Teacher Education within the Context of Open and Distance Learning in Zimbabwe: A Case Study

By

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DEDICATION

This research is dedicated to my wife, Constance and children Lucia, Musaemura Hilton Jr. and Mufarowashe.
ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

The researcher sincerely acknowledges the roles played by various persons during the research process.

The researcher acknowledges the professional yet friendly assistance provided by the research Promoter, Professor L J van Niekerk. The ideas sharing contact made with a colleague, Tom Meyes, had a significant contribution to the quality of the research. The UNISA Lady Librarian, who helped the researcher to get relevant literature, showed unwavering commitment to her role.

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The moral support from my immediate family, wife Constance and children Lucia, Musaemura Hilton (Jr) and Mufarowashe, had far reaching support on my concentration. Similar support came from my parents, Paul and Lucia Chikuya, brothers and sisters and my in-laws.

Lastly, my institution, the Zimbabwe Open University is highly acknowledged for sponsoring my studies.
ABSTRACT

The research was carried out to assess the value of the Bachelor of Education, Educational Administration, Planning and Policy Studies (B.ED-EAPPS) degree programme offered by the Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU) as a further teacher education programme for primary teachers in Zimbabwe offered through open and distance learning.

The research utilised the case study design and had relevant data collecting instruments which included questionnaires, write ups and interviews. Both random and non-random sampling methods were used to come up with samples used quantitatively and quantitatively.

The research was immensely useful as it provided an attempt to determine whether it was worth the while for primary school teachers to study for the BEDEAPPS degree programme and more so in view of the large numbers of non-degree primary school teachers either studying for it or on its waiting list. Nothing of the sort had been done since the inception of the BEDEAPPS degree programme in 1993.

The research produced findings that reflected that the BEDEAPPS degree programme had much to offer in the area of further teacher education of an in-service nature than had been envisaged by those who originated the programme. It was realised that while the programme’s emphasis was on management and supervision it was not devoid of the instructional expertise that is relevant to classroom practitioners. Moreover, there was a traceable link between college training experiences of the BEDEAPPS students and Teachers’ College graduates and the course content they had to work on. These findings made revelations on the diversity of further teacher education whose structure and content could be designed to respond to a specific further education need. Findings also revealed that open and distance learning was a suitable and effective means of delivering such a programme provided an enhancing technological back-up can be easily accessed.

The research had time related and operational limitations whose impact on the whole process were, however, repulsed by controls effected by the researcher. The diversity of data collecting instruments also played a positive role in ensuring checks and balances in the type and authenticity of data collected.

The research had, among its findings, a grounded research theory which was extrapolated from the data that was collected using the seven data collecting instruments mentioned earlier on. It was possible, after thorough scrutiny of data collected, to conclude that the BEDEAPPS degree programme was a performance enhancing qualification to those primary school teachers who were involved in classroom teaching since it made them effective instructors and managers both within their classroom confines and the larger school-wide operational environment.
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CHAPTER 1

RESEARCH PROBLEM

1.1 INTRODUCTION

The provision of open and distance education aimed at equipping practising primary school teachers in Zimbabwe is a phenomenon that had not been experienced before the establishment of the Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU). The coming on board of the ZOU which started as a centre for Distance Education (CDE) and later evolved into a University College of Distance Education initially offered a Bachelor of Educational Administration, Planning and Policy Studies degree (BEDEAPPS) to thousands of non-degreeed primary school teachers.

This then became the institution’s first attempt to provide a teacher education-related qualification through open and distance education. The interest the programme generated among many non-degreeed teachers, especially primary school teachers, was quite overwhelming. This overwhelming response by primary school teachers logically called for an investigation to determine professional gains they accrued by studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme. That became the basis of the investigation which was carried out in this research. This was a case study on the BEDEAPPS degree programme offered by the Zimbabwe Open University through the open and distance learning strategy with emphasis on its suitability as a further teacher education programme for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe. However, the official title of the research is Teacher Education within the context of Open and Distance Learning: A case study.

1.2 BACKGROUND OF THE PROBLEM

Before the establishment of the Centre for Distance Education (CDE), all non-degree teachers who wanted to obtain degrees had to compete for a few places that were offered by the University of Zimbabwe’s Faculty of Education. Those offered places had to apply for study leave since they had to use the conventional learning strategy that is
characteristic of most conventional universities. Two outstanding characteristics of this kind of further teacher education strategy were extremely limited numbers of students that could be absorbed annually and their inconveniencing removal from their places of work for the duration of their studies. This meant that Zimbabwe had to come up with a strategy that would increase numbers and retain persons at their work places for the convenience of the teachers and their pupils.

The then Vice Chancellor of the University of Zimbabwe, was requested by the Government of Zimbabwe to come up with a far reaching solution to the general shortage of places for university education. He set up what Matshazi referred to as the Vice Chancellor’s Working Party on University Extension (Matshazi, 1991) whose mandate was to recommend an alternative mode of study that would address the problem of shortage of places for those in need of university education. The Working Party observed that primary and secondary education had experienced astronomical expansion since independence in 1980. This had unfortunately not been complemented by similar expansion at the university level. Figures contained in two tables below show the comparative expansion of primary and secondary education between 1979 and 1986.

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The Vice Chancellor’s desire for a solution to the shortage of places at the University of Zimbabwe was further necessitated by the realisation that of the 7 000 “A” level graduates who had applied to enter the University of Zimbabwe in 1987, only 2 000 had
been placed. The figure 7 000 did not include diploma holders and others who qualified to enrol for University education.

The Vice Chancellor’s Working Party, buoyed by the findings of the 1985 Report of the Task Force on External Degree programmes in Kenya (Matshazi 1991), recommended the introduction of a distance learning university to alleviate the problem of place shortages at the university level. The Task Force had realised that distance education was a systematically organised and cost-effective educational approach which is utilisable at all levels of education. This appreciation of distance education conforms to the description of the same given by Rumble and Keegan (1982) which portrays distance education as having wider access opportunities for all in need while operational and infrastructural costs are very low.

The Working Party’s recommendation saw the establishment of the Centre of Distance Education (CDE) under the management of the University of Zimbabwe in 1993. As early as 1995 the Centre for Distance Education, in one of its circulars, revealed that since its inception in 1993, about (90%) ninety percent of its student population was made up of non-degree primary and secondary school teachers. Of the 90% non-degree primary and secondary school teachers, more than 80% were non-degree primary school teachers.

The student enrolment for 1993 was broken down as follows: of the seven hundred and forty (740) BEDEAPPS students offered places, seven hundred (700) were non-degree primary and secondary school teachers. Of these 700, 580 were primary school teachers. Statistics collected in 1999 revealed that of the 7 000 students who were studying for the BEDEAPPS degree, 5 700 were non-degree primary school teachers.

By the end of 2001, the Zimbabwe Open University ZOU had churned out five cohorts of graduates numbering over 4 000 over 90% of whom were primary school teachers. An even bigger group was expected to graduate at the end of the year 2002, the majority of whom would be primary school teachers in view of the enrolment trends being observed.
In view of the ever growing popularity of the BEDEAPPS degree programme among the Zimbabwean primary school teachers, it was high time that a study was carried out to determine the professional growth realised by the majority of the programme’s students who happened to be primary school teachers lest those primary school teachers had already or were going to waste time studying for a professionally non-value adding qualification.

1.3 THE STATEMENT OF THE PROBLEM

The Zimbabwe Open University, since its inception in 1993 as the UDE, had by the end of 2001 churned out four thousand (4 000) BEDEAPPS graduates. The majority of the programme’s graduates were primary school teachers and the programme continues to draw its students from this category of school teachers throughout Zimbabwe.

This state of affairs called for an investigation that would assess the professional gains being realised by the ever-growing number of non-degreed primary school teachers studying for this Bachelor of Education in Administration, Planning and Policy Studies degree. The investigation compared the professional aspects acquired at teachers’ training colleges both current and intended beneficiaries of the programme with those contained in this BEDAPPS degree programme in order to determine areas of relationship and continuity. This in turn would reflect the ultimate professional gains realised by those primary school teachers who went through the programme and those yet to complete it.

1.4 SUB-PROBLEMS

The investigation was guided by sub-problems of the main problem which are listed below and presented in the form of research questions:

- What are the intended learning outcomes of the BEDEAPPS degree programme?
• Is there a link between these outcomes and the initial pre-service experiences of the BEDEAPPS students who happen to be primary school teachers?

• Can the BEDEAPPS degree offered by the ZOU be described as a further teacher education programme for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe?

• Is open and distance learning an appropriate strategy for offering a programme like the BEDEAPPS degree programme?

• What improvements need to be made to make the BEDEAPPS degree programme more effective as a further teacher education programme for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe?

1.5 THE AIM OF THE STUDY

The aim of the study was to establish the link between college training experiences of primary school teachers and the course content of the BEDEAPPS degree programme offered by the ZOU in order to determine the level of professional gains realised by primary school teachers who study for this degree programme. The study would establish if it was worth the while for many primary school teachers studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme and those to enrol in future. Ultimately, the study would be able to do the following:

• Appraise the role of open and distance learning in the professional development of practising primary school teachers in Zimbabwe.

• Determine and discuss the important professional aspects of primary school teachers.

• Analyse the course content of the BED (EAPPS) degree programme and establish its link with the professional acquisitions of a primary school teacher.
• Recommend ways of further strengthening the BED (EAPPS) degree programme to enable it to provide requisite professional development to primary school teachers who study for the degree.

1.6 HYPOTHESIS

The study was carried out with the following background hypotheses:

• Open and Distance Education has an important role to play in the enhancement of professional qualifications of non-degreed primary school teachers in Zimbabwe.

• There is not much of a link between professional qualifications of non-degreed primary school teachers and the course content of the BED (EAPPS) degree programme offered by the Zimbabwe Open University.

• The Bachelor of Education in Administration, Planning and Policy Studies (BEDEAPPS) degree offered by the ZOU was formulated without much consultation with most of the stakeholders, thereby rendering it inadequate in its course content.

• Non-degreed primary school teachers in Zimbabwe enrol for the Bachelor of Education in Administration, Planning and Policy Studies degree programme for reasons other than the professional growth they are expected to acquire from engaging in such a study.

1.7 SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study focused its attention on graduates of the BED (EAPPS) degree programme offered by the Zimbabwe Open University, with special attention on such graduates churned out from the year 1997 to the year 2001, who numbered about 4 000 (four thousand). Such graduates were found in the geographical spread of Zimbabwe.
1.8 **ASSUMPTIONS**

The study proceeded on the assumptions that:

- The authorities at the Zimbabwe Open University would avail to the researcher all the important documents related to the course content of the BED (EAPPS) degree programme.

