would usher in a new era with improved living conditions but ironically the people are down-trodden. Chiwome sees change as desirable in so far as the status quo has run out of its suitability to Zimbabwean human welfare. His success borders on his relevant literary enterprises, notwithstanding his intellectual capability. He must have done his research and Chiwome accepts that “Research is therefore an aspect of artistic creativity” (Chiwome, 1998b:123). Chiwome, in *Masango Mavi* (1998a) feels himself swimming, reflecting and defining his themes on social issues quite relevant to his cultural environment in the mainstream of his people’s historical war and their contemporary experiences. As a storyteller, Chiwome is a chosen and ordained vessel whose work of art stands firmly on the acute, complex vision and responses to his people’s environment.

The novelist managed to raise fundamental questions where readers and critics of the text should attempt solutions to the problems. Chiwome’s literary enterprises have a bearing on human practice and existence. The origin and raw materials for literature is human experience, which is also the ultimate beneficiary of literature. This anthology of short stories as a new form of a genre has tapped its Shona traditional wisdom from oral literature. This was and still is esteemed and cherished by the members of the Zimbabwean society because it has practical relevance to their experiences. Frantz Fanon’s (1967:161-2) *The Wretched of the Earth* emphasises the symbiotic relationship that should exist between leaders and subjects in new nations like Zimbabwe:

The duty of those at the head of the movement is to have the masses behind them. Allegiance presupposes awareness and understanding of the mission, which has to be filled; in short, an intellectual position, however embryonic. We must not voodoo the people, nor dissolve them in emotion and confusion. Only those underdeveloped countries led by revolutionary elites who have come up from the people can today allow the entry of the masses upon the scene of history.

Chiwome’s themes and content reflect the African cultural experiences that warn of the formation of classes. African culture is presented as the basis for the people’s survival.

Culture being a human product, shapes and forms a very significant part of the Shona people's identity. Some Zimbabweans thought that the Western cultures are and have richer cultural and philosophical insights than theirs. Through contrasting images, of sisters, one in Mufakose and the other in Mount Pleasant, Chiwome portrays the dialectical nature of the rich and the poor in the post-independence era "as part of the panoramic sweep of social conflict resulting from cultural change" (Obiechina, 1990: 94). The climax of cultural tension is seen in the story "Kugona Kurera." In the story "Masango Mavi," the novelist uses the farm context to expose how Africans were exploited, humiliated, brutalised and reduced to the level of animals under colonialism. Bbobho, the white man, did not only own the land but also these dehumanised people were his. Chiwome (1998a: 4 – 43) sums this up.

...vaichengeta pfuma yaBhobho, murungu wavo aiva nepurazi rine miganhuru isingazikanwi kana nomwene waro...hapana munhu ainzi akura papurazi, varume vaibatwa setukomana, vakadzi vakuru vave navakuwasha vachibatwa setusikana...vaikura, voroora, vokwegura vachingova vakomana vemombe.

...they safely kept their white master Bbobho's livestock. He had a big farm that had endless plots, so big that the owner did not know where it ended... None was considered elderly at the farm. Men were treated without respect like young boys, elderly women with sons-in-laws were treated like little girls... They grew up, got married and were advanced in age but still treated as little boys coming from herding cattle.

If literature explains life as a process, then it must show how the present relates to the past and there-from, to the future. Chiwome's preoccupation with the past war of national liberation has given room to concern with the pressing problems of the present. Chiwome has managed to deal with contemporary post-Chimurenga War issues of such absorbing interest to the African people. He is concerned with political values by which human behaviour is determined in sharp contrast to his delineation of "post-independence politicians who live in style, exercise great influence, and have made themselves into a clearly observable elite group" (Obiechina, 1990:93). This novelist's delving deep into Zimbabwean politics inevitably makes him tread in the sphere of ideologies, which determine Africa's political morality. Irving Howe cited in Emmanuel N. Obiechina (ibid : 93-4) made an apt observation which best describes *Masango Mavi* that :

The political novel ...is peculiarly a work of internal tensions. To be a novel at all, it must contain the usual representation of human behaviour and feeling; yet it must also absorb into its stream of movement the hard and perhaps insoluble pellets of modern ideology

