CHAPTER 3 QUALITY EDUCATION IN SMALL RURAL SCHOOLS

The preceding chapter conceptualised quality education and presented the OST as the theoretical framework informing the book. This chapter reviews the literature on the quality of education in small rural schools. Most satellite primary schools in Zimbabwe fall under the category of small rural schools (PoZ, 2012; MoPSE, 2017). The literature provides a historical and contextual background to the development of satellite schools. It also sheds light on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management practices in small rural schools. The literature covers the following themes: the notion of small rural schools; the quality of education in farm schools in colonial Zimbabwe; and the quality of education in satellite schools; pedagogical and management practices in small rural schools; and quality education initiatives in Zimbabwe.

Small schools are a common phenomenon in both developed and developing countries. Although there is consensus among researchers that most small schools are located in rural areas, there are contested views about their size (Edwards, 2016; Preston, Jakubiec & Kooymans, 2013). Edwards (2016) aptly expresses this problem when he says, what is considered a small school in one country may be regarded as an average or even a large school in another country. Dinham, Anderson, Caldwell and Weldon (2011) report that in Australia a small primary school is one with an enrolment of 100 learners or less. However, in some jurisdictions in Canada, a small primary school refers to one with an enrolment of 200 full-time learners or less (Edwards, 2016). This means that different countries have dissimilar benchmarks of small primary school size. The different benchmarks suggest that the notion of a small rural school is relative.

According to Ngcobo (2015), in South Africa, small rural schools are characterised by enrolments that are below the national average, few

teachers, and teaching heads. This definition captures the nature of the satellite school type that is the focus of this study. The PoZ (2012) states that most satellite primary schools are mainly located in sparsely populated FTLRRAs in rural Zimbabwe. A satellite school is typically characterised by low enrolments, few teachers, and a Teacher in Charge (TIC), and is an appendage of a nearby registered school (PoZ, 2012; Munjanganja & Machawira, 2014). As noted earlier, the term TIC refers to the teaching head of a satellite primary school in Zimbabwe.

The satellite school type emerged in former White-owned LSCFAs following the FTLRP in 2000. Before the FTLRP, the only form of educational provision in LSCFAs was sub-standard and unregistered small farm schools built by white farmers to provide education to the children of their African farmworkers (Khadhani & Riddell, 1981; Sithole, 1996). The literature on farm schools provides the historical and contextual background to the prospects and complexities of providing quality education in satellite primary schools.

During the colonial era in Zimbabwe, many White farmers opted not to register their schools to have more control over resource allocation, curriculum standards, and the hiring of teachers (PCIET, 1999; Auret, 2000). The unregistered farm schools provided sub-standard education to the children of African farm labourers (The Human Rights Watch, 2003). These unregistered farm schools did not receive support from the government in the form of per capita grants in aid, qualified teachers, teachers' salaries, teaching resources, and supervision of curriculum implementation (Loewenson, 1991; PCIET, 1999) and as a result provided sub-standard education. The Tate Commission assessed the quality of education in farm schools in 1925 and described the schools as the least efficient part of the colonial education structure (Atkinson, 1972). Three decades later, the Judges Commission of 1962 characterised registered farm schools as sub-standard and unregistered ones as being of no educational value (Government of Rhodesia [GoR],

1962). The findings of the two Commissions testify that unregistered farm schools provided the lowest quality of education in colonial Zimbabwe.

The unavailability of standard infrastructure at most unregistered farm schools negatively affected the provision of quality education. Auret *et al.* (2000) report that before 1980, farm school buildings were often renovated tobacco barns or sheds. Auret (2000) agrees and elaborates that in extreme cases, school buildings served a dual purpose as a school and beer hall on weekdays and weekends, respectively. A school that functions as a beer hall during weekends cannot be expected to provide quality education. Farm schools were also characterised by a lack of equipment, facilities, books, stationery, laboratories, libraries, and standard classrooms (Loewenson, 1991; Sithole, 1996; PCIET, 1999). The teaching and learning process was held in poorly lit and poorly ventilated make-shift classrooms (Loewenson, 1991; Sithole, 1996). The make-shift classrooms and chronic shortage of instructional materials made the unregistered farm school an unfavourable context for the provision of quality education. In tandem with the policy of separate development, the colonial government established boarding schools for White learners in LSCFAs (Atkinson, 1972; Challiss, 1982). In comparative terms, White learners received a superior quality of education in LSCFAs than Black learners.

One of the subtle strategies employed by White farmers to ensure that Africans received only a lower level of education was to provide more lower primary schools than upper primary schools in mining areas and LSCFAs. Most farm schools for African learners offered no more than five years of schooling, and the facilities were substandard (Auret et al., 2000). Summers (2002) corroborates that a large percentage of farm schools in colonial Zimbabwe only extended to grade four or five. As a result, many African learners "finished school" as young as 10 or 12, with work on the farm as the only available alternative (Auret,

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2000; Auret *et al.,* 2000). This strategy ensured a continuous supply of semi-literate farm labourers for White commercial farmers.

Several factors militated against the provision of quality education in farm schools. There was a critical shortage of trained teachers for all levels of formal African education in colonial Zimbabwe (Zvobgo, 1997; Nhundu & Makoni, 1999). For instance, in 1977 there were 1,195 untrained teachers in African schools, and most of them were teaching in farm schools located in White commercial farming areas (Khadhani & Riddell, 1981). The UNICEF (2004, cited in Murisa, 2010) observed the same trend and reported that during the colonial era in Zimbabwe, 33% of the teachers in farm schools were untrained compared to a national average of only 8%. The predominance of untrained teachers in farm schools compromised the provision of quality education.

The living and working conditions of teachers in registered farm schools and registered African rural schools were different. The government grants in aid towards teachers' salaries in registered farm schools were half that paid to teachers in registered African rural schools (Auret, 2000). Teacher turnover was very high in farm and mine schools mainly because of the poor living and working conditions (Challiss, 1982; Auret, 2000). However, the existing studies did not explore the impact of high teacher turnover on the provision of quality education in farm schools during the colonial era. Among other pedagogical processes, this book discusses the impact of high teacher turnover on the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

Another barrier to the provision of quality education in farm schools was the phenomenon of multi-grade classes. According to Loewenson (1991), multi-grade classes were a consequence of low learner enrolments coupled with inadequate classrooms and teachers. A single teacher would teach as many as three grades in the same classroom.

Summers (2002) agrees that most African learners attended rudimentary multi-grade farm schools. One limitation of these studies is that they did not establish how Multi-grade Teaching (MGT) affected the provision of quality education in farm schools. This book is different because, among other pedagogical processes, it explores the ramifications of MGT on the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

There were very few primary schools in White-owned LSCFAs before 1980, making the distance to school very long. According to Auret *et al.* (2000), some African learners in the former White-owned LSCFAs walked over seven kilometres to and from the nearest school. The learners arrived late for lessons and missed many concepts that affected their academic progress. The fatigue from walking long distances negatively affected the learners' concentration and participation in learning. Existing research studies (Chakanyuka *et al.*, 2009; PoZ, 2012) also identify the long distance to school as one of the factors affecting the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

The satellite school type emerged in Zimbabwe's former White-owned LSCFAs following the FTLRP that commenced in 2000. Several Zimbabwean scholars have defined the concept of a satellite school. According to Hlupo and Tsikira (2012), a satellite school is a budding school located in fast-track resettlement areas, operating under the auspices of a registered school. The satellite school provides education to the children of the fast-track land reform beneficiaries. According to Munjanganja and Machawira (2014), a satellite school is an unregistered school attached to a 'mother school' for administrative purposes. Tarisayi and Manik (2017) concur that a satellite school is an unregistered school that caters for the educational needs of the children of fast-track land reform beneficiaries in FTLRRAs. It is part of a nearby registered school in terms of learners, staff, and administration.

From the definitions provided, we can identify three characteristics of a satellite school. Firstly, this type of school emerged in FTLRRAs and serves the children of fast-track land reform beneficiaries. Secondly, it fails to meet the Minimum School Functionality Standards (MSFS) required for registration with the MoPSE. Thirdly, it operates as an appendage of a nearby registered school in terms of learners, staff, and other administrative functions. In the context of this study, the term satellite school refers to an unregistered primary school established in FTLRLAs following the FTLRP in 2000 to provide education for the children of fast-track land reform beneficiaries.

The satellite school type emerged in the former White-owned LSCFAs of Zimbabwe in 2000. According to the PoZ (2012), Zimbabwe's FTLRP that commenced in 2000 was unplanned and hastily implemented, culminating in the emplacement of over 170,000 Black Zimbabwean households in former White-owned LSCFAs. In the former White-owned LSCFAs, schools and other social amenities for Africans were historically very few or non-existent. There was a dire shortage of schools for African learners in previously White-owned LSCFAs because White Commercial farmers did not regard it as their obligation to build schools for the children of their African farmworkers (PCIET, 1999; PoZ, 2012; Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014). The massive and rapid emplacement of land beneficiaries in FTLRRAs where schools were inadequate presented the GoZ with an urgent problem of how to provide education to the children of the fast-track landreform beneficiaries.

The GoZ implemented the FTLRP in 2000 when the country was going through a decade of an economic meltdown that commenced in the year 2000 and ended in 2009 (Sadomba, 2011; Zhou & Zvoushe, 2012). Consequently, the government had no financial resources to construct conventional schools in FTLRRAs. Faced with this situation, the government did not have many options at its disposal, but to 'fast-

track' the provision of schools in FTLRRAs. The government authorised the use of make-shift teaching and learning infrastructure and promised to construct conventional schools within 10 years (Chakanyuka *et al.*, 2009; PoZ, 2012). Existing infrastructure in the FTLRRAs such as farmhouses, tobacco barns, farmworkers' houses, storerooms, offices, garages, horse stables, and even pigsties was converted into teaching and learning infrastructure (PoZ, 2012). Where no infrastructure existed, the land beneficiaries erected pole, dagga, and grass-thatched structures so that their children could carry out their learning activities in some form of shelter (PoZ, 2012; Mutema, 2014; Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014). These measures culminated in the establishment of 1,016 satellite primary schools, and 839 satellite secondary schools, totalling 1,855 satellite schools in Zimbabwe (MoPSE, 2017). Although satellite schools ensure educational access for the children of the land beneficiaries, there are concerns about the quality of education this school type provides.

The GoZ allowed the land beneficiaries to establish satellite schools in FTLRRAs as a stopgap measure to enable it to construct standard schools within 10 years (PoZ, 2010). The schools do not meet the MSFS to qualify for registration with the MoESAC (MoESAC, 2013b) now the MoPSE. The MSFS stipulate that for a school to qualify for registration it should have at least two standard teachers' houses, a standard administration block, a standard classroom block, and adequate ablution facilities for teachers (MoESAC, 2013b; PoZ, 2012). The other preliminary registration requirements are sufficient toilet facilities for learners in the ratio of one squat hole: 20 girls and one squat hole: 25 boys, and a safe water source within 500 metres of the school campus (PoZ, 2012; MoESAC, 2013b). However, two decades after the commencement of the FTLRP in 2000, over 1,800 satellite schools are yet to qualify for registration with MoPSE (MoPSE, 2017). The schools are failing to meet the preliminary MSFS. This raises concerns about the quality of education the schools are providing. Unregistered

schools are not entitled to per capita grants in aid from the government (Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014), henceforth, satellite schools are disadvantaged schools. In the absence of financial support from the government, satellite schools experience infrastructural and instructional resource challenges that hamper the provision of quality education.

According to the PoZ (2012), for purposes of providing management support and paying salaries to teachers, the MoPSE attaches each satellite school to the nearest registered school that acts as the 'mother school' or 'parent school'. With this arrangement, the staff and learners at the satellite school become part of the 'mother school'. This effectively makes the satellite school an extension or appendage of the 'mother school'. The MoPSE also appoints a TIC for each satellite school to ensure effective school leadership and management (Mangwanya *et al.*, 2012; PoZ, 2012). The TIC doubles as the head of the satellite school and the class teacher of one of the classes at the school. Scholars are generally silent about the impact of this type of school leadership and management structure on the provision of quality education in satellite schools. It is for this reason that this book sought to establish the nature and quality of management processes in satellite primary schools during the provision of quality education.

There are several indicators of quality education. According to Mavhunga and Mazodze (2014), the primary output indicator of quality education in Zimbabwe's education system is high pass rates in public examinations. In line with this view, a school provides quality education if it registers high pass rates in national school examinations such as Grade 7, Ordinary Level, and Advanced Level. This is in tandem with the Outputs Model of quality education reviewed earlier. Available literature indicates that examination pass rates are very low in satellite schools. Chakanyuka *et al.* (2009) carried out a national survey of the quality of primary and secondary education in

Zimbabwe. The survey revealed that the Grade 7 pass rate for remote primary schools and satellite primary schools in Matabeleland North Province of Zimbabwe was 10.5% in 2006 and 24% in 2007. Jenjekwa (2013) reports that the Ordinary Level pass rate for satellite secondary schools in Masvingo Province ranged from 0% to 10% from 2004 to 2010. The PoZ (2012) conducted a national survey of the quality of education in satellite schools and found out that in most provinces of Zimbabwe, the Grade 7 pass rate for satellite primary schools ranged from 0% to 10%. The low pass rates suggest there are unique factors militating against the provision of quality education in satellite schools.

Hlupo and Tsikira (2012) compared the Grade 7 pass rates of six satellite schools and their respective 'mother schools' in the Mwenezi District of Zimbabwe. **Table 3.1** presents the pass rates as percentages.