- The officials of the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture would enable the researcher to access confidential documents that relate to the evaluation of performance differentials of teachers before and after attaining the bachelor of Education in Administration, Planning and Policy Studies degree.

- The different interest groups the researcher would consult would be open and sincere with the information they would provide.

1.9 **ABBREVIATIONS AND DEFINITION OF TERMS**

1.9.1 **Abbreviations**

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<td>BEDEAPPS</td>
<td>Bachelor of Education in Educational Administration, Planning and Policy Studies</td>
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<td>ZOU</td>
<td>Zimbabwe Open University</td>
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<td>In-service Training.</td>
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1.9.2 Definition of Terms

The terms defined below were not defined fully and exhaustively. The definitions were only meant to be abridged versions of more detailed definitions provided in chapter 2 of this research report.

**Distance Education**
An education system which covers various forms of study at all levels which are not under continuous and immediate supervision of tutors present with their students in a lecture room or in the same premises (Holmberg, 1977: 17).

**Open Learning**
A philosophy which implies a conflation of shared beliefs about teaching and learning. Among these beliefs, are beliefs about opening up learning opportunities to a wider range of people and enabling them to learn freely and productively without inhibitions emanating from barriers to access (Rowntree, 1992:13).

**Distance learning**
The intended instructional outcome – learning that takes place at a distance (Willis, 1993: 3)

**Distance Teaching**
That process by which the teacher imparts knowledge to learners (Sachs, 2003: 71).

**Teacher Education**
The process of improving the effectiveness of prospective teachers as facilitators of learning (Mamabolo, 1996: 67).
**Pre-service Training**

Initial training that is delivered usually to unqualified teachers (Perraton, 2000: 58 with reference to Moon and Mayes 1995)

**In-service Training**

The whole range of activities which serving teachers and other categories of educationists may extend and develop their personal education, professional competence and general understanding of the role which they and the schools are expected to play in the changing societies (Hartshorne, 1985: 9).

1.10 **METHOD OF RESEARCH**

1.10.1 **Population, Sample and Sampling method**

The population studied was that of BEDEAPPS graduates of the Zimbabwe Open University who graduated from the year 1997 to the year 2001. The total number of these graduates was about four thousand (4 000). These graduates were scattered throughout Zimbabwe.

The researcher used a sample of 400 graduates who were ten percent of the total population. The researcher hoped that each one of the 400 graduates would have an equal chance of receiving a questionnaire that targeted BEDEAPPS graduates.

The researcher used both probability and non-probability sampling methods during the sampling stage of the study. The probability sampling, the random sampling method, was used to come up with the sample of 400 graduates who would respond to a questionnaire meant for BEDEAPPS graduates. The same random sampling method was used to come up with a sample of 40 BEDEAPPS students who would have completed at least a semester of their studies. This
group had a total population of between four hundred (400) and four hundred and fifty (450). Thus, the sample of (40) forty was ten percent (10%) of this population.

The researcher proceeded to use non-probability sampling method to come up with graduates to be interviewed and to come up with samples of the non-core groups who included lecturers, Heads of schools and Education Officers who interacted with these BEDEAPPS graduates.

1.11 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

The study was perceived to have limitations like shortage of time since the researcher was a full-time employee, difficult coordination of a dispersed population and the uneasiness that might arise from the presence of a tape recorder in front of interviewees since they might feel uncomfortable to have their voices recorded. However, everything possible was done to minimise the effect of these possible limitations on the quality and value of the study.

1.11.1 Research Design

The researcher employed the case study as a research method. The case study which Frazer (1973) Merriam (1988) and Stenhouse (1985) describe as a systematic and in-depth study of an issue chosen because it allowed the researcher to work with the target group in their natural context, thereby creating realistic chances of getting the truth out of them.

However, the researcher also employed the descriptive survey method to be able to reach the sample that was scattered throughout the country.
1.11.2 Data Collecting Instruments

The researcher used recorded structured interviews on a limited number of individuals. The breadth and depth of the research was also supported by the use of three sets of questionnaires. The three sets of questionnaires were for the groups listed below:

- BED (EAPPS) graduates.
- BED (EAPPS) students who had completed their first semester.
- Education officers.

The questionnaires were also supported by the use of write-ups, which were provided by:

- Heads of schools with BED (EAPPS) graduates.
- BED (EAPPS) graduates.
- Lecturers who taught BEDEAPPs students.

1.12 CONCLUSION

Chapter 1 provided, among others, information related to background of the problem statement of the problem, aim of the study, hypothesis of the study, its scope and information on the case study on the BEDEAPPs degree programme offered by the Zimbabwe Open University. Chapter 2 provides information collected from available literature on, among others, the whole concept of Open and Distance Learning, issues on Teacher Education, use of technology in Teacher Education provided through the Open and Distance Learning mode and other countries’ experiences on Teacher Education, especially that which is provided using the Open and Distance Learning strategy.
CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

2.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter 1 provided information on the topic of the study as well as relevant background details that give the study value and purposefulness. Chapter 2 provides very critical information on provision of teacher education within the context of open and distance learning that is contained in relevant written sources. Views on this topic are discussed under the following sub-headings:

- The concepts of Open and Distance Learning/Open Learning and Distance Teaching.
- Teacher Education and Teacher Education models.
- The role of the teacher.
- Critical Thought in the field of Open and Distance Learning.
- The role of open and distance learning in Teacher Education as it applies to:
  - Selected countries in and outside Europe:
    - Australia
    - Ireland
    - Britain
    - Republic of Germany
  - Asian counties:
    - Sri Lanka
    - Indonesia
    - Bangladesh
    - China
    - Japan
    - Hong Kong
    - India
Teacher Education in Zimbabwe.
Use of technology in teacher education.
Challenges for teacher education through open and distance learning.

The title of this study is worded as ‘Teacher Education within the context of Open and Distance Learning’. It is interesting to note that the Zimbabwe Open University views itself as an Open Learning and Distance Teaching institution as opposed to being merely an Open and Distance Learning institution. An analysis of the origin and significance of these terms will be made in the later stages of this study in order to unveil their similarities and differences.

Of interest at this juncture is the collective meaning derived form creating a single title from otherwise two clearly semantically different terms, OPEN and DISTANCE. A look at the situations when these two words were used to describe educational and learning environments reveals varying ways of usage. Keegan (1983) talks of Distance education, Distance learning and Distance teaching in his articles on the subject distance education. Daniel (1993: 62 – 64) talks of distance teaching systems and distance education and Barker (1993: 39-40) also makes reference to distance teaching and distance learning. Daniel (1988: 126-137) and Peters (1998: 70-98) write about open learning.
In view of points raised above, it is prudent that an analysis of distance education/teaching/learning and open learning be done to bring about an understanding on how these terms and names brought into being the currently popularly used term, Open and Distance Learning.

2.2 DISTANCE EDUCATION/TEACHING/LEARNING

It has been observed that Distance Education appears in various sources either as Distance Teaching or Distance Learning. Prosser (1970) describes it as Distance Teaching while Keegan (1980: 33) and Peers (1972: 1) regularly refer to it as Distance Education.

2.2.1 Distance Education (D.E.)

Waghid (2001: 132) holds that Distance Education, like any other concept, has a distinct meaning grounded in a historical framework. This implies that the historical context of Distance Education has to be probed first in order to bring about a clearer understanding of it as a concept.

Wilson (2002) refers to Wedemeyer who is considered to be the father of American distance education and who believes that institutionalised distance education has existed for 100 years. However, Wilson (2002) refers to Wedemeyer who says that it is only lately that its practice commenced to rely on theory. Thus, the fairly youthful age of theory should not give the impression that the whole framework of distance education is a recent development.

Perraton (2000: 1) argues that distance education began in 1963 while Daniel (1993: 62-64) postulates that it commenced in 1970. The debate on the exact date of the birth of distance education might be difficult to resolve but what is clear is that it is a fairly old practice. The origin of and environments surrounding the births of various sheds of distance education would, no doubt, have an influence on the conflicting ages of the practice.
Waghid (2001: 205) recognises Swift’s (1992) description of three generations of Distance Education as a plausible evolutionary genealogy of Distance Education as a delivery system. The three generations, as simplified by Waghid (2001: 205), are as follows:

(1) Correspondence teaching/single media characterised by little or no production of materials. Students were given a reading list and set of sample questions which correspondence tutors marked.

(2) Multi-media education characterised by the use of one-way communication (predominantly print, broadcasting and cassettes) with the two-way communication being provided by correspondence tutors, or face-to-face materials, and

(3) Tele-education and third generation distance education based on the use of electronic information technologies such as telecommunications, computer conferencing or networking and, audio and video conferencing (Swift, 1992: 2-3).

Waghid (2001: 205) observes that the evolutionary genealogy described above clearly shows a deliberate emphasis on a description that highlights delivery modes of distance education and not a description that tells the reader what substance Distance Education is made of. This observation tends to sum up what is contained in the three generations described.

It should be borne in mind that a description which does not highlight the technological advancement related to the development of distance education fails to reflect the technological consciousness of distance education providers which is what seems to make distance education both manageable and relevant to the changing times. However, it should also be recognised that a technologically conscious analysis of the development of distance education only does not
sufficiently describe distance education at any point in time. This realisation calls for various definitions that exhibit a deliberate desire to show that Distance Education has both technological and semantic characteristics.

Keegan (1980: 33-60) describes Distance Education as a generic term that incorporates a wide range of teaching and learning strategies referred to as correspondence education or correspondence study, at the further education level, and independent study at the higher education level. Keegan (ibid) further clarifies the correspondence aspect by describing it as a kind of teaching and learning conducted by a written two-way communication system that is conveyed through the post. Keegan (1988: 35-38) believes this kind of communication is apersonal as opposed to the interpersonal communication that ensues when people have a face-to-face kind of communication. This view is also supported by Peters (1998: 16-28) who strongly believes that communication through a non-face-to-face situation is out-rightly both apersonal and mechanical and suffers from a lack of face-to-face communication which is personal and humane.

Keegan (1980: 13-36) provides yet further insight into the essence of correspondence teaching and learning process by taking a closer look at the roles of the teacher and the learner. Keegan (ibid) describes the teachers’ responsibility in the correspondence set up as one that requires him or her to impart knowledge and skills to a student through the print media. He describes the role of the learner as one which involves carrying out studies in a place and at a time exclusively determined by the individual learner’s peculiar circumstances.