Chiwome's uniqueness is that he does not move into the romantic idealisation of the past, which is archetypal of most African writings. For the author, the present moral decadence, spiritual chaos and people who are devoid of culture are the product of colonialism. The novel is concerned with the betrayal of the masses by the African leadership that took over the

country's administration from the departing colonialists. Political corruption and moral decadence pervade the novel and exhibit a Zimbabwean society that has lost faith in the meaning of independence. The long promised socio-political and economic ideals have been long forgotten and pushed into the background. It is the aim of the novel to make sure that the structures of Zimbabwe's political power are irrevocably altered to the benefit of the generality of the Zimbabwean people.

Colonialism and its institutions like religion and education are seen as a potential trap. These undermined the African's past, his tradition and imprisoned his spirit. Chiwome satirises those church members who take church doctrines to extremes. Chamunogwa Mudungwe married Gwelezenziya Chiriseri, a blood sister of the Pastor's wife. Chamunogwa sexually deprives his newly married Gwele as he waited for a white wedding and the priest impregnated her. This pastor is like Chaucer's Pardoner who preached what he did not practise. The kraal head (sabhuku) sums up succinctly Chamunogwa's unreasonable and over-evaluated Shona traditional culture. Old age represents wisdom. Chiwome's (1998a:90) correction from his character that is the figurehead of tradition, the kraal-head, is apt:

ChiRungu hachina kushata vakomana asi muchenjere kutituka namamwe maitire enyu anopesana netsika namagariro edu.

Tapping Western values is not bad but you boys should be aware of mocking us with some of your western behaviours that contradict with our Shona traditional culture.

The Shona tradition goes on to expound and inform the old man's mind so much that the kraal head (sabhuku) warns the youth from being carried away in a web of confusion with the adoption of European culture. Colonialism has impacted negatively on the African culture in general and the Zimbabwean one in particular, with far-reaching consequences and implications. It has dislocated the Shona culture.

Chiwome has practically focused on contemporary issues that are relevant material in the times of social, economic and political need. He wrote issues that require immediate attention in post-independence Zimbabwe. If literature does not expose issues felt to be vital to the political system, then literature is robbed of its major asset, function and relevance, which come through criticism. Literature's critical aspect surfaces in its endeavour to compare the existing conditions with what ought to be. Tongai was over-expectant to get a job but was disillusioned because his expectations were not fully realised. As a security guard, he tried to secure all he had hoped to get but he was so over ambitious and chased vanity. Chiwome (Ibid:54) says:

Gore rokutenga gejo rakanga radarika gejo pasina. Gore rokutenga mombe...rechikochikari, remba yamarata, namamwe akawandiwa akapfuura

pasina chokubata. Chaimutyisa igore rokuchengeta pfuma yeroora ...bhuku rake rokubhengi rakanga richiri kungodaro kuchengeta tumari tunovirirwa twanyangarika kunge twatorwa nechikwambo.

The year that he wanted to buy a plough passed without fulfilling his promise. The year he intended to buy a cow, a scotch-cart, a zinc thatched house and other years came and went without having bought anything. The fearful year was when he wanted to bank money for lobola ...his bankbook continued to have a little amount that was withdrawn before end of the day as if there was a tokolosh that continuously withdrew it.

The turmoil and tenacity in Tongai's mind matches the crazy events around him. It becomes clear that he was going to be forced to accept to remain unemployed and stay in the rural areas than to continue with work without managing anything. Chiwome depicts Tongai as a character prone to myopia. Tongai permitted fantasies for therapy but then he wakes up to find that the situation has not changed. At money-links where he guarded, Chiwome (Ibid:48) says:

Aizonorara achingorota mazakwatira emari, zvuru nezvuru zvemadhora.
Aizongoshungurudziwa paainge asepuka muhope iyi kuti mari yakanga iri kure zvakadii nokuMatapi, pedo naMukuvisi.

He would sleep dreaming lots and lots of thousands dollars. What pained and worried him most was that as he woke up from the deep slumber was the realisation that this money he dreamt of was too far away from Matapi near Mukuvisi where he stayed.