Table 3.1: Grade 7 Examination pass rates for 'mother schools' and their satellites (Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012:607)

School	'Mother School'	Satellite School
A	44	16
B	36	18
C	50	45
D	46	24
E	40	17
F	34	24

Table 3.1 shows that the Grade 7 Examination pass rates for both 'mother schools' and their satellites are low. However, the pass rate of each 'mother school' is higher than that of its satellite. While the pass rates of 'mother schools' range from 34% to 50%, those of satellite

schools range from 16% to 45%. Although the pass rates are low in both settings, they are worse off in satellite schools. By implication, there are unique factors contributing to the very low Grade 7 Examination pass rates in satellite primary schools.

Hlupo and Tsikira (2012) attribute the low Grade 7 Examination pass rates in satellite schools to poor infrastructure, lack of resources, and the low morale of teachers. They also associate the low pass rates with the long distances that learners walk to and from school and the generally negative attitudes of parents towards education. Mangwanya *et al.* (2012) argue that the Grade 7 Examination pass rates are very low, mainly due to inadequate instructional materials, particularly textbooks. The PoZ (2012) reports that the pass rates are low because of negative parental attitudes towards education, make-shift teaching and learning infrastructure, long distance to school, learner absenteeism, and inadequate instructional resources. Munjanganja and Machawira (2014) concur and add that, most satellite schools do not qualify as Grade 7 Examination centres. As a result, learners sit for national examinations at another school that is an examination centre. They argue that the long distances that the learners travel to the examination centres and the change in environment negatively affect their performance (Munjanganja & Machawira, 2014).

The factors contributing to low Grade 7 pass rates in satellite schools reviewed in the preceding paragraph mainly fall under the context and resource input dimensions of quality education. There is a knowledge gap on the nature and quality of the transformation process of the satellite school and its impact on the provision of quality education. The transformation process incorporates the pedagogical and management processes of a school organisation. To plug this knowledge gap, this book explored the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools and their impact on the provision of quality education.

Available literature indicates that several context and resource input factors militate against the provision of quality education in satellite schools. These factors include lack of funding, teacher qualifications and experience, nature of classrooms, nature of accommodation for teachers, provision of instructional materials, provision of furniture, provision of water and sanitation facilities, long distance to school, and availability of social amenities.

One factor that militates against the provision of quality education in satellite schools is the lack of funding. According to Gonese and Makura (2003), from 1980 to 1991, the GoZ financed the establishment of resettlement infrastructure and support services before the emplacement of land beneficiaries under the Land Reform and Resettlement Programme (LRRP). The government established water and sanitation facilities, access roads, schools, clinics, and accommodation for teachers and nurses before resettling land beneficiaries (Gonese & Makura, 2003). The adoption of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) by the GoZ in 1992 marked a radical shift in the implementation of the LRRP. In line with the dictates of ESAP, the government cut expenditure on social services, including education (Zvobgo, 1999). It is for this reason, according to Gonese and Mukora (2003), that the government resettled the fast-track land reform beneficiaries in FTLRRAs before the establishment of basic social services such as water and sanitation facilities, access roads, schools, and clinics. The government promised to provide the basic infrastructure and support services within 10 years.

The GoZ transferred the burden of establishing schools and other social services in FTLRRAs to land beneficiaries as a cost-cutting measure (Zvobgo, 1999). This saw the emergence of School Development Committees (SDCs) on Zimbabwe's educational landscape. The government expects the land beneficiaries under the leadership of their SDCs to pull resources together and construct

standard schools for their children. However, the PoZ (2012) reports that the FTLRP beneficiaries cannot afford to establish standard school infrastructure for their children in FTLRRAs because they are living in abject poverty. Tarisayi (2015), who argues that the state expects resettled communities to fund the construction of standard schools, but such communities are scratching for a living, expresses similar sentiments. The land beneficiaries do not have the financial and material resources to establish standard schools for their children.

The economic meltdown that Zimbabwe went through from 2000 to 2009 further constrained the government's capacity to fund the construction of satellite schools. The government budgeted for the construction of satellite schools from 2007 to 2009, but hyperinflation eroded the funds to the extent that they were insufficient to construct even a single classroom block (PoZ, 2012). As for the 2010 budget, the salary bill for parastatals under the MoPSE took up 91% of the government's allocation to education and a paltry 3% remained to fund infrastructural development (PoZ, 2012). The amount allocated to infrastructural development was too little to ensure the development of over 1,800 satellite schools in the country into standard schools. For this reason, most satellite schools do not have proper infrastructure and adequate instructional resources two decades after their establishment in 2000.

Most teachers in both primary and secondary satellite schools are holders of the Diploma in Education (Chakanyuka *et al.*, 2009; PoZ, 2012). Hence, they are suitably qualified to provide quality education. While primary school teachers are suitably qualified, most of them are newly qualified (PoZ, 2012). Parents are concerned that the majority of the teachers in satellite primary schools are newly qualified with little teaching experience (Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012; PoZ, 2012). The limited teaching experience can have a negative bearing on the teachers' effectiveness during the provision of quality education.

Make-shift classroom infrastructure is also militating against the provision of quality education in satellite schools. The PoZ (2012) conducted a national survey on the quality of education in satellite schools and found out that most of the schools use dilapidated tobacco barns, vandalised farmhouses, and huts made of poles, dagga, and grass thatch as teaching and learning infrastructure. Existing literature indicates that the make-shift classrooms create serious complexities to the provision of quality education in the schools. Mavhunga and Mazodze (2014) conducted a case study of a satellite school in the Midlands Province of Zimbabwe and found that the make-shift classrooms at the school were too small, dimly lit, and poorly ventilated. Classroom infrastructure of this nature can expose teachers and learners to asthma, tuberculosis, and the dreaded COVID-19. Such a state of teaching and learning infrastructure is not ideal for the provision of quality education.

Hlupo and Tsikira (2012) carried out a study of satellite schools in the Mwenezi District of Zimbabwe and found that some satellite schools use the farmhouses of former white farm owners as teaching and learning venues. The rooms of the farmhouses that the schools use as classrooms are very small and pose challenges like overcrowding and poor ventilation that make teachers and learners susceptible to airborne diseases including COVID-19. Jenjekwa (2013) corroborates the problem of poor ventilation in his study of satellite schools that utilise disused tobacco barns as classrooms in Masvingo Province of Zimbabwe. The PoZ (2012) reports that, at some satellite schools where classrooms are non-existent, teachers conduct lessons in the shade of trees, exposing the learners to cold, windy, rainy, and hot weather conditions that make it difficult for them to concentrate on learning. In the shade of the trees, noise from the local environment also distracts the learners' concentration on learning (PoZ, 2012). Overall, the make-shift classrooms are not conducive to the provision of quality education.

In the absence of government funding, fast-track land reform beneficiaries are not able to provide standard accommodation for teachers. A national survey of satellite schools conducted by PoZ (2012) reveals that teachers reside in huts made of poles, dagga, and grass thatch; vandalised farmhouses; former farmworkers' houses; disused tobacco barns; and farm storerooms. In his study in Masvingo Province, Jenjekwa (2013) reports that teachers are accommodated in vandalised and dilapidated farmhouses with broken doors and windowpanes. Chakanyuka *et al.* (2009) carried out a rapid assessment of the quality of primary and secondary education in Zimbabwe and reported cases of teachers residing in huts without roofs and doors in remote rural schools and satellite schools. They also report instances of two or more teachers sharing very small single rooms. Such living arrangements are neither decent nor favourable for the provision of quality education. Hlupo and Tsikira (2012) rightly observe that there is high teacher turnover in satellite schools due to poor living conditions. The deplorable state of accommodation is not ideal for the retention of teachers and the provision of quality education.

Accommodation for teachers is non-existent at some satellite schools, resulting in parents offering the teachers accommodation in the local community (PoZ, 2012; Mutema, 2014). Consequently, the teachers walk long distances to and from the local community to the school daily (PoZ, 2012; Mutema, 2014). By the time the teachers reach the school premises, they will be exhausted, which negatively affects the quality of their instruction and the quality of education they provide. There is a need for the government to provide adequate standard accommodation for teachers in satellite schools to enhance the provision of quality education.

Available literature indicates that instructional materials are in short supply or non-existent at some satellite schools. Chakanyuka *et al.* (2009) report that, in most provinces of Zimbabwe, the textbook-learner ratio is 1:15 for most satellite schools. Such a very high

textbook-learner ratio makes it impossible for learners to have individual access to a textbook. Chakanyuka *et al.* (2009) also reported instances of classes in schools that lack even a single textbook for any subject. They observed that, at some schools, most learners do not have exercise books on writing assignments. At one satellite school, teachers take their learners outside so that they can practice writing on the ground because they do not have exercise books (Chakanyuka *et al.*, 2009). It is very difficult for teachers to identify and address the learning needs of learners when they do not have exercise books for written assignments and continuous assessment.

Mangwanya *et al.* (2012) conducted a study of satellite schools in the Midlands Province of Zimbabwe and reported cases of acute shortages of textbooks in all subject areas for both learners and teachers. At some schools, there is not even a single textbook for some subject areas. In the same province, Mutema (2014) notes that at some satellite schools, there is a critical shortage of textbooks to the extent that it is the teacher only who is privileged to have a textbook. If there is only one textbook for both teachers and learners, the teachers usually deprive the learners of individual exposure to the textbook for fear that it can be torn or stolen (Mutema, 2014). The severe shortage of textbooks denies learners opportunities for independent reading and content enrichment. The teacher becomes the only source of knowledge for the learners, a set-up that is not favourable to the provision of quality education.

In a study carried out in Masvingo Province, Tarisayi (2015) reports that teaching materials such as stationery, syllabi, and textbooks are deficient among satellite secondary schools. The absence of syllabi documents and textbooks limits the teacher's content depth of a learning area or subject. The satellite schools that Jenjekwa (2013) studied in the same province have no libraries or computer laboratories because textbooks and computers are respectively non-existent. The inadequacy and unavailability of instructional materials

create complexities in the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

Another impediment to the provision of quality education in satellite schools is the unavailability of furniture. Hlupo and Tsikira (2012) observe that at some satellite schools, the teaching and learning process is conducted while learners are sitting on dusty floors owing to a lack of desks and chairs. The learners do written assignments while sitting on dirty floors. The PoZ (2012) also reports cases of satellite schools where there is no furniture. The teachers hold lessons while learners are sitting on bricks, timber blocks or the floor. Similarly, Chakanyuka *et al.* (2009) report that in most provinces of Zimbabwe, the problem of furniture at satellite schools is so acute that learners sit on planks set on stones or the floor. The authors conclude that the absence of furniture hampers the provision of quality education in satellite schools. Mutema (2014) laments the use of logs, bricks,and the floor as sitting places for learners at the satellite schools he studied in Masvingo Province. At some satellite schools, furniture is only adequate for Grades 4 to 7 learners, and all the other learners, that is, from ECD A to Grade 3 sit on the floor (Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014). The pain from sitting on the floor distracts learners' attention from learning and becomes a barrier to the provision of quality education.

The problem of water and sanitation also militates against the provision of quality education in satellite schools. Chakanyuka *et al.* (2009) report cases of satellite schools where there are no toilets, and both teachers and learners use the bush. In a separate study, Mavhunga and Mazodze (2014) report a case of a satellite school where both the learners and teachers use only two almost full latrines. This setup poses a health threat to teachers and learners. It also creates an unfavourable school environment for the provision of quality education.

Findings from the literature show that safe sources of drinking water are non-existent at some satellite schools. The PoZ (2012) reports cases of satellite schools where there are no reliable sources of drinking water, and learners bring safe drinking water from home. The teachers at the schools walk 15km to 25km to the nearest safe water source. There are also cases of satellite schools where teachers and learners drink unprotected water from dams and streams (Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012; Jenjekwa, 2013). Drinking unsafe water makes the teachers and learners vulnerable to a host of water-borne diseases such as typhoid, cholera, and bilharzia. A school that is deficient in basic water and sanitation facilities cannot be expected to provide quality education.

Most satellite schools are not centrally located, a situation that forces some learners to walk long distances of up to 20km to and from school daily (Chakanyuka, *et al.,* 2009; PoZ, 2012). When learners walk long distances to school, they get exhausted before the commencement of lessons (Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012). The fatigue they experience impacts negatively on their concentration on learning, participation in class, and academic achievement. The problem of the long distance to school has culminated in cases of prolonged learner absenteeism in satellite schools (PoZ, 2012). The long periods of absenteeism have a negative bearing on learners' academic achievement and progress. Thus, the problem of the long distance to school is one of the daunting barriers to the provision of quality education in satellite schools.

The GoZ resettled beneficiaries of the fast-track land reform into FTLRRAs before establishing social amenities (Gonese & Mukora, 2003). As a result, some satellite schools are situated in sparsely populated remote areas lacking access to roads, clinics, police stations, and shopping centres (PoZ, 2012; Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012). Teachers in remote schools often experience isolation from the social and professional support necessary for delivering quality education. The PoZ (2012) reports instances of teachers in satellite schools in the Mwenezi District of Zimbabwe who walk 80 kilometres to reach the

nearest road network leading to the shopping centre. Similarly, Jenjekwa (2013) notes cases of teachers in satellite schools in Masvingo Province who trek long distances to access the main road that leads to nearby Growth Points for essential services like healthcare and shopping. These challenging living and working conditions contribute to chronic teacher absenteeism and high turnover rates in satellite schools (PoZ, 2012; Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012). The poor living conditions and resulting high teacher turnover negatively impact the quality of education in satellite primary schools.

As noted earlier, the satellite school type falls under the category of small rural schools. The available literature on the pedagogical and management practices in small rural schools provides insights into the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools and their ramifications on the provision of quality education. The review covers the following issues: the phenomenon of teaching heads, MGT, Double-Sessioning, and teaching and managing large classes.