However, Keegan (1980: 33-60) admits that the original aspects of correspondence teaching and their combination with non-print media which include the radio, television, cassette, tutor-led groups and guidance and counselling services rendered to students tend to constitute the ever changing face of this animal called Distance Education or Distance Learning.
It is evident from Keegan’s (1980: 33-60) description of Distance Learning or Education that there is tutor and a learner who are separated by distance and who initiate communication by use of the print media and the postal system. It is also evident from Keegan’s (ibid) analysis of distance education that he initially viewed it parochially to be a replica to and synonymous with correspondence study but accepts its evolutionary characteristics as he later saw it utilising a whole range of media modes hitherto unknown to the distance education set up of a correspondence nature.

Holmberg (1977: 17), one of the leading founders of and authors of internationally recognised articles and books on distance education provides valuable insights into distance education. Holmberg (ibid) says the term ‘distance education’, as used in his survey, covers various forms of study at all levels, which are not under the continuous and immediate supervision of tutors present with their students in a lecture room or in the same premises. Holmberg (ibid) further makes it clear that the distance education process involves the physical separation of the tutors and learners thereby involving the use of various media, which include the print, the mechanical and the electronic media to initiate interaction between the tutors and the learners.

Holmberg (ibid) also describes distance education as guided didactic conversation. This description reduces learning to an enjoyable conversation, which only differs from the day-to-day conversation on the technicality of it being organised in a deliberate way.

Keegan (1988: 35) summarises his love and respect for distance education when he says: “Distance education is the flavour of the mouth”, and when he describes distance training, which is subsumed in distance education, as: “The harbinger of the new millennium”.
The Distance Education Clearing House of the University of Wisconsin (2001) refers to ideas of Moore (1996: 22-39) on distance education which describe distance education as teaching-learning relationships where the actors are geographically separated and communication between them is through technical media such as audio and video, personal computer correspondent texts and other multimedia systems. Jarvis (1993: 169) supports these observations by suggesting that distance education, by definition, symbolises the process of space and time distanciation.

Amundsen (1993: 61 – 77) refers to Moore (1972: 73, 83, 90) who also says this separation creates an atmosphere of independent learning and teaching whose two dimensions are transactional distance and learner autonomy. Moore (1991: 2-3) goes further to say it is the extent of this transactional distance which will determine the need for unconventional thinking and practice.

This transactional distance, according to Moore (1991: 2-3), makes it necessary to include dialogue between students and between teacher and students in order to help tame the otherwise non-helpful and hostile and unfriendly distance. The same distance according to Holmberg (1983: 66) creates non-contiguous, kind of communication between the learner and the teacher because it usually creates both geographical and time related separation between the student and the tutor. That is the more reason that dialogue, whether synchronous or asynchronous, contiguous or non-contiguous should be encouraged and should be engaged in at any cost.

Pailman (1986: 87-94) says distance education is a term that denotes a learner getting education while remaining at a distance from the teacher or teaching institution.

Bagwandeen et. al (1993: 24 – 37) see distance education as a form of study not led by teachers present in classrooms but supported by tutors belonging to an
organisation, which is a distance from the student. Bagwandeep et. al (ibid) make it clear that such study is very different from correspondence education because it uses a variety of media to reach the student while correspondence education only uses the print media.

Bagwandeep et. al (1993: 37) also refer to Wolfson’s (1987: 54) definition of distance education, which describes it as:

…… a mode of teaching and learning which for the most part, allows the student to choose the time, place and circumstances of learning. It requires the design, production and delivery of self-instructional materials and the provision for student access to educational resources designed to support independent study.

Wolfson’s (1997) definition quoted by Bagwandeep et. al (ibid) makes distance education both a teaching and a learning process, implying that there is an assumption that there are two active parties, the student and the institution, which is usually represented by tutors. The definition also highlights the importance of the right of choice, which distance education bestows on the learner. A closer look at definitions of Open Learning, Distance Learning and Distance Teaching reveals that the content in their definitions is summed up by Hartshorne’s definition of distance education. This brings about the assumption that Hartshorne (ibid) see distance education from both the institutional and student perspectives.

This definition provides more flesh and content than contained in Willis’ (1993: 3-13) definition of distance education, which describes distance education as: “…the organisational framework and process of providing education at a distance”. 
In the definition above, Willis (1993: 3-13) tends to highlight more the organisational role of a providing institution while there seems to be nothing that makes the learner an active participant in the learning process.

Distance Education Clearing House at the University of Wisconsin (2001) describes distance education as an educational delivery system that does not constrain the students to be physically present in the same location as the instructor. The Distance Education Clearing House at the University of Wisconsin (2001) also makes reference to Glem Hoyle’s understanding of distance education, which portrays distance education as a generic term used to cover the broad range of teaching and learning events in which the student is separated from the instructor or other learners.

Amundsen (1993: 61-77) refers to Peters’(1989) description of distance education as industrialised form of education. This definition implies that Peters is aware of the organised nature of distance education, which enables it to operate like a manufacturing industry. It also implies that he is aware of the impact of technology into its operations, which makes its production process fast, efficient and voluminous.

The definitions of distance education provided above reflect significant characteristics of distance education that put into prominence its difference with conventional or classroom/lecture room based education.

The aspects of distance, separatedness and use of media and technology for communication purposes permeate most, if not, all the definitions provided above.

2.2.2 Open Learning (OL)

Rowntree (1992: 8-14) describes Open Learning as a philosophy, which implies a conflation of shared beliefs about teaching and learning. Among these beliefs are those (beliefs) about opening up learning opportunities to a wider range of people
and enabling them to learn freely and productively without inhibitions emanating from barriers to access. Such openness gives learners more control over their learning processes (Rowntree, 1992: 8-14). This assists colleges and institutions to raise their levels of student retention.

Rowntree’s (1992: 8-14) view described above is supported by Jack (1988) referred to in Rowntrees (1992: 8–14) who says openness has philosophical interpretations enshrined in its meaning. Rowntree (1992: 8-14) also describes open learning as a set of techniques for teaching and learning. As a method or technique of learning, open learning includes study materials and a variety of media usable in the teaching and learning processes.

Rowntree (1992: 14), in his definition of open learning as a methodological tool, refers to Caffey’s (1997) definition, which says:

An Open learning system is one in which the restriction placed on students are under constant review and removed whenever possible. It incorporates the widest range of teaching strategies; in particular those using independent and individualised learning.

Rowntree (1992: 28) also refers to Lewis and Spencer (1986) who say:

Open learning is a term used to describe courses flexibly designed to meet individual requirements. It is often applied to provision which tries to remove barriers that prevent attendance at more traditional courses, but it also suggests a learner-centred philosophy.

Rowntree (1992: 28) also refers to Dixon (1987) who describes open learning as:

A wide range of learning opportunities that both aim to assist learners in gaining access to knowledge and skills they would otherwise be denied and to give learners the optimum degree of control over their own learning.

Keegan (1990: 23) cites Escotet (1980: 144) who gives a wide covering definition of open learning, which says:
Open Education is particularly characterised by the removal of restrictions, exclusions and privileges: by the accreditation of students’ previous or prior learning experience: by the flexibility of the management of the time variables and by substantial changes in the traditional relationship between professors and students.

South African Institute of Distance Education (SAIDE) annual report of 1993:1 describes open learning as follows:

We see open learning as an approach in education which seeks to transform the nature of educational opportunity and to remove all unnecessary barriers to learning so that as many people as possible are able to take advantage of meaningful learning opportunities throughout their lives. Education should, therefore, cause to be something that only occurs within walls by a school conducted by the talking teacher and aimed primarily at young people. The focus should move instead to the learner and the outcomes of learning. Learning should take place in a number of contexts in a multiplicity of sites, through a variety of mechanisms and for people of all ages.

It appears clear that different authors view open learning in varying and various dimensions. However, there are shared opinions, which include accommodativeness, removal of barriers and the prominence of the learner in the whole open learning process. It is also interesting that Rowntree (1992: 8 - 14) particularly makes it clear that open learning has both philosophical and methodological dimensions. These dimensions of open learning are likely to generate debate in future as new observations and interpretations come into play.

Peters (1998: 16-28) argues that the terms Open Learning and Distance Education or Learning are used interchangeably in an erroneous way. Peters (ibid) argues that way because he considers the two terms to be different. His argument is also based on the fact that he asserts that, on one hand, openness implies that nobody is excluded and that entry and exit barriers are non-existent. On the other hand, the distance aspect implies that there is separation of the learner from the tutor.

Daniel (1998: 126-137) argues that the term open learning stands for the general aim of opening up education and training more widely. He however concludes
that openness has many dimensions and that many institutions that describe themselves as being so, concentrate on just a few of them. For example, the U.K. Open University emphasises the openness that widens students’ chances of enrolment while New York Empire State College emphasises the openness that allows students to design their own educational programmes.

The idea of removal of restrictions is also debated at length by Bagwandeen (1999: 99) with reference to Escotet’s (1980) ideas. Bagwandeen (ibid), with reference to Escolet’s (ibid) arguments, argues that open education is particularly characterised by the removal of restrictions, exclusions and privileges by accrediting students’ prior learning and by the flexible manner in which students are left to manage their time. For this reason, Bagwandeen (1999: 99) with reference to Keegan (1990) and Holmberg (1989) argues that the concept open is now an integral part of titles of various Distance Education institutions in many parts of the world which include Pakistan, India, Sri Lanark, Thailand, Venezuela, Israel, and Indonesia.

Bagwandeen (1999: 100), with reference to Peters (1994), could also be right when he suggests that the term open learning was introduced to designate the Distance Education’s emphasis on the openness of the teaching and learning process as opposed to the rather closed learning process in conventional institutions.

Bagwandeen (1999: 98) also argues that the change from Distance Education to Open Learning was recognised in 1986 when the Journal ‘Teach at a Distance’ changed its name to ‘Open Learning’. This, according to Bagwandeen (1999: 98) with reference to Scruven (1991), makes it possible for the term open learning or open education to be used interchangeably with the term Distance Education.

Bagwandeen (1999: 98) raises yet another interesting debate on open learning when he says Keegan (1990: 30-37) argues that the decision of the United
Kingdom government in the mid 1960 to use the nomenclature Open University instead of the University of the Air tended to popularise the concept open learning and its stance had a far reaching effect on the use of this term by other countries involved in Distance Education at that time and during later periods.