However, it is not the dreamer who has the power to effect any changes but must be affected by others. He still has to cope with the changing reality, which is the real situation he has to live in with a note of desperation. Tongai has psychological traumas because the character is much given to self-questioning and deeper exploration of what the whole past experience in Harare means to him. This is comparable to the madman in "*First Street – Harare*" who harvested thorns from the war of national liberation. Chiwome has a sharp sense of history, fully committed and has carefully handled serious themes that render the novel as a serious process of completely changing Zimbabwe's social history. Wole Soyinka's description of the task of the writer in a modern African setting is practically relevant to Emmanuel Chiwome. This formed the core of Soyinka's paper at the UNESCO Conference on "*Colonialism and the Artist's Milieu*" in Dar-es-Salaam when he says:

... the writer is the visionary of his people, he recognises past and present not for the purpose of enshrinement but for the local creative glimpses and statement of the ideal future. He anticipates; he warns. It is not always enough for the writer to be involved in the direct political struggle of today, he often cannot help but envisage and seek to protect the future which is the declared aim of the contemporary struggle. (Obiechina, 1990:122)

The writer has seen post-independence betrayal by the leaders who pledged during the Chimurenga War, to create a just, egalitarian Zimbabwe. His attack is on members who expropriate from the masses the fruits of Zimbabwe's independence. Finally, *Masango Mavi* (1998a) provides evidence of the failure of the elite to justify themselves to the masses and validate their claim to leadership. The novel remains what it was meant to be, an indictment of the society as a whole and Zimbabwe's post-independence satire. The novelist has tried to avoid degenerating into pure flagrant propaganda hence it remains an instrument of hope and change which bites deep into the flesh and marrow of Zimbabwe's post-independence system hence Chiwome's satire grows teeth.

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This is an official call for papers to be considered for publication in **The Dyke**: A journal of the Midlands State University. The journal borrows its name from **The Great Dyke** which is a mineral rich feature that cuts across Zimbabwe. The journal resembles **The Great Dyke** in that it is rich in knowledge that cuts across academic disciplines. **The Dyke** is a refereed biannual journal published in June and December. The journal publishes original articles from the fields of Social Sciences, Commerce, Humanities and Education.

Submission information

Send three hard copies and one soft copy of manuscript to:

The Editor-In-Chief
The Dyke Journal
Midlands State University
Private Bag 9055
Gweru
Zimbabwe
Email: chiromoa@msu.ac.zw

A cover letter confirming that the manuscript has not been published or is not under consideration for publication elsewhere should be submitted. The cover letter should also indicate the address and telephone number of the author. Please note that manuscripts will be blind reviewed by at least two authorities in the research area.

Format and organization

Manuscripts should not be longer than 20 typed pages inclusive of references and appendices. Double space all text including references. Use **Times New Roman Font Size 12** and avoid unnecessary graphics. Manuscripts will be blind reviewed hence the title page with author's name and his/her organizational affiliation must be detachable. In the article there must be no material that can enable the reviewer to know or infer the name of the author.

Style and references

Use the American Psychological Association [APA] Style (5th Edition)

TABLE OF CONTENTS

The Relationship between Stock Market Returns and Parallel Market Exchange Rates in Zimbabwe: An Econometric Investigation (2000 to 2007)

Njabulo Nkomazana

Teaching the Student vs Teaching the Subject and the Dilemma of the Teacher in Zimbabwe : The Case for Citizenship Education

Ngoni Makuvaza

The Adoption of E-learning at Midlands State University:
Opportunities and Challenges

Lockias Chitanana

Pupils' Perceptions and their Teachers' awareness of continuity in Mathematics instruction at the Primary-Secondary transition phase in Gweru Urban Schools in Zimbabwe.

Million Chauraya

Language harmonisation in Southern Africa: Toward a Standard Unified Shona Orthography (SUSO) for Botswana, Mozambique and Zimbabwe

Wiseman Magwa

Challenges faced in the Implementation of the localised Advanced Level Geography Syllabus: A case of Harare High Schools.

Simon Tirivanhu Marimo

Book Review

Symptoms of post-chimurenga war traumas: Ex-combatants in post independence Zimbabwean literature

Advice Viriri

Call for Papers and notes for contributors