Studies by du Plessis (2014), Kgomo (2016), and Pendola and Fuller (2018), show that in most developing countries, small rural schools with multi-grade classes are headed by teaching heads. A teaching head entails a teacher who has a full teaching load in addition to school leadership and management responsibilities (du Plessis, 2014). According to Clarke and Stevens (2009), a teaching head is a school head who has dual roles in teaching and school administration. The term entails a full-time teacher who also performs school leadership and management duties. In Zimbabwe, satellite schools are headed by teaching heads officially known as TICs. They double as the heads of satellite schools and full-time teachers (PoZ, 2012; Mangwanya *et al.*, 2012; MoPSE, 2017). The impact of the TIC's role in the provision of quality education in satellite schools has not received attention in Zimbabwe. This knowledge gap is explored in this book.

The school leadership and management roles of teaching and Non-Teaching School Heads (NTHs) are similar in many countries (Davids, 2011; Preston *et al.*, 2013). In Zimbabwe, NTSHs and TICs or teaching heads perform the same school leadership and management roles. Vacancy Announcement No. 18 of 2019 spells out the duties and responsibilities of school heads in Zimbabwe (Public Service Commission [PSC], 2019). The central role of a school head that applies to the TIC, is to provide overall management and operation of the school (PSC, 2019). The TIC performs this premier role concurrently with a full teaching load. The dual role of the TIC has a negative bearing on the quality of pedagogical and school management processes in satellite primary schools.

The PSC (2019) classifies the duties and responsibilities of school heads in Zimbabwe into four basic categories. The first category is the administrative role that involves organising or planning activities to ensure the effective and efficient running of the school. The administrative roles of the school head include developing the strategic plan, vision, mission, and goals of the school; preparing and implementing annual school budgets; and developing school timetables and calendars in consultation with staff members. The school head attends meetings; develops and implements orientation and induction programmes for teachers and learners; enrols learners, and assigns duties to teachers. Since TICs are full-time teachers, the instructional time for their classes is lost when performing school leadership and management roles. This raises concerns about the quality of education in the classes taught by TICs.

Curriculum management is another principal role of the school head. According to PSC (2019), curriculum management involves interpreting and implementing curriculum syllabuses. The other curriculum management responsibilities are classroom teaching, conducting lesson observations, tracking learner progress, and

providing early intervention to learners with learning difficulties. Teaching heads have to balance classroom teaching with multiple school management responsibilities. A study conducted by Titus (2002 cited in Brown, 2010) in South Africa reports that teaching heads are pushed more into managerial and entrepreneurial roles than instructional role. Expressed differently, teaching heads spend more time performing school management responsibilities than teaching their classes. The limited time that teaching heads spend in their classes, has a negative bearing on curriculum coverage and the provision of quality education.

Some duties and responsibilities of the school head fall under the supervision and management role. The PSC (2019) states that the school head is obliged to supervise both staff and learners; organise and supervise national examinations; and monitor the general cleanliness of school grounds and buildings. The school head also evaluates and manages the performance of learners and teachers; serves as an ex-officio member of the School Development Committee (SDC); and maintains school records. All these roles add to the workload of the TIC and compromise the quality of pedagogical and school management processes in satellite schools.

Another role of the school head is human and material resource management. According to PSC (2019), this role involves managing and utilising available human and material resources in the school. The school head ensures the safety and welfare of staff members and learners. It is the responsibility of the school head to coordinate and manage staff development programmes; offer professional advice to staff members; guide and counsel learners and staff members; and foster good relations among staff members (PSC, 2019). These roles may also leave TICs with little or no time to teach their classes.

In addition to official roles, there are emerging responsibilities of school heads, particularly in rural settings. Some of the emerging responsibilities are attending community functions, grief counselling, and the pastoral role (Kgomo, 2016; Pendola & Fuller, 2018). These responsibilities also cut into the teaching head's institutional and instructional time, militating against the quality of pedagogical and management processes in small rural schools.

Teaching heads confront several challenges that impact negatively on their management role and in turn the provision of quality education. One of the challenges is heavy workloads. This problem is aptly expressed by Dinham *et al.* (2011) who say leading a small rural school is not a straightforward matter because the small school is not a miniature version of a large school. Multiple and conflicting roles that cannot be executed thoroughly due to a lack of adequate time for any task overwhelm the teaching heads (Preston *et al.,* 2013; Pendola & Fuller, 2018). The teaching heads experience work overload because they perform the teaching and school management roles simultaneously. Preston *et al.,* (2013) note that while heads of large schools often delegate and share management tasks, this option is not afforded to teaching heads. They lack administrative support staff such as deputy heads, heads of departments, secretaries, and bursars to enable them to delegate some responsibilities (Preston *et al.,* 2013; Pendola & Fuller, 2018). Teaching heads experience work overload by performing the dual role of teaching and school management.

The heavy workloads of teaching heads have debilitating effects on the quality of pedagogical and management processes in small rural schools. Kgomo (2016) explored the impact of teaching heads' heavy workloads on learner performance in small farm schools located in the Limpopo District of South Africa. It emerged from the study that due to multiple administrative duties, teaching heads are always absent from their classrooms. Consequently, they fail to complete the syllabuses of

their classes and the academic achievement of the learners is affected. Kgomo (2016) also found that teaching heads have limited time to effectively assess learners and offer individualised support. This challenge also leads to poor learner achievement in the classes taught by teaching heads. The study further reports that teaching heads experience stress and burnout due to heavy teaching workloads and administrative overloads. Newton and Wallin (2013) concur that teaching heads experience stress and tensions related to conflicting role demands and workload intensification. The stress, burnout, and tensions affect the teaching head's effectiveness in performing teaching and school management roles. In a study conducted in Namibia, Haingura (2014) found that teaching heads find it difficult to supervise and support teachers because they have full-time classes to teach. The inadequate supervision of teachers has negative repercussions on the quality of education in small rural schools.

Studies by Mangwanya *et al.* (2012) and PoZ (2012) agree that teaching heads who are officially referred to as TICs head satellite schools in Zimbabwe. However, the studies focused on how contextual and resource input factors affect the quality of education in satellite schools. There is a dearth of studies on the impact of the TIC role on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite schools.

Existing literature (Clarke & Stevens, 2009; Clarke & Wildy, 2010; Preston *et al.*, 2013) indicates there is a lack of professional school head preparation programmes in many developed and developing countries. According to Bush and Oduro (2006), in most African countries, there are no preparation programmes for new school heads. Ministries of education and other responsible authorities often appoint successful teachers as school heads without any professional training or induction in school leadership and management. In the opinion of Bush and Oduro (2006), there is an assumption that effective and successful

teachers will be good school heads even without professional training in school leadership and management. Murdock (2009) also noted the lack of professional preparation programmes for school heads in a study of teaching heads of small rural schools in Australia. The teaching heads who participated in the study conducted by Murdock (2009) indicated that they did not receive any professional training or induction in school leadership and management. Therefore, new school heads acquire school leadership and management skills on the job by trial and error rather than through formal professional training (Clarke & Stevens, 2009; Clarke & Wildy, 2010). The lack of professional training limits the teaching head's ability to spearhead the provision of quality education in small rural schools.

To enhance the quality of school leadership and management in both small and large schools, some countries have introduced preparatory programmes for new school heads. The preparatory programmes equip the new school heads with the knowledge and skills they require to effectively lead and manage schools (Bush & Oduro, 2006; Clarke & Wildy, 2010; Edwards, 2016). A study by Clarke, Wildy, and Styles (2011) in Turkey and Western Australia reveals that preparatory programmes for new school heads last for only two to three days. The duration of the preparatory programmes is too short to provide the new school heads with all the requisite school leadership and management knowledge and skills to lead schools effectively.

Furthermore, Clarke *et al.* (2011) observe that the programmes only focus on school leadership and management issues such as financial management, the duty of care, and occupational health and safety. They do not cover other critical skills such as leading and managing a school and handling a class (Clarke *et al.*, 2011). Most school leadership and preparatory management programmes are very general and not targeted to the unique leadership dynamics of a small school (Murdock, 2009; Clarke & Wildy, 2010). School leadership and

preparatory management programmes of this nature do not provide new teaching heads with adequate knowledge and skills to effectively lead and manage small rural schools.

Developed countries such as the United States of America, England, and Scotland have more formal, extensive, and comprehensive school head preparatory programmes (Edwards, 2016). The programmes adequately equip new school heads with the theoretical and practical aspects of leading and managing a school. In England and Scotland, all new school heads must complete the headship preparatory programme before they are appointed (Edwards, 2016). The two countries present a model of school leadership and preparatory management programmes that African countries can adopt in their quest to improve the quality of education in small rural schools.

There is a dearth of literature on school leadership and management programmes for school heads and TICs in Zimbabwe. The existing literature on satellite schools generally highlights the criteria used for appointing TICs. A national survey of satellite schools in Zimbabwe carried out by PoZ (2012) reveals that the first teacher deployed to a satellite school usually assumes the role of TIC without induction into school leadership and management. In a separate study of satellite schools in the Mwenezi District of Zimbabwe, Hlupo and Tsikira (2012) report cases of the MoPSE appointing the teacher who would have stayed the longest at the school as the TIC. There is a need for school leadership and preparatory management programmes for school heads and TICs in Zimbabwe to engender the provision of quality education in schools.

Teaching heads often fail to complete their instructional and institutional itineraries because of frequent interruptions (Starr & White, 2008; Kgomo, 2016). Therefore, teaching heads should carefully plan and manage their time so that they effectively execute teaching

and school management roles simultaneously. In a study of teaching heads in South Africa, Kgomo (2016)   reports that parents and other visitors who approach the school head with school-related matters frequently disrupt the teaching activities of school heads. The teaching head's daily schedules are interrupted to attend to learners' disciplinary problems that teachers would have failed to resolve. Hallinger and Murphy (2013) corroborate and add that, those teaching heads who begin the morning intending to conduct class observations often find themselves waylaid by learners, teachers, and parents with urgent problems that need their attention. Under such circumstances, the teaching head fails to teach their classes and supervise teachers effectively. The inevitable result is the poor quality of education in small rural schools.

The phenomenon of MGT is prevalent in small rural schools across the world (Little, 2005; Brown,2010; Kivunja, 2014), and satellite schools in Zimbabwe are no exception (PoZ, 2012). The term MGT refers to a setting where a single teacher is responsible for teaching learners of different grade levels at the same time in the same environment (Joubert, 2010). This is like the definition proffered by Pridmore (2007), who contends that MGT is a situation in which one teacher teaches learners of two or more grade levels during one time-tabled period in the same classroom. Similarly, Mulryan-Kyne (2005 cited in Brown, 2010) conceptualises MGT as a case where one teacher at the same time teaches learners who are in different grade levels in one class. To Taole (2017), MGT describes the set-up where teachers teach simultaneously in the same classroom, learners in different grades. These definitions emphasise that MGT occurs in one classroom where a single teacher is responsible for teaching learners of two or more grades simultaneously. In the context of this book, MGT refers to the teaching of learners of two or more different grades in one classroom at the same time by a single teacher responsible for the grades.

The MGT pedagogical approach is a common phenomenon in both developed and developing countries. It is often associated with small rural schools located in remote and sparsely populated communities where there may be one, two, or three teachers offering a complete cycle of primary education (Little, 2005; Berry, 2010). Research has identified conditions or factors that influence   education systems in various parts of the world to adopt MGT. Little (2005) classifies the conditions into two broad categories, namely necessity and choice. This means that MGT can be adopted either as a pedagogy of choice or necessity. The two conditions have a bearing on the quality of pedagogical transactions in multi-grade classes.

Available literature suggests that most developed countries adopt MGT as a pedagogy of choice. MGT is a pedagogy of choice when education stakeholders deliberately select it owing to the pedagogical advantages that it provides (Vithanapathirana, 2006). Little (2005 as cited in Brown, 2010) concurs that MGT is a pedagogy of choice when learners are organised in multi-grade classes rather than mono-grade classes for pedagogical reasons and as part of an education system's curriculum or pedagogic reform. Developed countries such as England (Little, 2006a) and Finland (Brown, 2010) have adopted MGT as a pedagogy choice to implement learner-centred pedagogical approaches. Little (2005) argues that if teachers in consultation with parents adopt MGT as the pedagogy of choice, then the pedagogical transactions in multi-grade classes are likely to be of good quality. The nature and quality of pedagogical transactions in multi-grade classes are one of the under-researched areas in the discourse of quality education in satellite schools.

Most developing countries adopt MGT out of necessity to ensure educational access to all children. According to Tambulukani (2004, as cited in Brown, 2010), in Africa, the adoption of MGT is mainly out of the necessity to increase access to education in less populated areas and

understaffed schools. Juvane and Joubert (2010) corroborate that in the African context, MGT is often implemented as a necessity to address teacher shortages in rural hard-to-reach communities with small school enrolments. Berry (2010) shares similar sentiments. He states that in much of Africa, the major rationale for MGT is to increase access to a full cycle of primary education to learners in remote and sparsely populated areas. Tambulukani (2004) and Kivunja (2014) concur that Zambia established multi-grade classes to extend ample primary educational opportunities to low-population areas. In Zimbabwe, the FTLRP that commenced in 2000, compelled the government to open satellite schools in FTLRRAs despite their low enrolments, resulting in the formation of multi-grade classes (PoZ, 2012). It is clear from the existing literature that most African countries adopted MGT out of necessity to attain universal access to primary education and the EFA goals. Vithanapathirana (2006) argues that in education systems where MGT is utilised as a pedagogy of need or necessity, multi-grade pedagogical practices are often of poor quality. Little (2005) concurs that if school organisations adopt MGT out of necessity, the pedagogical transactions in multi-grade classes are unlikely to be of good quality.