With reference to the discussion on the meaning and essence of the term open learning, Preez (1998: 78-94), referring to Tait (1994) and Rumble (1989), argues that the term has been misused and thus has become a minefield. This simply means that there is no consensus on the actual meaning of the openness of learning or education because of biased, subjective, circumstantial and opinionated overtones characterising the interpretations of this openness.

Paul (1993: 115) in exclusive agreement with Preez’s (1998: 78-94) argument acknowledges the fact that open learning is an exclusive term meaning many different things to different people. He also argues that in practice, no educational institution is completely open. Paul (1993: 115) supports his assertion by saying, “…..for an institution on the absolute open end on all dimensions of a closed – open continuum, would not be an institution at all”. However, Paul (1993) gives credit to the openness of open learning as the most outstanding manifestations of efforts to democratise education in recent times.

Paul (1993: 116) concedes that the complexity of openness is reflected in its various dimensions that currently exist. There is openness that affects accessibility of open learning, the openness that manifests itself in flexibility, the openness that allows the learner to have an input in what he learns and how he learns it and the openness that allows the student to choose the information delivery system among the many that are available. This diversity of openness clearly shows the various meanings contained in openness which make it difficult for any institution to realise absolute openness in its operations. No wonder why Paul (1993: 115) admits that achieving absolute openness makes an institution a non-institution.
2.2.3 Open Access (OA)
Lundin (1993: 379-380) discusses open access, which is at times wrongly interpreted to mean open learning. Lundin (ibid) describes open access as a kind of half-way house to open learning since open access only refers to the openness of the enrolment process and not the flexibility of the actual learning process, which is known as open learning.

If this were to happen, having unlimited openness, Paul (ibid) says this would result in deschooling which he says is advocated for by Iuich (1971) yet it achieves nothing but chaos and disorder in an open and distance learning set up.

2.2.4 Distance Learning (DL)
Connick (1999: 3-6) describes Distance Learning (DL) as that learning that occurs when one engages in Distance Education (DE). This implies that when a student becomes a distance learner, they become a learner and the learning process they are subjected to is distance learning.

Barron et.al (2002: 3-6) say distance learning is an instructional process students separated by distance and or time from their teachers or tutors undergo. Such learning, according to Barron et.al. (ibid), could be synchronous (occurring at the same time with the teaching process) or asynchronous (occurring at different times with the teaching process).

Willis (1993: 3-13) gives a very simple and clear description of distance learning. Willis (ibid) describes distance learning as the intended outcome of a distance education instructional process. He further explains distance learning as the learning that takes place at a distance.

Keegan (1990: 30-37) gives an explanation of distance learning that helps to differentiate it from open learning. Keegan (ibid) says distance learning is not
necessarily open. However, the policy to open access to learning succeeds with an educational method that involves some element of distance learning. This, to some extend, provides differences between distance learning and open learning, expressions which are at times wrongly used in a synonymous way.

### 2.2.5 Distance Teaching (DT)

Sachs (2003: 71) describes distance teaching as that process by which the teacher imparts knowledge to learners. She further defines the teaching process as a practical exercise that emanates from education which itself is a product of politics, hence, the conclusion that distance teaching is practical while distance education is political.

Hodgson et.al (1987: 162-163) say distance teaching is that instruction given by the learning materials that a distance education institution provides to the learner. This makes distance teaching a direct product of the efforts of the distance education providing institution toward the students’ learning process.

The Commonwealth of Learning Handbook (1999:1-6) simply sees distance teaching as that component which is half of open and distance learning. The Handbook argues this way because there is the assumption that open and distance learning encompasses both teaching and learning. However, the Handbook (1999: 1-6) does not apportion the teaching process to either the student or the teacher.

### 2.2.6 Open and Distance Learning (ODL)

The term Open and Distance Learning reflects a merger of two different systems, Open and Distance systems. This observation is supported by the fact that there is the word *and* between Open and Distance as opposed to a term that would have read as ‘Open Distance Learning without the word, and.
Moreover, the fact that earlier on, definitions of Open Learning, Distance Education and Distance Teaching have been separately provided implies that Openness and Distanciation are two different systems that can only be defined in terms of their individual characteristics.

In view of the individual definitions of terms provided, it is thus clear that Open and Distance Learning is about two processes, which are removal of barriers and separation of learners from their tutors and the education providing institutions. However, there is further debate on the term Open and Distance Learning as reflected by discussions that follow.

Keegan (1988: 35-38) raises doubts about the authenticity of the term now popularly used, ‘Open and Distance Learning (ODL)’. Keegan (ibid) considers the term Open and Distance Learning to be a distortion of a term used by a well-known Dutch distance educator, de Vocht. Keegan (1988: 35-38) argues that Vocht used the Dutch term Open Afslanderwefs, which means distance education programme for which normal entry requirements would have been waived. The term, according to Keegan (1988: 35-38) was later translated into English as ‘Open distance learning’, which possibly means ‘non-closed distance learning’.

Keegan (1988: 35-38) considers this translation to be a mistake and should thus be abandoned.

However, it appears the route towards abandoning the use of the term open distance learning has been ignored and, instead a modification of the term has become the dominant feature. Writers on Distance Education who include Keegan, Peters and Perraton now talk of Open and Distance Learning, which is also abbreviated as O.D.L.

Keegan (1980: 33-60) gives yet another dimension of Open and Distance learning which complicates the actual meaning of this term, Open and Distance learning.
Keegan (ibid) gives the following terms used by some of the pioneering countries in distance learning to describe this animal called open and distance learning.

- Australia initially called this distance teaching.
- The United Kingdom initially called it teaching at a distance.
- The French initially called it teleseignement.
- The Germany initially called it Fernstudium/Fernunterich.
- The Spanish initially called it education at a distance.
- The Portuguese initially called it teleducacao.

These various terms that different countries used help to illuminate the dichotomy that still characterises the use of and interpretation derived from the term Open and Distance Learning. More light will probably be shed when the critical thought component is discussed as it will endeavour to put to light circumstances in which open and distance learning was introduced in different countries.

It is, however, consoling to realise that The Distance Education Clearing House at the University of Wisconsin Extension (2001) acknowledges the continued existence of the dichotomy in the real meaning of open and distance learning by adopting a definition that openly alludes to this recognition. It says the term distance education, that subsumes all generic forms of this approach, represents a variety of educational models that have in common physical separation of the faculty members and some or all of the students. So be it Open and Distance Teaching or Learning or Open and Distance Teaching, Open and Distance learning, the focal point of separation between tutor and student is applicable. The other individual characteristics only reflect the areas of emphasis of each of these offshoots of the collective term, Distance Education.

However, the use of the term open and distance learning as well as its longer version, open learning and distance teaching should be done with the full knowledge of what Daniel (1988: 126-137) describes as a conceptual fuzziness that this open and distance learning which has a number of origins has. This
fuzziness creates a serious problem of semantics related to the use of the term open and distance learning.

Daniel (1998: 126-137) says such problems arise because whenever any domain of human endeavour suddenly becomes fashionable, it becomes difficult to sustain a clear and consistent framework for discourse about it. Diversity of interpretation becomes unavoidable. Daniel (1998: 126-137) admits that the very conflation of open learning and distance education into a single term also created confusion about the goals being targeted. This confusion has generated a variety of institutions that equally have various approaches to open learning and distance education, and to open and distance learning.

The aims include desire to widen access, desire to control cost, desire to maintain quality, desire to be flexible in the way education is provided and desire to uphold innovativeness in the technology and techniques of delivering education. Some open and distance learning institutions will include all the aims while others might only choose those that suit their circumstances.

Peters (1993: 10-18) clearly shares the sentiments expressed above when he says that due to the unusual origins of distance education, the peculiarity of its methods and its rapid unprecedented growth during the last twenty years, the mention of its basic character and true nature has been dealt with several times. The only missing information is that this has been done without arriving at a consensus.

Peters (1993: 10-18) argues that complications were worsened by the various designations of this phenomenon generally known as distance education, which, however, is changing rapidly and is now known as open and distance learning/open learning and distance teaching. Peters (ibid) lists the following designations and the implications for the teaching process ultimately employed.

- Femuntericht – instruction at a distance (German term)
- Fernstudium – learning at a distance in higher education, which in turn implies studying at a university without attending classes.
- Correspondence study – use of a letter or a post card for communication.
- Home study – teaching and learning that takes place at home.
- Open learning – emphasis is on openness of distance learning as opposed to the closeness of traditional learning.
- ‘Angeleitetes selbststudium’ (guided self-learning – highlights that distance education and learning is not the same as learning at a university.
- Zaochug – Russian word for distance in the process called the distance teaching.

Peters (1993: 10-18) also raises an interesting observation on the coining of the term open and distance learning. Peters (ibid) argues that there is a developmental relationship between the words open and distance which makes it appropriate to use them in a coined term, Open and distance learning.

Peters (1993: 10-18), argues that openness is a dimension that developed from a distance education or learning environment with the aim of creating wider learning opportunities for distance learners. Peters (ibid) further argues that the term open cannot function or stand alone independent of a distance education or distance learning framework.

However, the arrangement of words in the term open and distance learning could raise debate on the logic or ordering it that way yet openness cannot survive without being incorporated within the distance education framework. The argument could be, should it be open and distance learning or distance and open learning.

If the primary characteristic of this kind of learning is distance, then openness should be made to conveniently play its subsidiary role of enhancing chances afforded by the distance framework. The current term makes it appear as if
distance supports openness and yet according to arguments put across in earlier stages of this discourse, openness affords wider chances to distance learners.

A closer analysis of the term ‘open’ could generate further debate on the real importance of openness in a distance-learning environment. It could be argued that while distance is both a teaching and learning strategy, openness is not. Openness is more of an enrolment strategy than a teaching or learning strategy.

Openness is easily comparable to accredited prior learning (APL) which is another enrolment strategy whose emphasis is opening up most of the entry levels of many study programmes to persons who would, under normal conditions, not be eligible for enrolment at those entry points.

This means that the term open and distance learning is not a faultless conflation and, thus, requires further scrutiny to make it more akin to the kind of learning and teaching strategy it is intended and meant to describe.

In order to have a full appreciation of Open and Distance Learning, there is need to go back to the earlier definitions of terms like Open Learning, Distance Education and Distance Learning. Such an exercise will shed light on what is involved in Open and Distance Learning.

### 2.2.7 Characteristics of Open and Distance Learning

Characteristics of Open and Distance Learning are an important component of this chapter because they enable the reader to identify open and distance learning even if it is presented in various sheds and for different purposes. These characteristics also enhance the readers’ understanding and recognition of this learning and teaching strategy.
Keegan (1980: 33-60), and Holmberg (1977: 17) all allude to the presence of a tutor and a learner in an open and distance learning. This means that open and distance learning situations are not do-it-alone learning situations but are programmes that have a tutor providing guidance to groups of students and to individual students in various locations. This differentiates it from traditional correspondence learning which does not necessarily require the presence of a tutor in the learning process.