Brown (2010) claims that a large proportion of primary school teachers worldwide are involved in teaching several grade levels in one classroom throughout the school year. This suggests that MGT is prevalent in the educational systems of both developed and developing countries. Little (2006a) provides statistics on the prevalence of MGT in some developed countries. The author states that 25.4% of all primary education classes in the year 2000 in England were multi-grade classes, 29% in France, and 34% in Norway. Little (2006a cited in Brown, 2010) further states that 42% of primary school classes in Ireland were multi-grade classes in 2001. Therefore, MGT teaching is prevalent in developing countries.

The MGT pedagogical approach is also a common phenomenon in African countries. The Centre for Multi-grade Education reports that approximately 7,000 South African schools used MGT in 2009 (Joubert, 2010). Haingura (2014) reports that 40% of Namibian schools have multi-grade classes. The phenomenon of MGT is also prevalent in schools located in remote areas of many other Sub-Saharan African countries such as Zambia, Uganda, the Democratic Republic of Congo, South Sudan, and Sierra Leone (Kivunja, 2014). In Zimbabwe, the PoZ (2012) acknowledges the existence of MGT in satellite schools, but there are no statistics on multi-grade classes in the country. There are generally insufficient published statistics on the prevalence of multi-grade classes in most African countries (Brown, 2010). This makes MGT an invisible pedagogical approach at the administrative level in many African countries (Little, 2006a as cited in Brown, 2010). The invisibility of MGT at the administrative level in some African countries, including Zimbabwe, has negative ramifications on the quality of education in multi-grade classes.

Numerous barriers militate against the effective implementation of MGT in several developing countries including Zimbabwe. One of the barriers to the effective implementation of multi-grade pedagogy in most developing countries is the absence of policies and curricula to support and guide teachers in multi-grade settings. Little (2005) reports that regardless of the prevalence of multi-grade classes in many developing countries, national school policies and curricula are produced for the mono-grade classroom. Textbooks, teachers' guides, and other instructional materials are prepared for mono-grade classes. This means that teachers teaching multi-grade classes rely on policies and curricula designed for mono-grade classes. Joubert (2010), who notes that the policy documents of South Africa's Department of Education make no mention of multi-grade schools, expresses similar sentiments. Taole and Mncube (2012) corroborate that a national multi-grade curriculum for primary and secondary education is non-existent

in South Africa's education system. Therefore, in South Africa, multi-grade classes and their teachers are dealt with within the confines of the mono-grade curriculum framework.

The absence of multi-grade pedagogy in national school policies and curricula to guide and support the implementation of multi-grade pedagogy is not unique to South Africa. Even in Zambia, where MGT was formally introduced in several schools, the only curriculum available is the national primary school curriculum designed for mono-grade classes (Tambulukani, 2004; Kivunja, 2014). The same scenario exists in Namibia, where Haingura (2014) reports that the primary school curriculum is planned, organised, and implemented according to the mono-grade curriculum regardless of the existence of multi-grade classes. The implementation of a mono-grade curriculum in multi-grade settings can affect the quality of education in multi-grade classes. Taole and Mncube (2012) urge departments of education to produce curricula specifically designed for multi-grade classes to improve the quality of education in multi-grade classes.

Another barrier to the effective implementation of MGT in most countries is the absence of multi-grade pedagogy in teacher development programmes. Existing literature suggests that this problem is quite prevalent in African countries. Titus (2004) reports that in many parts of Africa, most teachers teaching in multi-grade settings are either untrained or only trained in mono-grade pedagogy. Little (2006b) concurs that most African countries continue to train mono-grade teachers despite the prevalence of multi-grade classes in their educational systems. Similarly, Joubert (2007) notes that MGT is not specifically addressed in the teacher development programmes of most African countries. African governments tend to focus on preparing mono-grade teachers, leaving the development of multi-grade teachers to local initiatives such as workshops and other *ad hoc* sessions (Little, 2006b; Joubert, 2007). As a result, mono-grade teachers

are not professionally prepared to teach and manage multi-grade classes.

According to Joubert (2010), most teachers teaching multi-grade classes in South Africa are only trained in mono-grade pedagogy. In a study conducted in Uganda and Zambia, Kivunja (2014) also notes that the teachers teaching multi-grade classes lack professional training in MGT. Haingura (2014) observed the same trend in Namibian primary schools. The pre-service training that the teachers undergo, does not provide them with the requisite skills and knowledge to teach and manage multi-grade classes (Lingam, 2007). During their pre-service training, the teachers are neither exposed to the theoretical nor practical aspects of multi-grade pedagogy, hence mono-grade teachers are not professionally prepared to teach and manage multi-grade classes.

There is a taken-for-granted assumption that mono-grade teachers can adapt to multi-grade pedagogy without necessarily undergoing pre-service or in-service training in multi-grade pedagogy (Taole & Mncube, 2012). By implication, ministries of education and other teacher development stakeholders expect mono-grade teachers to adapt to MGT on their own without pre-service or in-service training. Kivunja and Sims (2015) refute this assumption and argue that MGT is a specialised pedagogy with a demanding conceptual architecture that requires intensive pre-service or in-service training for teachers. Kivunja and Sims (2015) emphasise that mono-grade teachers experience challenges in coping with multi-grade classes owing to a lack of professional training in multi-grade pedagogy. For mono-grade teachers to be effective in their teaching tasks, they need professional training in multi-grade pedagogy (Brown, 2010). A shift from a single focus on preparing all teachers for mono-grade teaching to developing versatile teachers who can handle both mono-grade and multi-grade classes is required in African countries with multi-grade classes.

According to Little (2005), another barrier to the implementation of MGT stems from the fact that national primary school curricula in most countries are premised on a mono-grade structure. This compels teachers in multi-grade settings to adapt mono-grade curricula to the needs of multi-grade classes. Existing literature indicates that teachers who are not professionally trained in multi-grade pedagogy experience challenges in adapting mono-grade curricula to multi-grade settings (Nawab & Baig, 2011; Taole, 2014c; du Plessis & Subramanien, 2014). Mono-grade teachers need professional training in strategies for adapting mono-grade curricula to multi-grade settings.

One curriculum adaptation strategy that teachers can utilise to adapt mono-grade curricula within multi-grade settings, is the quasi-mono-grade approach (Brown, 2010). In this approach, the teacher prepares separate teaching plans for each grade constituting the multi-grade class and teaches the grades separately in the same classroom (Juvane, 2005; Brown, 2010). The quasi-mono-grade approach poses challenges to teachers who lack training in multi-grade pedagogy. The teachers complain that producing separate lesson plans for each grade is not only time-consuming and exhausting, but also results in ineffective teaching and learning (Ames-Romello, 2002 as cited in Brown, 2010). As a result, most mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings plan and teach the curriculum content of one grade (Mansoor, 2011; Taole & Mncube, 2012; Haingura, 2014). Consequently, the curriculum content of the other grade or grades is not covered, and the learners are disadvantaged.

Several studies corroborate that teachers teaching multi-grade classes usually prepare one lesson plan based on the curriculum content of one grade. In their study of MGT in South Africa, Taole and Mncube (2012) report that in multi-grade settings, most teachers have single lesson plans and focus on the curriculum content of one grade level. A study by Haingura (2014) in Namibia also reveals that teachers

teaching multi-grade classes only plan for one grade. In a study in Pakistan, Mansoor (2011) also verifies that teachers who lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy teach the curriculum content of one grade in the multi-grade class. It is quite clear from the reviewed studies that most mono-grade teachers teaching multi-grade classes plan and teach the curriculum content of one grade at the expense of the other grade or grades. There is a need to explore how this pedagogical approach affects learners and the provision of quality education in multi-grade settings.

The other curriculum adaptation strategy that is mainly utilised by teachers in multi-grade settings is the differentiated whole-class approach. In this approach, the teacher plans and presents lessons with the same general topic or theme to all grades simultaneously, considering the competency outcomes of each grade when assessing the learners (Brown, 2010). Taole (2014a) concurs that the differentiated whole-class approach involves the teacher identifying broad areas of similarity in curriculum content that they teach to all the grades at the same time. Available literature indicates that teachers who are not trained in multi-grade pedagogy experience challenges in implementing the differentiated whole-class approach. In a study conducted by Taole (2017) in South Africa, teachers indicated that the approach is challenging because it requires the teacher to know the curriculum content of all the grades they will be teaching. The knowledge of the content of both grades is necessary to enable the teacher to identify similar and different curriculum content across the grades. Teachers also experience the problem of how to plan and teach curriculum content that is peculiar to each grade (Taole, 2017). A study conducted by Haingura (2014) in Namibia notes similar challenges. These challenges compel teachers who are not trained in multi-grade pedagogy to plan and teach the curriculum content of one grade in a multi-grade setting (Haingura, 2014; Taole, 2017; Siririka, 2018), disadvantaging the other grade.

Small rural schools with multi-grade classes are often located in remote and difficult-to-reach areas. As a result, teachers teaching in such settings usually receive little or no support from school inspectors (Berry, 2010). Studies carried out in South Africa consistently indicate that teachers and teaching heads in multi-grade schools do not receive any support on MGT from curriculum advisors (du Plessis & Subramanien, 2014; Taole, 2014b; Gichuhi, 2015; Mulaudzi, 2016). This problem is not peculiar to South Africa. It was also noted in Namibia (Haingura, 2014; Siririka, 2018) Uganda, Senegal, and The Gambia (Mulkeen & Higgins, 2009). Without support from education officials, teachers and TICs in multi-grade contexts fend for themselves regarding multi-grade pedagogy.

Existing literature reveals that during school inspections and workshops, school inspectors often focus on assisting mono-grade teachers, leaving out multi-grade teachers (Mulkeen & Higgins, 2009; Mulaudzi, 2016). The school inspectors are reluctant to assist mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings because they also lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy (Mulaudzi, 2016). Hence, there is no one to guide teachers and teaching heads in multi-grade settings on the implementation of MGT. Due to a lack of support, the teachers get frustrated, and the quality of their instruction is affected negatively (Mulkeen & Higgins, 2009; Mulaudzi, 2016). For children to learn effectively in multi-grade contexts, teachers need to be well-trained and supported, well-resourced and hold positive attitudes towards MGT (Little, 2005). This is only possible if teachers, teaching heads, and school inspectors receive professional training in multi-grade pedagogy.

Research studies in Zimbabwe reveal that school inspectors do not frequently visit satellite schools due to the unavailability of vehicles, financial constraints, and inaccessible roads (Jenjekwa, 2013; PoZ, 2012). For instance, Jenjekwa reports that school inspectors had not supervised the satellite schools that he studied for two years. The main

limitation of these studies is that they did not explore how the lack of supervision militates against the provision of quality education in schools. To address this knowledge gap, this book focused on the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools during the provision of quality education.

One of the roles of teaching heads is to provide pedagogical and class management support to teachers in multi-grade settings. Gasa (2016) observes that multi-grade teachers need support regarding planning, classroom management and organisational skills, and teaching strategies. Expressing similar sentiments Haingura (2014) says, the support that the teachers need ranges from ordinary advice on how to implement MGT effectively to staff development workshops on multi-grade pedagogy. The multi-grade teaching support that the teaching heads offer to the teachers in multi-grade settings is often in the form of class visits accompanied by feedback (Brown, 2010; Haingura, 2014). The support improves the confidence and effectiveness of mono-grade teachers in handling multi-grade classes. However, available literature indicates that the teachers who teach multi-grade classes generally lack MGT support from teaching heads. The teaching heads are usually not able to offer support to multi-grade teachers because, in addition to administrative duties, they are full-time classroom practitioners (du Plessis, 2014; Mulaudzi, 2016). Another factor that makes it difficult for teaching heads to support teachers who teach multi-grade classes is that they also lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy (Lingam, 2007; Gasa, 2016). The lack of professional training in multi-grade pedagogy on the part of school inspectors, teaching heads, and teachers is a barrier to the effective implementation of MGT in small rural schools.

Research studies in Zimbabwe (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012; PoZ, 2012; Jenjekwa, 2013; Mangwaya et al., 2013; Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014; Tarisayi, 2015) did not explore whether TICs offer MGT support to teachers. The main reason for this knowledge gap is that the existing studies primarily focused on the

impact of contextual and resource input challenges on the provision of quality education in satellite schools. This has created a knowledge gap on the nature and quality of MGT in satellite schools.

Timetabling for multi-grade classes presents a significant challenge for teachers lacking professional training in multi-grade pedagogy. Existing literature indicates that in some countries, multi-grade classes adhere to the same teaching timetables prescribed for mono-grade classes. Studies in Namibia by Haingura (2014) and Siririka (2018) confirm that the duration of a single lesson is similar for both mono-grade and multi-grade classes. Taole and Mncube (2012) and du Plessis and Subramanien (2014) report the same situation in South Africa, noting that teachers allocate the same lesson time used in mono-grade classes to teach different grades. Consequently, teachers must divide the time allocated for one lesson in a mono-grade class among the various grades in a multi-grade class. Overall, the timetables are structured in a way that does not accommodate multi-grade pedagogy, leading teachers to teach multi-grade classes as if they were mono-grade classes.

The equal allocation of teaching and learning time in mono-grade and multi-grade classes creates complexities in the implementation of MGT. One challenge that multi-grade classes experience is insufficient teaching and learning time. Due to time constraints, some subjects are not allocated their requisite teaching time while others are not taught (Haingura, 2014). This compromises curriculum coverage in multi-grade classes (Taole & Mncube, 2014). Owing to time constraints, some teachers fail to attend to the individual needs of learners (Haingura, 2014; Gasa, 2016). In a study conducted in Uganda and Zambia, Kivunja (2014) corroborates that time constraints make it difficult for teachers to cover the curricula for the different grades in multi-grade classes. As a result, some teachers teach examinable learning areas only, denying learners access to the full curriculum. Therefore,

timetabling for multi-grade classes is another area that needs attention in the discourse on the nature and quality of MGT in satellite schools.

Available literature (Lingam, 2007; Kivunja, 2014; Taole, 2014b) shows that some grade combinations in multi-grade classes pose complexities to the provision of quality education. A study conducted by Taole (2014b) in South Africa identifies two problematic grade combinations. One combination was of Grade R learners who learn informally through play and Grade 1 learners who should be taught formally. This creates problems for teachers because the Grade R curriculum cannot be integrated with the Grade 1 curriculum (Taole, 2014b). The participants in Taole's (2014b) study also indicated that they are failing to handle the combination of Grade 3 and Grade 4 learners who are taught using different languages. Grade 3 learners are taught in their home language, while Grade 4 learners are taught in English. Such grade combinations create complexities in the provision of quality education, particularly for teachers who lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy.

Kivunja (2014) identified another problematic grade combination in his study of multi-grade teaching in Uganda. He reported that Grade 5 and Grade 6, which are non-examinable, are combined with Grade 7, which is examinable. The combination of an examinable and non-examinable grade is corroborated by Lingam (2007) in a study of MGT in Fiji. Kivunja (2014) and Lingam (2007) agree that examination pressure forces the teacher to focus on teaching the curriculum content of the examination class. Consequently, the curriculum content of the non-examinable grade is not covered. This pedagogical practice creates learning gaps among learners in non-examinable grades that compromise their mastery of concepts and academic achievement.

Existing studies on satellite schools in Zimbabwe (Chakanyuka et al., 2009; Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012; PoZ, 2012; Jenjekwa, 2013; Mangwaya *et*

al., 2013; Mavhunga & Mazodze, 2014; Tarisayi, 2015) did not focus on grade combinations in multi-grade classes and their impact on the provision of quality education. This is another grey area that the current study covered in its exploration of the prospects and complexities of the provision of quality education in satellite primary schools.

The quality of MGT also depends upon the utilisation of effective instructional strategies by the teachers. Brown (2010) states that effective instructional strategies in multi-grade settings are those that increase the level of student independence and cooperative group work. Scholars identify three effective MGT instructional strategies. These include peer tutoring, where learners act as teachers for one another; cooperative group work, which involves small groups engaging in collaborative tasks; and individual learning programmes that encourage self-study (Kyne, 2005, as cited in Brown, 2010). Mulkeen and Higgins (2009), who recommend self-managed learning, small group learning, and peer support as effective instructional strategies in multi-grade contexts, express similar sentiments. The recommended multi-grade instructional strategies are learner-centred. Berry (2010) posits that learner-centred multi-grade pedagogical approaches change the role of the teacher from being the 'giver of information' to the facilitator of learning. Learner-centred pedagogical approaches are emphasised in multi-grade settings. They ensure that the time learners spend away from the teacher when the teacher utilises the quasi-monograde approach is spent productively (Berry, 2010; Brown, 2010). Therefore, learner-centred pedagogical approaches are critical for effective teaching and learning in multi-grade classes.

Lingam (2007) conducted a study in Fiji and found that the lack of training in multi-grade pedagogy influences teachers in multi-grade contexts to employ transmissive approaches, particularly the lecture method. The same challenge was noted in Uganda and Zambia

(Kivunja, 2014), and South Africa (Mulaudzi, 2016). The reviewed studies concur that the lack of professional training in MGT approaches compels teachers to employ teacher-centred strategies that are not ideal for the provision of quality education in multi-grade classes. There is a need to establish the pedagogical approaches utilised by teachers in multi-grade settings of the satellite primary school and their impact on the provision of quality education in multi-grade classes.

Successful MGT depends on adequate supplies of instructional materials that support individual and group-based learning (Little, 2005). Instructional materials of this nature are essential in multi-grade contexts where learners spend more time in individual and group tasks than in teacher-directed learning activities. Adequate instructional materials enable multi-grade teachers to spend more time working with some groups while other groups work alone, in pairs or small groups (Little, 2005; Mulkeen & Higgins, 2009). Textbooks or workbooks with a self-study element and a self-correction key are more suitable for multi-grade settings (Little, Pridmore, Bajracharya & Vithanapathirana, 2007; Berry, 2010). It is worth noting that the instructional materials recommended for multi-grade classes are learner-centred and interactive to facilitate individual and group-based learning practices.

Instructional materials for multi-grade settings in most countries are premised on mono-grade pedagogy. According to Berry (2010), the instructional materials utilised in multi-grade settings are written for the mono-grade classroom. They are produced as grade-level textbooks designed to be delivered to the learner by the teacher. The mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings experience challenges in adapting the mono-grade instructional materials to multi-grade settings.

In a study carried out in South Africa, Taole and Mncube (2012) reveal that learners in multi-grade   classes use the same textbooks used in

mono-grade classes. Similarly, none of the schools studied by Siririka (2018) in Namibia had textbooks suitable for MGT. In the context of Zimbabwe, researchers note that there is an acute shortage of textbooks in satellite schools (PoZ, 2012; Mangwanya *et al.*, 2012; Mutema, 2014). However, the researchers did not establish the suitability of the available textbooks for multi-grade classes. Further research is required on the nature of the textbooks and their impact on the provision of quality education in multi-grade classes.

Literature indicates that mono-grade teachers experience challenges in assessing learners in multi-grade classes. The national learner assessment and record-keeping systems in most countries are designed for mono-grade classes (Hargreaves 2001, as cited in Brown, 2010). Teachers who lack professional training in multi-grade pedagogy must adapt learner assessment and record-keeping systems designed for mono-grade classes to multi-grade classes. The teachers should engage in multi-level assessment of learners' progress against prescribed syllabus outcomes and maintain separate assessment records for each grade (Taole, 2017). Hargreaves (2001 as cited in Brown, 2010) echoes similar sentiments. The authors concur that multi-grade settings lend themselves to assessment systems that recognise individual differences in learning, rather than treating all learners as if they are at the same level. They emphasise the need for separate learner assessment tasks and record books for the different grades constituting a multi-grade class.

A study of MGT conducted by Taole (2014a) in South Africa found that multi-grade teachers assess learners according to the stipulated learning outcomes of their grade levels and maintain separate assessment records for each grade. Mulaudzi (2016) conducted a study in the same country and corroborated this practice. Participants in Mulaudzi's study indicated that assessing learners separately and maintaining separate records is not only time-consuming but also increases the teacher's workload (Mulaudzi, 2016). There is also a need

to establish the learner assessment and record-keeping practices employed by multi-grade teachers in satellite schools and their impact on the provision of quality education.

Available literature in developing countries suggests that the perceptions of teachers towards MGT are generally negative. Suzuki (2004 in Brown, 2010) found that 50 out of 56 teachers with experience of MGT in Nepal hold negative perceptions towards such classes. The teachers indicated that multi-grade classes present them with more pedagogical challenges than mono-grade classes. From the study, Suzuki (2004 in Brown, 2010) concludes that the lack of professional training in multi-grade pedagogy influences teachers to perceive MGT as more demanding than mono-grade teaching. A study by Little (2005) in the Peruvian Amazon, reveals that mono-grade teachers in multi-grade settings regard the mono-grade class as the desirable norm and the multi-grade class as a 'second class' necessity. The study concludes that the lack of professional training in multi-grade pedagogy influences mono-grade teachers to hold negative attitudes towards multi-grade classes. The negative perceptions that mono-grade teachers take to the multi-grade settings affect the quality of their instruction (Brown, 2010) and, in turn, the provision of quality education.

The perceptions of mono-grade teachers towards MGT are generally negative in the African context. Mulkeen and Higgins (2009) report that in Uganda, Senegal, and The Gambia, the perception that MGT is more demanding and stressful than mono-grade teaching influences teachers to hold negative perceptions towards multi-grade classes. Joubert (2010) found similar findings in a study of MGT in South Africa. The author emphasises that teachers perceive MGT as demanding and complex because it requires greater effort regarding planning, curriculum adaptation, and class management. Joubert (2010) adds that the remoteness of multi-grade schools in South Africa, coupled with a lack of pedagogical resources and poor living

conditions, contribute to negative teacher attitudes towards MGT. For the same reasons, most teachers in South Africa view mono-grade teaching as the 'normal' way of organising classes and MGT as an unavoidable 'nuisance' (Berry, 2010). Such attitudes can have a negative bearing on teachers' quality of instruction in multi-grade classes. There is also a need to establish the attitudes of mono-grade teachers in satellite schools towards multi-grade classes and the impact of those attitudes on the provision of quality education.

Support from parents is one of the pre-conditions for the provision of quality education. Small rural schools with multi-grade classes are usually located in remote rural areas where they highly depend on parental support for their financial, resource, and infrastructural needs (Mulkeen & Higgins, 2009). By implication, for the small schools to be successful, they must be supported by parents. Findings from the literature, however, show that small rural schools often receive little or no support from parents. Some researchers hold the view that parents tend not to support small rural schools in their communities because they do not see the value of education for their children (Berry, 2010; PoZ, 2012; Mutema, 2014). Other researchers reject this view. According to du Plessis and Subramanien (2014), poverty, long working hours, low wages, and low levels of education force some parents not to support their schools. Kivunja (2014) corroborates and elaborates that small rural schools are usually located in poor communities where parents are too busy earning a living, resulting in them not having time or money to support the school. From the reviewed studies, it appears as if the lack of parental support is more associated with poverty and time constraints owing to long working hours than negative attitudes towards education.

Researchers also identify negative parental attitudes towards MGT as another factor that influences parents to be reluctant to support small rural schools with multi-grade classes. Parents may not support the presence of MGT in schools in their communities because they

perceive MGT as a 'second-rate' or the inferior option to mono-grade teaching (Kivunja, 2014; Siririka, 2018). UNESCO (2015) concurs and adds that some parents regard multi-grade classes as a stopgap measure that they should move away from as quickly as possible by constructing more classrooms and recruiting more teachers or closing small schools. If small schools are closed, learners are forced to walk very long distances to large schools in their local community and other communities. The long distance to school has a negative bearing on learners' concentration on learning, participation in class, and academic achievement (Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012). In their study in Uganda, Senegal, and The Gambia, Mulkeen and Huggins (2009) found that if schools make efforts to explain the nature and purpose of MGT to parents, they accept and support it. There is a need for a concerted effort by all education stakeholders to raise parents' awareness of MGT so that they appreciate and support it.

The provision of quality education in small rural schools is also complicated by Double-Sessioning (DS). Sagyndykova (2013) reports that the DS schooling system is a common pedagogical and management practice in small rural schools and large urban schools with inadequate classrooms and teachers. In the context of Zimbabwe, DS exists in satellite schools (Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012) and urban primary and secondary schools (Singadi, Goronga, Gatahwi & Mutangirwa, 2014; Kurebwa & Lumbe, 2015). Existing literature illuminates the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in small rural schools with DS.

According to Bray (2008), a school with DS caters for two separate groups of learners during the school day using the same buildings, equipment, and other facilities. One group of learners attends the morning session often from early morning to mid-day while the other group attends the afternoon session, usually from mid-day to late afternoon. Bray (2008) reports that in countries with adequate

supplies of teachers, there are different teachers for each session. However, in countries with shortages of teachers, the same teachers teach learners in both sessions. Some double-session schools have separate heads for each session, while others only have one head (Bray, 2008; Sagyndykova, 2013). There are various models of DS, making it challenging to define the concept in universal terms.

Sagyndykova (2013) defines DS in the context of Mexico as one in which a school uses the same buildings and academic curriculum for two different cohorts of learners. One cohort attends the morning session while the other cohort attends the afternoon session. This definition has two limitations. Firstly, it is not clear whether each session has its head, or one head leads both sessions. Secondly, the definition does not specify whether each session has its teachers or whether the same teachers teach in both sessions.

According to Bray (2008), in Botswana, the term DS entails a school that has different learners in the morning and afternoon sessions. The learners in each session are taught by different teachers and have the same number of classroom hours as learners in a single-session school. What is not clear in this definition is whether each session has its head or one head for both sessions. Botswana's model of DS is almost similar to the one used in Zimbabwe. Kurebwa and Lumbe (2015) state that, Zimbabwe's model of DS comprises two separate groups of learners who use the same classrooms, equipment, and facilities. The two groups of learners have different teachers and are managed by a single school head. This model of DS is unofficially known as 'hot-seating' in Zimbabwe. The term 'hot-seating' entails that school seats are not given the time to cool down before the next session begins (Bray, 2008; Singadi *et al.*, 2014).

Several conditions influence developing countries, including Zimbabwe, in adopting DS. According to Bray (2008), many developing countries face serious budget constraints that hinder their

ability to provide educational access to all school-age children. The governments of these countries resort to DS to double the supply of school places without building additional infrastructure. Sagyndykova (2013) corroborates that most developing countries adopt DS to increase the supply of school places while avoiding serious strain on the budget. Thus, the lack of financial resources to construct adequate schools influences some developing countries to adopt DS. Bervell, Sam and Boadu (2013) identify three conditions that necessitate the adoption of DS by developing countries in general and African countries in particular. The conditions are high teacher-learner ratios; inability to construct adequate schools; and shortage of trained teachers (Bervell *et al.,* 2013). This suggests that budgetary constraints to construct adequate schools and a shortage of qualified teachers have necessitated the adoption of DS by some developing countries.