Keegan (1980: 33-60), Holmberg (1977: 17), and Rowntree (1992: 8-14) all highlight the fact that open and distance learning is characterised by the geographical separation of the learner and tutor. This appears to be the most outstanding mark of open and distance learning that provides a clear distinction between it and conventional learning and teaching strategies as well as any other strategies.

Keegan (1980: 33-60), Holmberg (1977: 17), Peters (1998: 70-98 & 187) and Bagwandeen (1999: 98-100) all recognise the use of various media by open and distance institutions as a means of communication between them and their students. They use the print media, cassettes, radios, televisions and of late, line teleconferences, to initiate communication between tutors and students at various locations. This kind of communication is normally apersonal as opposed to the face-to-face that is interpersonal. Computer based learning and teaching, which is fast becoming an in thing in open and distance learning, cannot be overlooked as well.

Peters (1998: 16-28) and Keegan (1988: 35-38) and the Clearing House of the University of Wisconsin (2001) refer to the open nature of open and distance learning institutions, which removes restrictive entry and exit barriers of clients or learners. Preez (1998: 11-37) alludes to the relative nature of openness, which characterises open and distance learning institutions. This means that some institutions are more open than others in terms of entry and exist barriers, nature
and timing of examinations and the nature as well as number of assignments to be submitted by learners.

This openness makes open and distance learning both convenient and flexible, features which suit a learner who has various obligations and competing interests that they have to accommodate as they pursue their learning programmes.

These characteristics make open and distance learning fairly easy to identify. However, the relative nature of openness, the various levels of separatedness and the use of various technologies might make it difficult to identify some of the sheds of open and distance learning strategies. However, a closer look at some of the generic characteristics described above would enable one to realise that one is dealing with an open and distance learning venture.

### 2.2.8 Open and Distance Learning Models

Open and distance learning is not carried out haphazardly but falls within structures of a given operational mode. The models, though generally applicable to most educational programmes, can also be aligned to open and distance learning depending on the situations and circumstances intended to be addressed by this strategy.

Marshall (2000: 3-8) admits that educational models tend to reflect the social, political, economic and philosophical values of a given period and related events. His view implies that models are a product of existing circumstances and are, thus, formulated and implemented in order to address existing situations.

Marshall’s (2000: 3-8) opinion seems to correctly explain the essence of some of the distance education models he refers to. Marshall (ibid) talks of two main distance education models, which are the Factory model and the Community model.
2.2.8.1 The Factory Model

Marshall (2000: 3-8) says this kind of model is a product of behaviourists. Its implementation was based on the school systems desire to churn out as many learners as possible in as short a period as possible and as quickly as possible. This reflects the desire of distance learning to expand access and be able to produce as many learners as is possible in a given period.

Marshall (ibid) says the latest dimension of the factory method is reflected in the use of computers by distance learners. He sees them (distance learners) as knowledge workers all labouring in their large numbers to acquire skills that can easily be tested by use of a multiple choice testing method. This enables examiners to quickly mark large volumes of scripts using these computers and related machines.

The essence of the factory model of education in general, and the open and distance learning model in particular, is its ability to churn out large numbers of students in a short space of time. This is done in an orderly way, which resembles accurate and the strict order of events in a factory situation.

2.2.8.2 The Community Model

Marshall (2000: 3-8) says the community model requires students to work in teams in a manner that resembles a community. Each person would be expected to perform a specific role, which they would assume in the world of work.

The groupings made for tutorial purposes, in a way, resemble a community and each person makes necessary contributions as required by a given group assignment.
Marshall (ibid) also says the Internet resembles a worldwide community. People share ideas, communicate and make use of a commonly shared facility.

The two models described above have a very thin line dividing them. They are both mass oriented and emphasise expansion of access. They might only differ on the level of organisation with the factory method appearing more organised than the community model.

2.3 TEACHER EDUCATION

It is important to preface this section by providing a brief history of the development of teacher education in one of the developed countries. The development of teacher education in England as described by Aldrich (1990: 14-20), was evolutionary as it started as a family trade with students undergoing apprenticeship before elementary training colleges were established for the purpose of training teachers in mere monitoring of children’s learning situations. In 1860, residential training colleges, which provided what Aldrich (1990: 14-20) describes as a broader type of training, were established.

Available information on the development of teacher education in other countries is rather sketchy. Hawley (1990) says teacher education in the Republic of China started as a foreign idea before it became integrated into the education system of the whole country. Hawley (ibid) also says the United States affected or influenced the development of teacher education in Japan. These statements by Hawley (ibid) give the impression that there was sharing of ideas on education in general and teacher education in particular which later occurred, which could have affected the ways various countries approached their teacher training programmes.
While events leading to the establishment of training colleges and programmes in various countries could have been different, it is pleasing to note that Diamond (1991: 8-47) sees close similarities in approaches to teacher training in these different countries.

However, Smyth (1987: vii) refers to Taylor (1987) who brings in a dimension to the training of teachers, which has relevance to the different definitions of teacher education, which will be discussed in the later stages of this section. Taylor (ibid) as quoted by Smith (1987: vii) says:

The education of teachers has always been problematic, a matter of contention and controversy of competing and conflicting models and paradigms.

This analysis of teacher education gives the impression that its evolutionary development was circumstantial and situational. The section on Critical Thought in Education will attempt to highlight the effect of varying situations and circumstances on various dimensions of teacher education. Meanwhile, issues related to definition of teacher education, role of a teacher and involvement of open and distance learning in teacher education will be discussed in detail.

### 2.3.1 What is teacher education

Committee on Teacher Education Policy (COTEP) (1996: 6-52) of South Africa provides a broad and wide, yet, an attribute specific definition of teacher education. COTEP (ibid) says the fundamental aim of teacher education is to educate and train teachers to teach effectively in order to facilitate learning. It does so by imparting to the prospective teacher the following attributes:

- the ability to interpret and develop curricula.
- the ability to use language for effective learning and thinking, for developing proficiency in interpersonal relationships and for critical reflection.
- thinking skills in the curriculum both domain specific and generic.
the ability to be self-reflective and aware of one’s own learning strategies, thinking processes and teaching styles and to be able to articulate them to assist students in their learning.

the ability to facilitate the learner centred classroom practice and collaborative learning.

the ability to effectively and innovatively organise and manage the classroom.

being able to provide a resource based approach to teaching and learning.

proficiency in interpersonal relationships.

the ability to deal with human rights issues including gender issues.

the ability to engage with parents.

the ability to engage in evolution procedures and assessment techniques.

the ability to adapt to people and circumstance.

This definition of Teacher Education reflects a wholesome collection of attributes which cover aspects of classroom management and community integration into the school system. Such a wide range of capabilities is a clear reflection of the diverse roles of teachers which will be dealt with in the later stages of this document.

Mamabalo (1996: 67-70) believes the aim of teacher education is to understand and find meanings in the phenomenon of education. He also believes that teacher education is about improving the effectiveness of prospective teachers as facilitators of children’s learning. Mamabalo’s (ibid) understanding of teacher education reveals that teacher education is about giving meanings to the phenomenon called education and being about facilitation of the child’s process of interacting with this education.

Aldrich (1990: 14-20) sees a wider dimension of the meaning of teacher education. Aldrich (ibid) argues that the term teacher education may be taken to subsume or incorporate concepts of graduation and training for teaching besides
the many other processes and concepts involved which he unfortunately does not mention.

Stenlev (1993: 36) says that, according to the 1991 Act of Parliament on Teacher Education in Denmark, teacher education was aimed at educating teachers for the folk school and in addition, to provide a basis for any other teaching that would be carried out after the folk school.

The common element in all these definitions is the production or creation of a being who facilitates learning and sees children through a learning process. It will, however, be vital, to get to know the duties or roles of a teacher to be able to relate the aim of teacher education to the actual training the teacher undergoes as he is prepared for the world of teaching.

### 2.3.2 The Role of the Teacher

The competences that are attained after undergoing a teacher education programme should enable a teacher to discharge a specific collection of duties that end up marking parameters of his operations. Such roles or duties could be divided into professional and extra curricular roles. The professional ones relate to the core business or teaching while the extra curricular ones relate to the social roles of a teacher in relation to the child he teaches and the community within which he works.

Chivore (1992: 13-14) provides four guidelines to a teacher’s roles, which, if taken full cognisance of, give the teacher clear guidelines on his roles and how to perform them. Chivore (ibid) lists the following guidelines:

- What the teacher views his/her duties to be.
- What parents expect their children to get from the teacher.
- What pupils expect to get from their teacher.
What the general society expects to get from a teacher at their local school.

The four guidelines provided summarise the essence of the core and non-core or extra curricular duties and roles of a teacher, which will be discussed in detail in the section that follows.

Chivore (1992: 13-14) describes a teacher as a person who instructs others. In a similar way, Parkay and Hardecastle (1990: 8-89) describe a teacher as a person who mentors others so that they can feel provoked intellectually while Deiro (1996: 7-15) describes a teacher as a guide and facilitator of the learning process. Cropley and Dave (1978: 29-37) argue that a teacher can only perform such roles if he or she remains an authoritative source of knowledge, which is only attainable by continuously engaging in what Day (1999: 1-28) and Cropley and Dave (1978: 29-37) describe as continuing education. This continuing education, according to Cropley and Dave (1978: 29-37), in turn makes a teacher a co-learner with the pupils he or she teaches. This makes the teaching process a both challenging and worthwhile enterprise.

Cropley and Dave (1978: 29-37) argue that the mentoring role of the teacher becomes achievable and meaningful if the teacher plans his work carefully and thoroughly and uses appropriate teaching techniques he or she would have mastered while undergoing training.

Cropley and Dave (ibid) and Jalongo (1991: 6-22) also indicate that the teacher’s role in mentoring is closely related to his ability to stimulate learning by organising authentic classroom learning experiences that do not only permit learning to take place but that will encourage it to take place enjoyably and effectively. This means that the teacher has the duty to keep his pupils motivated and interested learners.
Parkay and Hardcastle (1990: 8-89) and Hoyle (1975) concur on the fact that the teacher should necessarily play the role of an evaluator and judge the learning process his pupils will be involved in. Objective and informed evaluation and judgment of children’s work and learning enrolment are products of a teacher who engages in continuing education. This enables a teacher to remain an authentic and an authoritative source of knowledge.

Connell (1995: 13-25), Parkay and Hardcastle (1990: 8-89) and Sapackman (1991: 29-52) point out that a teacher should exercise discipline among his pupils in and out of the classroom. Connell (ibid) believes this role is effectively played by a teacher who himself remains a good role model in both social and academic situations.

Deiro (1996: 7-15) and Sapackman (1991: 25-52) argue that it is also vital for a teacher to be able to discover and address pupils’ needs. An effort should be made to know the needs of learners and to know whether pupils are ready to learn, abused at home or are emotionally unstable. This knowledge will, in turn, challenge the teacher to take corrective measures where possible or raise the awareness of parents to their children’s problems that militate against constructive and successful learning. The ability to discover these seemingly hidden attributes of individual pupils emanates from the teacher’s ability to establish an understanding between the school and home (Deiro, 1996: 7-15).

Sapackman (1991: 29-52) also highlights the importance of establishing a close relationship between the school and the home by pointing out that he strongly believes this understanding will enable the child to see a relationship between events that occur at home in an as far as they affect the whole learning situation. The child will feel reassured especially if the teacher makes an effort to visit their home and makes reports and requests that eventually benefit their learning processes and environment.
MacDonald (1994: 14) calls this understanding between the school and the home nurturing and parenting the child so that the school and the home become a continuum with both teachers and parents sharing the responsibility of the child’s learning. Such an approach to the teaching process enables teachers to participate actively and effectively in school activities that would obviously impact on the image and culture of both the school and the community. This can help the teacher to be readily accepted by the community and could also be called upon to participate in community projects and activities to the benefit of the pupils he or she teaches.

Cohn and Kottkamp (1993: 36 & 208), Jalongo (1991: 6-22) and Connell (1995: 13-25) describe a teacher as an agent or vehicle of change. The way teachers teach and what they teach affects the production and reproduction of the community and society in which they operate. If the teacher is closely attached to the society, as it changes, the teacher transmits the same change to the school, the learning environment and the teaching processes. For example, as the society becomes computer driven the teacher enables this culture to permeate the school’s activities so that the school adopts a developmental thrust that has the same orientation.

Cohn and Kottkamp (1993: 36 & 208) also believe that a properly oriented teacher should be able to read and interpret change as well as construct it within the operational parameters that might be designed by society or the political hierarchy.

These roles are meant to be articulated to the teachers during their training programme and experientially as they encounter realities of being teachers in the true practical sense of the process. It will be interesting, though, to find out how many of these roles are imparted to the BEDEAPPs in-service students or graduates of the Zimbabwe Open University. The curriculum will be dissected to find out its contact with these roles. More information will, however, be
discerned when the critical Thought or Theory in education is discussed as this
critical thought or theory will shed light on the kind of training teachers get, what
they are called upon to teach and how they are expected to teach it and when they
should teach it.

2.3.3 Approaches to Teacher education (Pre-Service and In-service Teacher
Education)

Obanya (1999), acknowledge the existence of and refer to the pre-service and in-
service approaches to Teacher Education. Their analysis of these approaches
reveals that pre-service is meant for teaching candidates who are getting in
contact with the teaching profession for the first time and are usually fresh from
high schools.

Anything more on in-service training Perraton (2000: 58-63) refers to Moon and
Mayes (1995) who in particular describe it (pre-service) as a training programme
for school leavers and untrained as well as unqualified teachers to enable them to
attain the relevant professional expertise that is required by the teaching
profession.

Aldrich (1990: 14-27) further describes pre-service teacher education as the initial
teacher education that exposes a teaching cadet to processes of teaching,
educational theory, teaching practice and subject studies, where specialisation is
required.

103-109), say that pre-service teacher education is mostly residential as it requires
students to engage in fulltime training that exposes them to theories of education
and the practical application of teaching methods.

Diamond (1991: 46) provides a more fleshy description of in-service. Diamond (ibid) says the following about in-service teacher education:

In-service teacher education itself maybe described very pragmatically and typically as an activity, usually deliberate and formalised whereby teachers marking beyond pre-service years may upgrade their professional understanding, skills and attitudes to broaden their perspectives.

This makes in-service teacher education a gap filling exercise that is also capable of exposing serving teachers to new knowledge dimensions in their trade for purposes of widening their professional horizons and awareness and for the purpose of improving their efficiency in performance of their various duties and roles. The issue of in-service training being a tool for improving performance is underscored by Peters (1988: 31) who says;

In-service education should make teachers more adequate in the classroom curriculum development, pupil guidance, school organisation and management.

Further endorsement of the requirement for in-service to add to levels of efficiency also comes from Friedman et al (1980) who say:

In-service programmes should provide for removing deficiencies in present functioning, upgrading existing skills and acquiring new professional competencies.

However, Peters (1988: 31) sets a strict condition for realising efficiency improvement. Peters (ibid) says a coherent vision between teacher training and in-service education is necessary if in-service training is to achieve the intended
objectives. Peters’ (1988: 31) suggestion is also supported by Louw (1998: 58-67) who says in-service programmes should be based on training programmes offered at pre-service institutions in order to do away with the problem of logistical incongruence.

Louw (1998: 58-67) and Peters (1988: 31) also emphasise the need for in-service programmes that are need-based in order to make them target oriented and worth the while.

The findings described above reveal that most in-service courses were weak and impoverished and thus were deemed to be a dismal failure more so because they had no relevance to students’ initial training.

While the contributions described above give clues on what in-service teacher education is all about, Bagwandeen (1999: 53), with reference to work by Bolam and Poter (1976: 3), argues that there is no agreed definition or description of insert. Bagwandeen (ibid), making further reference to Hofmeyr’s contributions, further argues that insert suffers lack of agreed definitions and nomenclature, resulting in it meaning different things to different people.

The different environments in which inserts are born are bound to affect the structure and primary areas they are meant to address. This has the effect of influencing the meaning of a particular brand of insert to the designers and users. It is for this reason that findings referred to by Bagwandeen (1999: 53 and 98-100) have the stand-point that no commonality can be found in the definition of insert. Yet, the references made in the definitions provided above indicate that some authors seem to have a common understanding, though not identical, of this animal called insert or in-service training.

Some authors like Aldrich (1999: 14-27), Evans (1987: 1-9), and Paun (1993: 103-109) at least agree on the various approaches to in-service training. They
argue that in-service training could be school based, or could involve sending a practicing teacher to a distant place that is not part of the school system. They call the second approach the external system while the first approach is described as the internal system.

2.3.4 The Role of Open and Distance Learning in Teacher Education

Perraton (2000: 58-63) refers to Moon and Mayes (1998: 58-63) who say the entry of open universities into the field of education between 1970 and 1980 changed the landscape of higher education and created a new mechanism for teacher education. This helped to empower teacher education delivery systems to the extent that they were able to run national programmes for teacher upgrading. Moon and Mayes (ibid) quoted by Perraton (2000: 58-63) also argue that the main purpose for the involvement of Open and Distance learning in teacher education was to address the problem of teacher shortages. They make references to the Nigerian and Australian situations the Palestinian refugee school situation, the Tanzania and the Zimbabwean situations as examples of cases where Open and Distance learning were used to successfully address a critical shortage of teachers.

The role of Open and Distance learning in addressing teacher shortages is also highlighted by Pimm and Selinger (1995: 47-56). They say that Open and Distance learning was brought into teacher education in response to the shortage that existed in Britain in the late 1980s and early 1990s.

For the purpose of highlighting the important role of Open and Distance learning in education, an attempt will be made to describe the impact of Open and Distance learning in educating teachers in selected countries.
2.3.5 Role of Open and Distance Learning in Teacher education outside Africa

2.3.5.1 The Australian Case

Evans (1987: 1-9) and Evans and Nation (1992: 3-13) mention the fact that Distance Education has always played a significant role in the professional development of teachers in Australia. They give credit to the Hawke government for introducing Distance Education Centres in 1980 for the purpose of coordinating, training of primary teachers through distance learning in both pre-service and in-service programmes. Evans (ibid) says universities were later involved in teacher education and provided both pre-service and in-service programmes and added a dimension of specialisation which faculties of education were equipped to provide. Evans and Nation (ibid) specifically mention the provinces of Queensland and Western Australia as pioneers in bringing universities into distance and correspondence teacher education.

By 1990, of the 22 000 students enrolled for external degrees by more than 48 colleges of advanced learning attached to various universities, over 50% were in the field of teacher education.

Evans and Nation (1992: 3-13) and Evans (1987: 1-9) mention the fact that Diploma qualifications and the Bachelor of Education degree were the main qualifications attained by these external students. They also admit that external studies were initially introduced to address a serious shortage of teachers since colleges in urban areas could not train enough teachers for the rural population. Evans and Nation (1992: 3-13) and Evans (1987: 1-9) also highlight the fact that most of the teachers enrolled for further studies in order to upgrade their qualifications to be able to cross a salary barrier or to cross over from a primary school teacher status to a secondary school teacher status. Graduates at these programmes were exposed to further education that equipped them with classroom lauding and management skills.
Brown and Brown (1994: 1-4) talk of the Australia Remote Area Teacher Education Programme (RATEP), which operated by use of open learning networks. At some point, Queensland had 40 operational learning centres which were used as learning centres for in-service programmes offered by higher education institutions. The fact that these centres were mainly established to service rural teachers meant that their presence affected the number of rural teachers who were engaged in higher education studies. This had a downstream effect on the way these teachers understood and executed their duties.

2.3.5.2 Ireland

Belbenoit (1979: 29) says Northern Ireland considers insert worth the while for all teachers. To facilitate the provision of in-service training, Northern Ireland established Teaching Centres, which catered mainly for primary school teachers. These centres then became meeting points for purposes of examinations to upgrade primary teachers’ qualifications.

2.3.5.3 The British Case

Prescott and Robinson (1993: 283-291) recognise the fact that the involvement of the Open University (UK) in teacher education may seem surprising because UK is a small country where distances are not great. Moreover, communication is good and there are many colleges offering teacher education and in-service programmes for teachers.

Prescott and Robinson (ibid) admit that when the Open University was established, teacher education was not the major attachment as explained by the fact that only 40.1% of the 1971 enrolment were teachers.
However, Pimm and Selinger (1995: 47-56) recognise the fact that the teacher shortages of 1980 in England and Wales forced the government to extensively fund the Open University so that it could develop a part-time distance learning Post Graduate Certificate of Education for both primary and secondary school teachers. The first group started classes in 1994.