Zimbabwe adopted the DS schooling system to cater to the high demand for education after the attainment of independence in 1980. The new Black government adopted the policy of EFA to ensure educational access to all learners, regardless of race (PCIET, 1999; Kanyongo, 2005; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). Education was declared a basic human right to every Zimbabwean child, and primary education was made free and compulsory (Zvobgo, 1997; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). These measures culminated in the phenomenal and unprecedented quantitative expansion in the provision of education in Zimbabwe. The learner enrolment figures at the primary school level rose significantly from 819, 586 in 1979 to 2, 274 178 in 1989, a growth of 177% (Zvobgo, 1999; GoZ, 2009). The sudden phenomenal expansion of educational provision while teaching and learning infrastructure was in short supply led to the adoption of DS as a stopgap measure (Kapfunde, 1999). Thus, the shortage of schools is one of the major factors that influenced the GoZ to adopt DS.

The FTLRP that the GoZ implemented in 2000, also culminated in the adoption of DS by some satellite schools that emerged in FTLRRAs.

Under the FTLRP, the government resettled land beneficiaries in FTLRRAs before the establishment of schools and other social amenities (Gonese& Makura, 2003; PoZ, 2012). Some land beneficiaries failed to construct adequate classrooms in their schools and adopted DS as a stopgap measure to ensure that their children have access to education (Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012). The DS schooling system has helped many countries address the issue of educational access and move towards universal primary and secondary education (Bray, 2008).

Regardless of ensuring educational access, DS has its challenges. Researchers have identified general conditions in double-session schools that militate against the provision of quality education. These conditions provide insights into how DS is creating complexities in the provision of quality education in satellite schools with DS. One such condition is the inadequacy of classrooms. Bray (2008) observes that in most African countries, learners in the morning session use classrooms while those in the afternoon session conduct lessons in the shade of trees waiting for their turn to use classrooms. Goronga, Dozva and Muchenje (2013) acknowledge this problem in their study of DS in Zimbabwe. They found that the teaching and learning process under the shade of trees is prone to distractions and disturbances that result in a lack of concentration by learners. Goronga *et al.* (2013) also note with concern that in the shade of trees, there are no special sitting and writing places for learners. Learners sit on the ground, stones, bricks, and timber logs. The absence of proper sitting and writing places makes it extremely difficult for effective teaching and learning to occur (Bray, 2008; Goronga *et al.,* 2013).

Bad weather conditions pose complexities to the implementation of DS. Bray (2008) states that when it rains, learners in the morning and afternoon sessions find shelter in the available classrooms. The classrooms become so congested that it is not possible to conduct lessons. Goronga *et al.* (2013) corroborate that on rainy school days,

classrooms become overcrowded, and lessons are stopped even if it rains the whole day. The instructional time that is lost during rainy school days compromises the provision of quality education in double-session schools.

Hot weather also militates against the provision of quality education in schools with DS. Bray (2008) and Katjaita (2011) concur that in warm weather, excessive heat makes it extremely difficult for learners who attend afternoon sessions of double-session schools to concentrate on learning. Sagyndykova (2013) agrees and adds that some learners who attend afternoon sessions perform domestic chores or engage in child labour to supplement family income before coming to school. By implication, the learners commence lessons when they are already exhausted. Such a set-up can negatively affect the academic achievement of the learners. One solution to this problem is to alternate morning and afternoon sessions on a weekly, monthly, or termly basis (Bray, 2008). In countries such as Senegal, where teachers can teach in both sessions, it was observed that teacher effectiveness declines in the afternoon session due to fatigue (Bray, 2008; Sagyndykova, 2013). This problem complicates the provision of quality education in the afternoon sessions. Bray (2008) advises countries in this predicament to train adequate teachers so that each teacher teaches in one session only.

Bray (2008) and Katjaita (2011) corroborate that in schools with DS, pedagogical resources such as buildings, furniture, and textbooks are only adequate for one session. Two different groups of teachers and learners use the resources. Hence, the rate of deterioration is faster than in single-session schools. The inadequate resources are further depleted, culminating in higher maintenance costs for pedagogical resources in double-session than in single-session schools (Bray, 2008; Katjaita, 2011). The higher maintenance costs can have a negative bearing on the capacity of double-session schools to procure adequate pedagogical resources for the provision of quality education.

The sharing of classrooms is another source of complexities in the provision of quality education in double-session schools. According to Bray (2008), when teachers share one classroom under DS, they often fear that learners in the other session may tamper with or destroy the instructional media they display in the classroom. This creates a sense of lack of ownership of the classroom by both sets of teachers and learners. The result is that the teachers become reluctant to display instructional media such as posters, charts, and artefacts that create a favourable classroom context in the provision of quality education (Bray, 2008; Mapolisa, Khosa, Ncube & Tshabalala, 2015). Displaying learners' work and instructional media that supplement lesson content, is one of one of the pre-conditions for effective teaching and learning (Bray, 2008). If teachers do not display instructional media, the provision of quality education is compromised.

Evidence in the literature suggests that instructional time is generally shorter in double-session than in single-session schools. Linden (2001) reviewed available literature across the world and found that in most countries, double-session schools have less instructional time than single-session schools. Bray (2008) also reviewed official data on the instructional time of primary schools on DS in 13 countries. He found that in seven of the countries, instructional time is shorter in double-session than in single-session schools. In the other six countries, instructional time is similar in double-session and single-session schools. Based on these literature findings, it can be concluded that instructional time is generally shorter in double-session than in single-session schools. The shorter instructional time in double-session schools compromises the provision of quality education. Bray (2008) observes that when instructional time is short, the first casualty is non-examinable subjects. He stresses that when DS shortens instructional time, the teachers tend to focus on teaching examinable subjects at the expense of non-examinable ones. Linden (2001) notes the same problem and aptly expresses it as the 'narrowing' of the school

curriculum. The curriculum for double-session learners is 'narrowed' when teachers focus on teaching examinable subjects to contend with limited instructional time. The learners are exposed to an incomplete curriculum that limits their career opportunities and life chances.

The second casualty of limited instructional time in double-session schools is the provision of individualised support to learners. The reduced instructional time compels teachers to focus on fast learners at the expense of learners with learning challenges (Bray, 2008; Kurebwa & Lumbe, 2015). Learners with learning difficulties may fail to master some concepts, and their academic performance is adversely affected.

Ashong-Katai (2013) studied double-session schools in Ghana and found that instructional hours are between 4-5 hours per day in double-session schools and 7-8 hours in single-session schools. The disparity of three hours is so large that it can pose challenges to curriculum coverage in double-session schools. Ashong-Katai (2013) concurs with Bray (2008) that limited instructional time forces some teachers to focus on examinable subjects and neglect non-examinable subjects. A school that denies learners access to some prescribed learning areas cannot be said to be providing quality education. The limited instructional time associated with DS is one of the problems that forced the government of Ghana to abolish DS (Ashong-Katai, 2013). The decision by the government of Ghana to revert to the single-session schooling system was to provide learners with sufficient instructional time and reinvigorate the provision of quality education.

Although DS is prevalent in satellite, rural, and urban schools in Zimbabwe, most research studies focus on urban schools. Kurebwa and Lumbe (2015) studied double-session primary schools in Gweru Town and found that learners in both morning and afternoon sessions have less instructional time in the classroom than learners in single-session schools. As noted in other studies (Bray, 2008; Ashong-Katai,

2013), the teachers fail to cover all the subjects within the scheduled time and prioritise examinable subjects. They also fail to attend to learners with learning difficulties owing to instructional time constraints. Kurebwa and Lumbe (2015) also note that limited instructional time forces teachers to rush learners through the syllabus by teaching too much content in one lesson. If teachers overload learners with learning content or rush them through the syllabus, they may fail to grasp the content. These findings are corroborated by a study conducted by Goronga *et al.* (2013) in Chinhoyi Town, Zimbabwe. The authors note that insufficient instructional time makes it difficult for teachers to complete syllabuses on time for public examinations unless they employ the lecture method. Rote pedagogy is not ideal for the provision of quality education because it makes learners passive recipients of knowledge.

Bray (2008) believes that the impact of limited instructional time on the quality of education in double-session classes is not disastrous. He argues that effective teachers who are well equipped with curriculum resources can achieve more in a short time than ineffective teachers with few resources can achieve in twice the time. In other words, the effective implementation of DS requires well-trained and adequately resourced teachers.

The DS schooling system involves transitional periods whose management has a bearing on the quality of education a double-session school provides. The concept of a transitional period in the context of the double-session school entails the change-over period from the morning to the afternoon session. Bray (2008) advises that short interim periods of 20 to 30 minutes save instructional time and are often smooth. However, he notes that very short transitional periods are noisy and chaotic. By implication, very short or very long transitional periods can be detrimental to the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in schools with DS.

Research studies held in Zimbabwe (Singadi *et al.,* 2014; Kurebwa & Lumbe, 2015) acknowledge that transitional periods are chaotic and unmanageable. A lot of instructional time is lost during the transitional period. The learning time that is lost compromises curriculum coverage and the provision of quality education. Singadi *et al.* (2014) also report cases of double-session schools where there is no time set aside for the transitional period. The transition from the morning to the afternoon session is held during a timetabled lesson, and a lot of instructional time is lost. In a study of double-session schools in Namibia, Katjaita (2011) reports that classes are always dirty because there is no transition time to allow one session to clean the classroom before the next session commences. A messy classroom poses a health threat to teachers and learners, and is not ideal for the provision of quality education. These studies illuminate how the management of the transitional period can affect the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite schools with DS.

Extra-curricular activities are one aspect of the school curriculum that ensures the holistic development of learners. Available literature indicates that the limited school day under DS leaves little or no time for extra-curricular activities (Sagyndykova, 2013). Bray (2008) expresses similar sentiments when he says, DS forces school authorities to cut back on extra-curricular activities. Katjaita (2011) observes that in some Namibian double-session schools, extra-curricular activities are held in the afternoon. Due to that arrangement, learners in the afternoon session do not get the opportunity to participate in the extra-curricular activities. In the absence of extra-curricular activities, the physical development of learners is compromised. Bray (2008) reports cases of sports players in the afternoon session of double-session schools that are made to miss lessons from time to time to participate in school sporting teams. The learning content that is missed by the learners militates against their progress and academic achievement.

Literature indicates that extra-curricular activities for learners in the morning session usually interfere with the teaching and learning process for learners in the afternoon session. A study carried out in Zimbabwe by Singadi *et al.* (2014) found that sporting activities for learners in the morning session are held from 2 pm to 4 pm. For learners in the afternoon session, they are held from 8 am to 10 am. The study by Singadi *et al.* (2014) corroborates earlier research by Bray (2008) that the noise from the sporting fields distracts the attention of learners in the afternoon session from concentrating on learning. This problem can be addressed by holding extracurriculars for both sessions at the same time on Saturdays.

The afternoon session of a double-session school is sometimes 'short-changed' by school inspectors and school heads in terms of supervision. Linden (2001) and Bray (2008) concur that some double-session schools are so large that it is difficult for school inspectors to supervise all the teachers adequately and effectively. The school inspectors often supervise teachers in the morning session and neglect those in the afternoon session. Most heads of double-session schools usually supervise teachers in the morning session and use afternoons for meetings both within and outside the school (Bray, 2008). School inspectors and school heads do not adequately supervise teachers in the afternoon session. Mapolisa *et al.* (2015) report the same problem in a study of urban double-session schools in Zimbabwe. By implication, the quality of education in the morning session is qualitatively superior to that in the afternoon session. There is also a need to establish the nature of supervision processes in satellite schools that practice DS and their impact on the provision of quality education.

One of the determinants of quality education in double-session schools is the attitudes of teachers towards DS. In most countries, teachers tend to perceive double-session schools as qualitatively inferior to single-session schools (Linden, 2001; Bray, 2008; Katjaita, 2011). The

negativity that clouds DS can affect the provision of quality education in this school type. Bray (2008) argues that if teachers accept DS, it is most likely to be successful. However, if they feel overwhelmed, inadequately compensated, and professionally frustrated by DS, then it is unlikely to be successful. Therefore, positive teacher perceptions towards DS are crucial for the provision of quality education in double-session schools.

The attitudes of parents towards DS are generally negative (Linden, 2001; Bray, 2008; Katjaita, 2011). If double-session schools are established as a temporary expedient to be replaced as soon as resources are available, parents often perceive them as inferior to single-session schools (Linden, 2001). This could be the situation in most countries, including Zimbabwe (Linden, 2001) and Namibia (Katjaita, 2011) where DS was adopted as a stopgap measure. If parents perceive double-session schools in this way, they may not support them financially. This can compromise the provision of quality education in the schools since in most African countries, including Zimbabwe; parents are the main financiers of their children's education.

Several developing nations are grappling with the problem of large class sizes because it undermines the provision of quality education (Yelkpieri, Namale, Esia-Donkoh & Ofosu-Dwamena, 2012). This problem is quite prevalent in urban areas of most developing countries (Marais, 2016; Wadesango, Hove & Kurebwa, 2016). Although small rural schools are associated with low enrolments, researchers are reporting cases of large class sizes in this school type (PoZ, 2012; Kivunja, 2014; Taole, 2014c; Gasa, 2016). However, there is a dearth of literature on the pedagogical and management practices in large classes in the context of small rural schools, including the satellite school type. As a result, the literature on the impact of large class sizes on the provision of quality education was mainly drawn from studies

on large urban schools. The literature provides insights into the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in large classes and their impact on the provision of quality education.