Prescott and Robinson (1993: 283-291) refers to Perry (1976: 68) who says Open and Distance learning had the purpose of addressing needs of many teachers in Britain. He says these teachers who enrolled with the Open University advertised themselves to their community and pupils and this helped to enhance their status. Robinson makes yet another reference to Perry (ibid) who mentions the fact that many teachers enrolled with the Open University (UK) in order to gain a pay increase and enhance their chances of gaining promotion.

O’shea and Dawns (1997: 4-57) say the Open University (UK) provides distance education programmes, distance teacher education included, which have the inherent quality assurance due to the University’s approach in provision of distance learning. Quality assurance is also demanded by the university’s mission (O’shea and Dawns (1997: 4-57).

Prescott and Robinson (1993: 283-291) point out that teachers who enrolled at the Open University (UK) were exposed to the theory and practice of teaching and learning. They had academic subjects like Mathematics, English Literature, History, and Physics. Their assessment was through coursework and written examinations. Prescott and Robison (ibid) argues that The Open University (UK) became very popular among many teachers because of its low tuition charge, which also catered for their textbook requirements, which were a product of collective effort by what Peters (1998) calls course teams.
Belbenoit (1979: 29) points out that in-service programmes for teachers are highly
looked up to as they support teachers’ endeavours to develop professionally. There is in fact a legislation that compels teachers to continue learning using
provided facilities (Belbenoit, ibid). There is concentration of such facilities at
the universities of Hamburg and Gottingen.

Baumeister (1997: 4-3-4-13) credits the German distance education process with
intensive quality check systems although there is still call for much more to be
done to guarantee quality distance education all the time.

Distance teacher education in West Germany serves the purpose of updating and
upgrading teachers’ qualifications (Rebel, 1989: 53-55). The training emphasises
the didactics and methodologies of the trainees’ subject areas. The training
programme also accommodates personal experiences of trainees (Rebel, ibid).

Rebel (1989: 53-55) raises an interesting observation on distance teacher
education. Rebel (ibid) says distance education should not be seen as a
competitor of traditional teacher training institutions or models but as one that
plays a complimentary role. This creates a need to create continuity between
traditional or convectional teacher education and distance teacher education,
which is mostly in-service training.

2.3.6 Cases of Asian Countries

2.3.6.1 Sri Lanka

Suck-Ying Wong, et. al. (1992: 221-225) argue that when Sri Lanka introduced
distance education, its first targets were primary and secondary school teachers.
As far back as 1972 the Sri Lanka Ministry of Education initiated the launching of
a teacher education programme in order to upgrade the low qualifications of the country’s many primary and secondary school teachers.

Nielsen and Tattò (1993: 97-98 & 108-120) postulate that distance education programmes for teacher education in Sri Lanka aimed at allowing teachers to earn certificates at own pace and in their work environments. Bishop (1986) adds the fact that this facility was open to both pre-service and in-service training candidates.

Neilsen and Tattò (1993: 97-98 & 108-120) also point out that coursework and examinations were used for assessing various ranges of competences of trainees to determine their suitability for awards in their training programmes.

The Open University of Sri Lanka made its provision of distance teacher education more effective by supplementing the print media with audio and video cassettes, face-to-face teaching, seminars, workshops, radio and television services (Brown and Brown, (1994: 1-4) and Weerasinghe, 1997: 5-7).

The university has also established quality assurance mechanisms to make sure they provide learners with quality products (Weeranighe, 1997: 5-7).

2.3.6.2 Indonesia

Suck-Ying Wong, et al (1992: 221-225) say as early as 1950, Indonesia started providing a National Teachers Distance Education upgrading course, which was coordinated by the National Teachers’ Distance Education Upgrading Course Development Centre. The centres control was moved to Universtas Terbuka in 1984.

Belawati (2001: 171-188) mentions Universitas Terbuka as the main University offering teacher upgrading programmes at a distance. Belawati (ibid) also points
out that the university encourages students to set up study groups. Use of radio, internet and fax as alternatives to the print media is slowly becoming popular among distance learners at Universitas Terbuka (Belawati, 2001: 17-188).

Neilsen and Tatto (1993: 97-98 & 108-120) have it on record that the Open University in Indonesia was established for the purpose of upgrading teachers’ qualifications. It was also established to meet the high demand for teachers that was experienced in 1980 due to the massive expansion of lower secondary school programme. In 1980 alone the demand for teachers was as high as 13 000.

The trainees received 2 to 3 tutorial sessions per semester, which were 3 to 4 hours long. However, Neilsen and Tatto (ibid) recognise the fact that students organised their own tutorials to enable them to get further assistance. During their training, trainees were exposed to information related to their subject areas, teaching skills and professional attitudes.

The Open University of Indonesia became popular among trainees and the would-be-trainees because it was seen as a more affordable source of knowledge compared to conventional institutions. Trainees also saw it as a convenient way of undergoing training as it allowed them to remain at their work places during their training period. A research on the effectiveness of the programme also revealed that its graduates had a high mastery of language and teaching skills (Neilsen and Tatto, 1993: 97-98 & 108-120).

2.3.6.3 Bangladesh

According to Islam and Haque (2001: 255-272), distance education in Bangladesh can be traced back to 1956 when the correspondence school was established. The school offered certificates, diplomas and degrees to its graduates. Bachelor of Education degrees for secondary school teachers were offered by teachers’
colleges while primary school teachers received certificates in education at the end of their studies.

Hossain (1999: 194-197) argues that in order to effectively provide open and distance education in general, the Bangladesh Open University needs to provide up to date technological facilities. This is even more necessary in Bangladesh because of the remoteness of some of the parts of the country and because of the ever-increasing population of the country.

The Bangladesh Open university now uses audio and video facilities besides the print media it has always used. The university also got a donation of a telephone conferencing facility from The Commonwealth of Learning of which Bangladesh is a member (Islam and Haque, 2001: 255-272).

The Bangladesh Open University was mainly set up to offer the Bachelor of Education degree to teachers (Rumble, 1993: 166-168). It was seen as a convenient and affordable means of accessing teachers’ education. It also scored successes because of its high quality learning materials (Rumble, 1993: 166-168).

2.3.6.4 China

Xing-fu (2001: 27-43) reports that the China Central Radio and TV University was established in 1970 and it was based in Beijing with 28 scattered supporting university centres. In 1987 the China Radio and TV University introduced the China TV Teacher Training Institute (CTVT TI) whose prerogative was in-service training of primary and secondary school teachers (Xing-fu, 2001).

China Radio and TV University went on to set up a school in 1990 in order to meet rural education needs, which needed special attention because of the size of the population involved (Xing-fu, 2001: 27-43).
Ding (1994: 41 & 334) also emphasises the importance of China Radio and TV University as a teachers’ training programme facility for the Chinese population. Ding (1994: 4 & 334) credits China’s Radio and TV University with the widely appreciated and commended increase in the total number of qualified professionals in most of the country’s professions. Heese (1996) also reports that the China Radio and TV teaching set up was put in place at low cost productions and that it became a popular teaching tool because it had the advantage of capturing the attention of students at times most convenient and most suitable to them.

2.3.6.5 Japan

Japan’s distance education was officially established in 1942 by an Act of Parliament. Radio, print media, TV and face-to-face tutoring were used as education dissemination channels. (Wong, 1992: 470-471) and Sakamoto (1999: 48-56) praise the role of technology in particular satellite communication, which is attributed with the enhancement of distance education in Japan.

Suck-ying and Aya (2001: 80-102) point out that the high demand for distance education precipitated the creation of the University of the Air which expanded rapidly and became the population’s first choice.

2.3.6.6 Hong Kong

Jegede (1988: 44-79) assets that open and distance learning in Hong Kong was necessitated by a dense population, which, though occupying a small area, required an aggressive educational outreach programme of this nature. Big players in the provision of open and distance learning are China, Britain, Australia, US, Canada and Ireland (Jegede, 1988: 44-79).
However, Hong Kong itself has its own indigenous distance education programmes that cater for its population’s interests, and teacher education is included. Currently, Hong Kong is in the process of upgrading some of its polytechnic colleges into distance learning institutions in order to make progress in their endeavour to satisfy the desire for both basic and further education to millions of people in Hong Kong.

Brown and Brown (1994: 1-4) confirm that Hong Kong Open University has the potential to grow as it had over 17 500 students by 1989. Yuen et.al. (1995) argue that the use of technology helps the Hong Kong Open University and other distance institutions to reach their clients.

Wong (1992: 186-225) names the radio, TV, telephone and audio visual facilities as some of the technologies utilised by providers of open and distance learning in Hong Kong. Quality assurance is guaranteed yet it has remained equally important that distance education programme reviews are carried out by both external and internal providers of distance education in Hong Kong (Robertshaw).

2.3.6.7 India

Chandiram (1997: 29-37) provides valuable information on one of the leading Open and Distance learning institutions in the world, the Indira Gandhi Open University. The University offers further teacher education among other programmes, and is known to use advanced media technology to provide distance education to its clients.

Chandiram (1997: 29-37) also makes reference to quality assurance of programmes offered by the Indira Gandhi Open University, which emanates from thorough training of programme officers.
Wong (1992: 224) describes distance education as a very important vehicle for use to impart education to millions of Indians who are spread throughout a vast country of the size of India. Wong (ibid) says as early as 1962, Delhi University had established a distance education wing, which used print media as the main media for tutoring, with limited support from the TV, radio, audio cassettes and video cassettes.

Wong (1992: 224) also makes reference to other distance education providing institutions, which include Nalanda Open University, Kota Open University, Indira Gandhi Open University and Chavan Maharsahtra Open University, which also successfully utilised various technologies to communicate with their students.

Datt (1994:165) points out that the cost of distance education in India is relatively low. Besides the deliberate low costing strategies in place, its cost levels are also affected by enrolment figures, number of assignments students write per semester or per year, the length of contact periods between students and tutors, the size of the support staff a distance education institution has and the kind of technology employed by the distance education providing institution. This ensures that the low costing can be sustained.

According to Sahoo (1993: 29-34), when distance education and open learning came into existence in India after 1962, it started offering, as a priority, the Bachelor of Education (BEd) degree programme to cater for the interests of teachers who had lower teaching qualifications. The distance education programme, when it later became fully operational, was capable of churning out more than 1 000 teachers per year. By 1972 more than 18 universities had opened distance education wings in order to service the Indian population. The 1982 to 1987 phase saw the creation of open and distance learning institutions whose mandate was to service the disadvantaged Indian masses (Sahoo, 1993: 29-34).
Their creation gave distance education a new impetus. This development influenced 47 universities to open up distance education units in their campuses (Sahoo, 1993: 29-34). The provision of in-service education to teachers remained a priority among most of these established distance education units (Sahoo, ibid).