There is no consensus in education literature on the size of a large class (Bahanshal, 2013; Adu, Bayaga & Tella, 2014). This is because teacher-learner ratios and the notion of large classes vary in different countries. For instance, Shwandi (2017) reports that in Japan, the teacher-learner ratio of 1:50 is regarded as normal and not a challenge to teachers. In the United States of America and the United Kingdom, the teacher-learner ratio of 1:30 is considered large and problematic for teachers. The recommended teacher-learner ratios for primary schools in Zimbabwe are 1:20 at the Early Childhood Development (ECD) level and 1:40 for Grades 1 to 7 (MoESAC, 2013b). From this empirical evidence, it is apparent that the notion of large class size is relative. Mulryan-Kyne (2010) and Bahanshal (2013) agree that large classes are those with a specific number of learners that teachers cannot handle, and resources are not enough for effective teaching and learning to occur. In the context of this study, a large class entails one that exceeds the recommended teacher-learner ratio and poses challenges to effective teaching and learning.

Large classes are a common phenomenon in educational institutions of most Sub-Saharan African countries, including Zimbabwe. According to Mintah (2014), large classes are necessitated by rapid population growth and the global initiative for free and universal primary education. African governments implemented the policy of free and comprehensive primary education in the context of inadequate schools and teachers. This policy resulted in a phenomenal increase in learner enrolments that schools failed to accommodate. To accommodate all learners, governments had no option but to allow schools to have large classes (Yelkpieri *et al.,* 2012; Mintah, 2014).

Zimbabwe is also confronted with the problem of large class sizes. Zvobgo (1997) states that the colonial government in Zimbabwe denied Blacks equal access to education. After the attainment of independence in 1980, the Black government adopted the policy of EFA and free primary education to ensure educational access to Blacks. These measures resulted in learner enrolment figures at the primary school level rising significantly from 819, 586 in 1979 to 2, 274 178 in 1989 (Zvobgo, 1997). Wadesango *et al.* (2016) concur and point out that the sudden phenomenal expansion of educational provision when human, financial, and material resources were in short supply led to large class sizes. The teacher-learner ratio burgeoned from 1:40 to 1:60 in some primary schools (Wadesango *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, the phenomenon of large class sizes in most African countries is a consequence of inadequate school infrastructure and teachers to cater for increasing learner enrolments following the adoption of the policy of free primary education.

Zimbabwe is also grappling with the problem of large class sizes linked to the Teacher Recruitment Freeze (TRF) imposed by the PSC of Zimbabwe in 2015, citing the unavailability of financial resources to meet any increment in the civil service wage bill (PSC, 2016). The TRF entails that the government is not recruiting new teachers into the service to fill in vacant posts. This has resulted in acute understaffing and very high teacher-learner ratios in schools. The PSC reports that 8, 509 vacant teaching posts remain unfilled on account of the freeze, against a background of over 19, 000 unemployed teacher graduates in the country (Langa, 2017). In 2019, the MoPSE reported that the deficit of primary and secondary school teachers in the country increased from 12, 000 to 13, 000 due to the TRF (Tshili, 2019). The TRF has created an unfortunate situation where there are vacant posts and unemployed teachers. Still, the government cannot recruit the teachers due to a lack of funds to remunerate them. This set-up has inevitably created unsustainable teacher-learner ratios in Zimbabwe's public primary and secondary schools.

Teacher Unions in Zimbabwe have raised concerns about the problem of high teacher-learner ratios in the schools. The Zimbabwe Teachers' Association (ZIMTA) laments that the teacher-learner ratio has shot to 1: 55 at the ECD Level and 1: 60 from Grades 1 to 7 (Mugadzaweta, 2017). The teacher-learner ratios are far above the recommended MoPSE teacher-learner ratios of 1: 20 at the ECD level and 1: 40 from Grades 1 to 7, respectively (MoESAC, 2013b). The Amalgamated Rural Teachers' Union of Zimbabwe (ARTUZ) complains that the teacher-learner ratio has risen to unacceptable levels of 1:100 in rural areas (Murwira, 2018). The Progressive Teachers' Union of Zimbabwe (PTUZ) also reports cases of teachers who are teaching as many as 110 learners in one class (Murwira, 2018). There is a need to explore the effects of high teacher-learner ratios on the quality of pedagogical and management processes in schools, including satellite schools.

Large class size poses several pedagogical and management challenges to teachers. The challenges include methods of teaching, learner assessment, catering to the diverse needs of learners, and class management. These challenges emanate from the teachers' lack of professional training in handling large classes.

The initial challenge that confronts teachers teaching large classes is the lack of training in pedagogical and management skills for teaching large classes. Teacher training institutions tend to prepare teachers for teaching with the official teacher-learner ratios in mind (Kariuki & Guantai, 2005). Teachers are equipped with pedagogical and class management approaches for teaching and managing small or large classes depending on the official teacher-learner ratios in their country or community. Many African countries are grappling with the problem of large class sizes, but they prepare student teachers to teach official class sizes that are smaller than the classes they will teach as qualified teachers (Mintah, 2014). In other words, student teachers are not prepared to teach large classes. Teaching large classes is a pedagogical issue that is not covered in the teacher development programmes of

most African countries (Benbow, Mizrachi, Oliver & Said-Moshiro, 2007). In a study in South Africa, Marais (2016) corroborates that, teacher development institutions do not offer appropriate programmes for teachers to handle large classes. The institutions do not equip teachers with the theoretical and practical skills to deal with the unique challenges associated with large classes. Opoku-Asare, Agbenatoe and DeGraft-Johnson (2014) rightly observe that large classes pose overwhelming challenges to newly appointed teachers who lack exposure to teaching in large classes during their pre-service training. The nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in large classes is a knowledge gap in the discourse of quality education in satellite schools that needs to be addressed.

Evidence in the literature suggests that class size has an impact on the teacher's choice of pedagogical approaches. In large, overcrowded classes, teachers usually employ rote pedagogical approaches due to a lack of space (Opoku *et al.,* 2014). Marais (2016) who says due to overcrowding in large classes, learner-centred pedagogy that promotes active participation by learners is hindered, echoes similar sentiments. The teacher-centred pedagogical approaches that the teachers utilise do not effectively provoke learners' thinking and the development of skills associated with quality education. These skills include critical thinking, application of knowledge in real-life situations, and problem-solving (Opoku *et al.,* 2014; Marais, 2016). In the same vein, Mupa and Chabaya (2011) argue that in large classes, teachers adopt teacher-centred pedagogical approaches that make learners passive recipients of knowledge. Generally, existing literature agrees that teachers teaching large classes employ teacher-centred strategies that are not ideal for the provision of quality education. This literature is relevant to the current study because it highlights the nature of pedagogical and management approaches utilised in large classes and their effects on the provision of quality education.

Available literature reveals that large classes overburden teachers with heavy marking loads. In their study in Zimbabwe, Wadesango *et al.* (2016) report that in large classes, teachers assign learners very few assignment tasks to avoid heavy marking loads. The inadequate assignment tasks limit learners' opportunities to practise and master new concepts. A study by Marais (2016) in South Africa reports that in large classes teachers are so overwhelmed with marking loads that they do not have time to review learners' assignments thoroughly. The errors that the teachers overlook militate against learners' progress and academic achievement. Mupa and Chabaya (2011) advise that feedback should be detailed, accurate and timely. Although it is a challenge in large classes, timeous feedback enables teachers to identify and rectify learners' challenges promptly.

Research has noted that teachers find it difficult to attend to the individual needs of learners in large classes. The problem emanates from the fact that it is hard to identify individual learners who need extra support in large classes (Adu *et al.*, 2014; Imtiaz, 2014; Marais, 2016). The same problem is noted by Mupa and Chabaya (2011) who say large class sizes make it difficult for teachers to facilitate a single channel of communication where they talk to learners as individuals. Teachers usually interact with the learners in groups rather than individually. The problem with this approach is that it does not provide teachers with detailed knowledge of the individual needs of learners. Resultantly, teachers concentrate on teaching fast learners at the expense of slow learners (Wadesango *et al.*, 2016). According to the Equity Model reviewed in Chapter 2, an education system that is insensitive to the diverse needs of learners is not of good quality.

Marais (2016) reports that in South Africa teachers find it difficult to cater to the needs of learners with physical, visual, and hearing impairments in large classes. Wadesango *et al.* (2016) corroborate that teachers neglect learners with special needs, particularly in large

inclusive classes. This amounts to the exclusion rather than the inclusion of learners with special needs. Taole (2014c) argues that small class sizes allow each learner to receive more attention from the teacher. Mulryan-Kyne (2010) agrees and underlines that if teachers work with fewer learners, they can provide personalised attention more than in large classes. In the final analysis, a large class size militates against the teacher's ability to provide effective individualised support to all the learners.

Large class size poses learner behaviour management challenges that impede effective teaching and learning and the provision of quality education. In a study of large classes in South Africa, Marais (2016) reports that learners are cramped together and engage in disruptive behaviours. The unruly behaviours include screaming, fighting, bullying others, pushing, and vandalising resources. Similar learner disruptive behaviours in large classes are noted in Saudi Arabia Bahanshal, 2023), Zimbabwe (Wadesango *et al.*, 2016) and Zambia (Shwandi, 2017). Disruptive learner behaviours in the classroom reduce the efficiency of lesson delivery (Marais, 2016). Bahanshal (2013) concurs and adds that learner misconduct in large classes minimises the quantity and quality of learning opportunities, lesson pace, and curriculum coverage. It is extremely difficult for teachers to identify and control disruptive learners in large classes (Bahanshal, 2013; Shwandi, 2017). This gives undisciplined learners the leeway to disturb those learners who want to learn. The result is that large classes become chaotic and unmanageable (Marais, 2016; Shwandi, 2017). Such a classroom ambience is irrefutably not ideal for the provision of quality education.

High levels of noise also hamper effective teaching and learning in large and overcrowded classes. In a study conducted in South Africa, Marais (2016) reports that large classes are so noisy that it is impossible for learners who want to learn to focus on learning. Mustafa, Mahmoud,

Assaf, Al-Hamadi and Abdulhamid (2014) corroborate that in large classes, learners find it very difficult to concentrate on learning owing to noisy and restive classmates. Noise in large classes is a problematic issue that makes it hard for learners to hear the teacher and concentrate on learning (Bahanshal, 2013; Wadesango *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, noise is one of the barriers to the provision of quality education in large classes.

The management of learner behaviour reviewed in the preceding section has a bearing on time management and the provision of quality education in large classes. A study conducted by Imtiaz (2014) reports that large classes compel teachers to devote more time to managing learner behaviour than actual instruction. The same problem was noted by Marais (2016) in a study conducted in South Africa. He found that teachers teaching large classes spend a lot of instructional time getting learners to settle down and addressing disruptive behaviours at the expense of teaching. The teachers fail to complete lessons in the scheduled time owing to interruptions associated with unruly learner behaviours in large classes (Marais, 2016). In their study in Zimbabwe, Mapfumo, Mukwidzwa and Chireshe (2014) corroborate that addressing learner behavioural problems in large classes cuts deeply into instructional time. If teachers spend more instructional time on managing learner behaviour in large classes than teaching, curriculum coverage and the provision of quality education are compromised.

After the attainment of independence in 1980, the GoZ adopted the policy of EFA to afford Blacks equal access to education (PCIET, 1999; Kanyongo, 2005; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). Following the implementation of the policy of EFA in 1980, there was a quantitative expansion of educational provision in the country. The emphasis was not so much on the quality and cost-effectiveness of the education system but on access to education (Kanyongo, 2005). Put differently, there was a focus on educational access rather than the quality of

education. As a result, in the late 1980s, the quality of education deteriorated, and the government realised that quantitative expansion of educational provision in the face of scarce resources compromises the quality of education (Gatawa, 1988; Kapfunde, 1999; Zvobgo, 1999). To promote the provision of quality education, the government shifted its educational policy from an emphasis on quantitative expansion to quality education (Kapfunde, 1999) and adopted several quality education initiatives to improve the quality of primary and secondary education in the country. These include the Minimum School Functionality Standards (MSFS), School Development Committees (SDCs), Better Schools Programme Zimbabwe (BSPZ), Education Transition Fund, and the Competence-Based Curriculum (CBC).

One of the pioneering quality education initiatives in post-independent Zimbabwe is the MSFS that refers to the benchmarks of quality education that all schools in Zimbabwe are expected to meet to be deemed fit for providing quality education (MoESAC, 2013b). These are the minimum pre-conditions that every school is mandated to meet to provide quality education. The MoESAC (2013b) stipulates the following MSFS for a school to be registered with the ministry: a standard administration block; at least one standard teacher's house; and at least one standard classroom block. More so, a school should have a safe source of drinking water within 500 metres of the school campus and adequate toilets for staff members and learners. The ratio of toilet holes to learners is set at 1:20 for girls and 1:25 for boys (MoESAC, 2013b). A total of 1,016 satellite primary schools in Zimbabwe are not registered with the MoPSE due to the failure to meet the MSFS (MoPSE, 2017). By implication, the quality of education in satellite primary schools is very poor.

After registration with the ministry, there are other MSFS that a school is expected to meet to be regarded as fit to provide quality education. The MoESAC (2013b) states that each school should have one textbook

per learner for each core subject, teachers' guides, syllabi for all learning areas offered by the school, a computer, and adequate furniture for learners and teachers. However, research studies in Zimbabwe (Mutema, 2014; Tarisayi, 2015) indicate that there is an acute shortage of textbooks and furniture in most satellite schools. The authors note that the inadequacy of textbooks and furniture creates complexities to the provision of quality education in satellite schools.

Regarding teacher qualifications, the MSFS states that the minimum academic and professional qualifications for primary school teachers are five Ordinary Level passes including Mathematics and English and a Diploma in Education (Primary) (MoESAC, 2013b). Existing studies (Hlupo & Tsikira, 2012; Jenjekwa, 2013) report cases of untrained teachers in satellite schools. However, a recent report by the PSC of Zimbabwe indicates that there are over 19,000 unemployed teacher graduates in the country (Langa, 2017). This may suggest that there are no longer cases of untrained teachers in satellite schools.

In Zimbabwe, the teacher-learner ratios are set at 1:20 at the ECD level and 1:40 from Grades 1 to 7 (MoESAC, 2013b). Nonetheless, most schools are grappling with the problem of large classes following the implementation of the TRF by the government in 2015. The TRF has led to high teacher-learner ratios of 1:55 at the ECD Level and 1:60 from Grades 1 to 7 (ZIMTA cited in Mugadzaweta, 2017). In line with the MSFS, teachers should employ learner-centred, participatory, and inclusive pedagogical approaches (MoESAC, 2013b). This book explores, among other pedagogical and management practices, how teachers in satellite schools are addressing large class sizes through various pedagogical approaches and their impact on the provision of quality education.

The MSFS stipulate that teachers should maintain a set of professional records, including the scheme of work, lesson plans, progress record, attendance register, test record, remedial record, social record, inventory record, and extension record (MoESAC, 2013b). Studies conducted by the PoZ (2012) and Mutema (2014) report cases of multi-

grade classes in satellite schools. There is a need to explore how teachers manage professional records in multi-grade classes. On the whole, the MSFS provide a yardstick to measure the extent to which satellite schools provide quality education in terms of pedagogical and management processes.

After the attainment of independence in 1980, the GoZ employed a centralised approach to funding education in which it solely funded education from pre-school to adult education. The government funding covered the construction of schools, salaries, and allowances for teachers and per capita grants for the procurement of teaching and learning resources (Zvobgo, 1997; Nyandoro, Mapfumo & Makoni, 2013). The government intended to accord Blacks access to education that was restricted during the colonial era. Towards the end of the first decade of independence, the huge government expenditure on education became unsustainable, and the quality of primary and secondary education deteriorated (Kapfunde, 1999; Zvobgo, 1999; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). To reinvigorate the quality of primary and secondary education, the government introduced the notion of School Development Committees (SDCs) in 1991.

The government enacted the Education Amendment Act of 1991 that provides provisions for government-aided schools to establish SDCs (GoZ, 1991). Statutory Instrument 87 of 1992 stipulates that the SDC comprises five elected parents of learners enrolled in the school, the school head, the deputy head, a teacher at the school, and a representative of the responsible authority (GoZ, 1992). The SDCs paved the way for community involvement in funding and managing schools to enhance the provision of quality education. The responsibilities of the SDC include the following: charging and collecting levies from parents; constructing and maintaining school infrastructure; providing instructional resources; and catering for the welfare of learners (GoZ, 1992; MoESAC, 2010). The SDCs have the

mandate of developing schools in the best interests of learners, parents, and teachers. They are responsible for mobilising and managing the resources that the school requires to provide quality education. Through SDCs, the government shifted its responsibility of financing education to parents, a situation that has made parents the major financiers of their children's education in Zimbabwe.

As alluded to in Chapter 2, the government resettled fast-track land reform beneficiaries in FTLRRAs before the establishment of schools (Gonese & Makura, 2003; Chakanyuka, 2009; PoZ, 2012). The land beneficiaries established satellite schools with financial and management support from their SDCs. This makes the SDC part of the management process of a satellite school. Among other management processes, the book explores the nature and quality of the management support that SDCs provide in satellite schools.

The GoZ adopted the BSPZ in 1996 to improve the quality of its primary and secondary education (MoESAC, 2001). The BSPZ operates through a system of school clusters and Cluster Resource Centres (CRCs). A school cluster consists of a group of at least three schools located near each other that agree to work together to improve the quality of education they provide (MoESAC, 2001; Giordano, 2008). The schools share human, material, and financial resources to tackle their challenges and improve the quality of education in the cluster (Giordano, 2008; Maphosa, Mutekwe, Machingambi, Wadesango & Ndofirepi, 2013). School clustering entails inter-school collaboration, pulling together resources and sharing challenges and best practices among schools in the pursuit of quality education. In this way, a school receives management and pedagogical support from its cluster.

The schools in each school cluster pull resources together and establish a Cluster Resource Centre (CRC) that is equipped with educational

resources such as books, journals, computers, and internet facilities (MoESAC, 2001). School clustering creates platforms for schools to collaborate, share resources, and support each other in creating teaching and learning ambiences conducive to the provision of quality education. The activities of the school CRC are coordinated by a cluster resource teacher who is usually based at the CRC (MoESAC, 2001). To ensure the effective implementation of quality education programmes, the BSPZ has structures at national, provincial, district, cluster, and school levels (Mbudzi & Ndlovu, 2000). The bureaucratic administrative structure of the BSPZ enhances the effective implementation of school cluster programmes.

The BSPZ recommends the following school cluster activities to enhance the provision of quality education: making education responsive to local needs; drawing common school syllabi and schemes of work; setting and administering common examinations; and creating a research base that guides policy and educational practice at the cluster level (MoESAC, 2000; Maphosa *et al.*, 2013). The provision of quality education is also enhanced through conducting staff development workshops, on-site school supervision visits and demonstration lessons; organising cluster competitions in sports and other aspects of the curriculum; and monitoring and evaluating cluster activities regularly (MoESAC, 2000; Maphosa *et al.*, 2013). These activities address the main dimensions of quality education, namely: relevance; resource inputs; transformation process; outputs and feedback. Therefore, the BSPZ is a comprehensive quality education initiative.

Available literature acknowledges the utility of school clustering. In a study conducted in South Africa, Lock (2011) notes that school clustering offers opportunities for school heads to share and support each other on school leadership issues. School clustering also equips school heads who are vanguards of the quality education imperative

with transformational leadership skills to enable them to implement quality education initiatives effectively (Lock, 2011; Maphosa *et al.,* 2013). In their study in South Africa, Jita and Mokhele (2012) report that school clusters improve the pedagogical skills of teachers and the quality of education. School clustering has the potential to enhance the quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools.

Regardless of the efficacy of school clustering discussed above, researchers have drawn our attention to some of its limitations. In their study of school clusters in South Africa, Jita and Mokhele (2012) report that lack of resources is a major factor militating against the effective implementation of school clustering in rural settings. Similarly, Makaye (2015) found that in rural Zimbabwe, school clusters are so poorly funded that teachers and school heads sustain cluster activities from their resources. These challenges create negative teacher attitudes towards school clustering that militate against the provision of quality education.

Zimbabwe experienced a decade of economic meltdown from 2000 to 2009 that culminated in hyperinflation and failure by the government to provide schools with per capita grants (MoPSE, 2016). The absence of school per capita grants from the government led to the reintroduction of user fees, acute shortage of teaching and learning resources, high learner dropout rates, deterioration of infrastructure, teacher migration, and mass closure of schools (MoESAC, 2013a). The economic meltdown eroded the qualitative gains the country achieved since 1980 (MoESAC, 2013a; Sadomba, Chigwanda & Manyati, 2015). To reinvigorate the quality of education in the country, the MoPSE with financial assistance from UNICEF and the international donor community implemented the Education Transition Fund (ETF) in 2009 (United Nations in Zimbabwe, 2012). The ETF was implemented in two phases. The first phase involved providing schools with stationery

and textbooks. In the second phase, schools received School Improvement Grants (SIGs).

According to the MoESAC (2013a), owing to the economic crisis from 2000 to 2009, the textbook-learner ratio was as high as 1:10 in 2009 with 20% of rural primary schools having no textbooks at all for core subjects such as English, Mathematics, Science, Shona, and Ndebele. The Zimbabwe Schools Examinations Council (ZIMSEC) Grade 7 pass rate plummeted from 53% in 1999 to as low as 33% in 2007 (MoESAC, 2013a). In a bid to improve the quality of education, the MoESAC in partnership with UNICEF and the international donor community rolled out the first phase of the ETF in 2009. According to the MoESAC (2013a), each learner in the country's 5, 575 primary schools was provided with stationery kits and a set of four core textbooks in Mathematics, English, Science, and Chishona or Ndebele. Following the disbursement of the textbooks and stationery kits, the textbook-learner ratio in core subjects declined significantly from 1:10 to 1:1. In separate studies of satellite schools in Zimbabwe, the PoZ (2012) and Mangwanya *et al.* (2012) confirm the availability of core textbooks donated by UNICEF in some satellite schools. For non-core subjects, they note that they were either not available, or it was the teacher only who had a textbook (PoZ, 2012; Mangwanya *et al.,* 2012). The ETF stationery and textbooks programme alleviated the dire shortage of textbooks in the schools.

The MoPSE with financial assistance from its partners implemented the SIG in 2013 as the second phase of the ETF. The goal of SIG is to provide financially constrained schools with grants to meet infrastructural and curriculum material needs (CfBT Education Trust, 2013; MoPSE, 2016). The SIG targeted financially constrained special schools; registered rural primary schools and satellite primary schools with an average annual income of less than $10,000; registered rural secondary schools and satellite secondary schools with an average annual income of less

than $15,000 (MoPSE, 2016). The SIG generally targeted poor small rural schools. According to UNICEF (2018), the grant caters for the fees and levies for Orphans and Vulnerable Children (OVC), teaching and learning materials and special needs provisions. It also covers school running costs, building materials, inputs for the school feeding programme, water and sanitary facilities, and maintenance costs. School heads and SDC members were trained in financial management to enable them to implement the SIG programme in line with government accounting principles (MoPSE, 2016). This ensured the effective and efficient implementation of the programme in the provision of quality education.

In a study on the efficacy of the SIG in satellite schools, Tarisayi (2015) reports that the programme enabled some satellite schools to complete the construction of their first standard classroom block projects that they had abandoned due to financial constraints. He also notes that satellite schools utilise the grant to construct standard toilets for learners and teachers (Tarisayi, 2015). Thus, the SIG is improving the quality of teaching and learning infrastructure in satellite schools.

One of the fundamental determinants of quality education is a relevant school curriculum that enhances a country's prospects of realising socio-economic development. According to PCIET (1999), the school curriculum that Zimbabwe inherited from the colonial regime after the attainment of independence in 1980, was too academic and Eurocentric. The PCIET recommended the country to review the school curriculum and align it to its socio-economic needs (PCIET, 1999). In response to this recommendation, the MoPSE implemented a Competence-Based Curriculum (CBC) in 2015 (MoPSE, 2015). The implementation of the CBC commenced while the study on which this book is based was being conducted. Therefore, the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in the satellite school type was assessed in the mirror of the CBC. According to MoPSE (2015), the central goal of the CBC

is to improve the quality of education in schools. MoPSE (2016) confirms that the CBC aims to enhance quality education through the curriculum, making it a quality education initiative.

The MoPSE (2015) outlines the following aims of the CBC: to develop a national identity, patriotism, tolerance, and *Ubuntu* in learners; to inculcate life, work, and entrepreneurial skills in preparation for life and work in a globalised and competitive society; and to cultivate relevant literacy, numeracy, and practical skills in learners. It also aims at fostering long-life learning to enable learners to adapt to the opportunities and challenges of the 21st-century knowledge society; preparing learners for participatory citizenship, peace and sustainable development; and orienting learners for voluntary service, participation and leadership (MoPSE, 2016). These aims incorporate the context, inputs, relevance, equity, process, and output dimensions of quality education. Therefore, the CBC is a holistic quality education initiative.

The CBC is organised on three levels, namely the Infant level, Junior level, and Secondary school level. According to the MoPSE (2015), the Infant and Junior levels constitute the primary education cycle that comprises nine years. The Infant level includes two ECD classes, that is ECD A and B, and Grades 1 and 2. The Junior level runs from Grades 3 to 7. At the end of the primary school cycle, learners take the ZIMSEC Grade 7 national school examinations. The transition to the secondary education cycle follows the formal completion of primary education. The secondary school cycle is in two levels: Forms 1 to 4 and Forms 5 and 6.

According to the MoPSE (2015), the learning areas at the Infant Level include Languages, Visual and Performing Arts (VPA), Physical Education, Mass Displays, Mathematics and Science, Family and Heritage Studies, and ICT. The learning areas for the junior classes are Languages, Mathematics, Heritage Studies and Life Skills Orientation Programme (LSOP), Science and Technology, Agriculture, VPA, ICT,

Physical Education, Sport and Mass Displays, and Family, Religion and Moral Education. The CBC has a bias towards STEM subjects to equip learners with scientific and entrepreneurial skills so that they thrive in a knowledge-based 21st-century society (MoPSE, 2015). This resonates well with the goal of the CBC framework of equipping learners with scientific and entrepreneurial skills so that they create employment for themselves and others.

As noted earlier, the MoPSE with financial assistance from UNICEF rolled out the ETF textbook and stationery programme for all schools in 2009. In 2017, the MoPSE implemented the CBC with some learning areas different from those of the old curriculum. This development has implications for the availability of textbooks in satellite schools and the provision of quality education.

This chapter reviewed the literature on the quality of education in small rural schools. It commenced by conceptualising the notion of a small rural school. This is followed by a review of the literature on the quality of education in farm schools in colonial Zimbabwe. Satellite primary schools are located in the same setting as former White-owned farm schools for the children of African farm labourers. Therefore, the literature on the quality of education in the farm schools provided a historical and contextual background to the prospects and complexities of quality education in satellite primary schools. The literature on the emergence of satellite schools and factors affecting the quality of education in this school type were also reviewed. Most satellite primary schools in Zimbabwe fall under the category of small rural schools. Hence, the literature on the quality of education in small rural schools provided insights into the nature and quality of pedagogical and management processes in satellite primary schools. The chapter ended by reviewing the quality education initiatives that the GoZ implemented to improve the quality of primary and secondary education in the country. The next chapter outlines and justifies the

interpretive-qualitative research methodology that was adopted for the study on which this book is based.