Kanwar and Pillai (2001: 273-288) acknowledge the fact that since 1982, enrolment figures in open universities and distance education units rose rapidly. By 1995 the population of students engaged in open and distance education had risen to over 200,000 students. This number accounted for 3% of the total enrolment in higher education institutions. The coming into distance education of private institutions after 1990 further caused the numbers to rise sharply.

2.3.6.8 Papua New Guinea

Proper distance education at the University of Papua New Guinea started in 1974 with the establishment of the Institute of Distance and Continuing Education (KDCE), which replaced the less effective Institute of Extension Studies (Markowitz, 1997: 47-49).

The Papua New Guinea University and the Pacific Adventist College are now intensively involved in distance education that covers primary, secondary and higher education, training of teachers included. The use of distance education to provide various levels of education in Papua New Guinea is unavoidable because the country has a difficult terrain that makes travelling very difficult and at times impossible (Vaa, Osborne and Nyondo, 2001: 400-420).

2.3.6.9 The Republic of Korea

The establishment of correspondence courses in the Republic of Korea dates back to the 17th century and was a result of initiatives of one Sung-Ho-Lee. The expansion of this correspondence facility was aided by the Japanese occupation.
and this enabled the programme to develop into distance education (Wong, 1992: 470-471).

The formalisation of distance education in Korea saw the establishment of Korea Air and Correspondence University (KACU), which offered various educational programmes that included in-service teacher education (Wong, 1992: 647-648). The university utilised the print media, university newspaper, radio, television and audio visual cassettes to get in touch with students (Wong, 1992: 647-648).

Korea Air and Correspondence University was later renamed Korea National Open University and it expanded its in-service teacher education programme by establishing teachers training provincial centres throughout the country (In-sung, 2001: 103-130). However, most of the distance education material used in Korea up to the late 90’s was either from Japan, Australia or other foreign countries (In-sung, ibid).

In 1997 Korea Open University started generating its own distance education material. This was facilitated by a technology boom, which had started taking a centre stage in the provision of distance education. This technology boom gave rise to the Samsung group, which, in 1998, introduced the Samsung Cybercampus as a distance education providing tool (In-sung, 2001: 103-130).

2.3.6.10 South Pacific Islands

Wong (1992: 647-648) described the collective size of the South Pacific Islands as being three times the size of Europe. This area, which includes, among other insignificant islands, Cook Islands, Fiji, Kiribate and Tswalu, Nauru, Nicie, Solomon Islands, Tokelou, Tonga, Vanuatu, Western Samoa and Marshall Islands, is vast and has natural barriers which make accessibility extremely difficult and very expensive.
These islands are serviced by the University of South Pacific, which operates as a regional university for the islands region (Wong, 1992: 647-648 and Vaa, Osborne and Nyondo, 2001: 400-420). The regional university, realising the extent of the effect of natural barriers to island accessibility, aligned itself to distance education. This mode of teaching, the university argued, would defy the challenges of wide dispersion and stretches of water permanently separating the islands (Vaa, Osborne and Nyondo, 2001: 400-420).

Besides the basic distance education the University of South Pacific provides to the islanders, the university also offers in-service teacher education to both primary and secondary school teachers. Though the secondary teachers in-service programme was the first one to be introduced, its capacities have now been overtaken by the in-service programme for primary school teachers due to high demand for primary education by both the young and the old (Vaa, Osborne and Nyondo, 2001: 400-420).

The University of South Pacific uses print media, video and satellite conferencing as its delivery models (Wong, 1992: 647-648 and Vaa, Osborne and Nyondo, 2001: 400-420). However, some islands face communication and postal challenges which delay delivery of tutorial materials and information to students (Vaa, Osborne and Nyondo, 2001). This is the case despite Wong’s (1992) description of the video and satellite tutorial sessions as being of a high quality and are regularly transmitted.

2.3.7 Latin America

2.3.7.1 Brazil

Batista and Oliveira (1998: 168-173) provide information on Brazil’s distance education efforts and they argue that it is one of the Latin American countries with clearly stated and outlined distance education programmes. Batista and
Oliveira (ibid) say distance education in Brazil is over sixty years old. Between 1950 and 1960, there were over 170 private correspondence institutions, which offered distance education at various levels (Batista and Oliveira, 1998: 168-173).

Initially, Brazil used the radio and television services to offer distance education programmes. However, the introduction of computers in the 1990s improved the efficiency of the delivery process and this prompted Brazil to include teachers training programmes in its distance education provision strategy. (Stephen, Castro and Castro, (1998:17) and Harasim, (1998: 181-201) strongly recommend the use of technology that can be afforded by Latin America as a whole and by Brazil in particular. Stephen, Castro and Castro (1998: 17) strengthen their argument by using the saying that reads:

What is good for the United States is not necessarily good for Latin America. What is good for Latin America is what is affordable for the masses and what compensates for the scarcity of quality teachers.

Barcia, et al (2001: 313-336), however point out that it is critically important for Brazil to move with times in terms of technological advancement in order to widen the horizon of the face-to-face communication. Barcia et al (ibid) are positive about the use of technologies like CD roms, video cassettes and web pages as they strongly believe that such technologies would go a long way in providing diverse ways of communication which they believe generate interactions that are as good as those provided by face-to-face tutoring.

2.3.8 Role of Open and Distance Learning in Teacher Education in Africa

2.3.8.1 Botswana

Thompson (1992: 39) argues that Botswana desperately needs distance education training for teachers because of the large number of teachers in that country
whose qualifications are extremely low and urgently require upgrading if the performance of these teachers is to positively assist children to learn successfully.

Kamau (1997: 17-20) says Centre for Continuing Education at the University of Botswana (UB) uses radio and face-to-face tutoring modes to deliver its distance education programme. These tutoring modes assist the university to upgrade in large numbers those primary school teachers who are certificate holders to the Diploma level. This is deemed necessary as it is the only way Botswana can raise the standard of its primary education (Thompson, 1992: 39). While there is desire to provide further programmes for teachers, the implementation process is being negatively affected by the absence of expertise in the area of distance education (Kamau, 1997: 17-20).

Botswana is also known to have taken on board the mobile teachers’ training programme for purposes of intensifying its efforts to upgrade qualifications of its primary school teachers (Dave, 1986: 217-221). However, like in Nigeria, this mode of teacher upgrading met with mixed reactions mainly because of its novelcy (Dave, ibid).

2.3.8.2 Kenya

Makau (1993: 316-348) asserts that the external degrees at the University of Nairobi was established as an answer to high demand for degrees by many Kanyans, especially teachers. This view is supported by Dave (1986: 217-221) who says distance teacher education in Kenya was set up as a means of preparing serving teachers to meet the demands of the ever changing and expanding school system.

Dave (1986: 217-221) refers to Hawkridge Kinyanjui, Nkinyange and Orivel (1979) who point out that the process of upgrading teachers with a P3 qualification in Kenya meant that these teachers were upgraded to the P2 level
qualification. The same upgrading process later provided opportunities for all other under qualified teachers to be upgraded to the elementary P3 level depending on the quality of their “O” Level qualification and their teaching experience. Their upgrading process started with an introduction to teaching methodology studies in order to improve the trainees’ approach to practical teaching, which is what teaching is mostly about (Dave, 1986).

Thompson (1992: 39) describes Kenya’s special attention to the training of technical teachers through distance education. Thompson (ibid) says Kenya came up with an intensive in-service training for technical teachers because of Kenya’s view that practical subjects had a lot of influence on developmental trends and operations in industries that were engaged in manufacturing programmes.

Makau (1993: 316-348) points out that this teacher upgrading programme became Kenya’s priority. Earlier intake requirements were instituted in favour of teachers who had 5 “O” Levels and a teaching qualification. Their curriculum included educational foundations, psychology, planning, administration and curriculum development, communication, technology and practical teaching (Makau, 1993: 316-321). The trainees were also required to do two academic subjects, which were chosen from humanities, languages and mathematics. This choice enabled trainees to establish continuity between what they were doing and what they had done in pre-service training (Makau, 1993: 316-348).

Makau (ibid) and Taylor (1983) who is referred to by Dave (1986: 212-217) say trainees attended tutorials and seminars during weekends and holidays and their assessment was in the form of written examinations, teaching practice demonstrations and project presentations. Trainees were encouraged by the fair levels of tuition charged (2.7% less charge than the B.Ed. conventional). However, young learners found the going tough since they were expected to do most of the work independent of the drive and supervision of a teacher which they were used to.
2.3.8.3 Nigeria

Nigeria is one of the countries referred to by Dave (1986: 212-217) as having been engaged in distance education for teachers from as far back as 1983. However, Dave (ibid) says the attempt by Nigeria to use mobile facilities to train teachers failed to yield positive results because of the general population’s negative attitudes towards such kind of a teacher training strategy. This led to the abrupt end of the mobile training programme.

Young, Perraton, Jenkins and Dodds (1980: 123-148) however, reveal that distance training of teachers was more preferred by many Nigerian trainees than they preferred the conventional training system, which was intensively practised at Ahmadu Bellow University at Zaria. Some training students complained of spending 11 years at school for purposes of exiting the learning situation while they were in possession of Bachelor of Education degree certificate, which was a further training qualification for anyone worth recognising as a suitably qualified teacher. Thus, those who could afford attaining this Bachelor of Education degree certificate without a break from their studies found it worth the while doing so instead of joining a teachers training college only to come back to Ahmadu Bellow University for further education.

In order to meet the demands of conventional university education, some further education students enrolled at Ahmadu Bellow University were known to have moved their entire families from wherever they were originally stationed to cities and locations as close as was possible to Ahmadu Bellow University. This disrupted life styles of many Nigerian students (Young, Perraton, Jenkins and Dodds, 1980: 123-148). Such an inconvenience would have been avoided had Ahmadu Bellow University been a distance education university.
2.3.8.4 South Africa

The South African Institute of Distance Education (SAIDE, 1993: 7) describes distance education as a strategy for meeting new goals in teacher education. Louw (1988: 58-65) argues that distance teacher education should focus on academic and professional upgrading and classroom management.

Fraser (1993: 30-42) believes various factors have caused the healthy growth in distance teaching and learning in South Africa. He mentions high costs at conventional institutions, political unrest at residential campuses, overcrowding and raising of academic standards and criteria for admission as some of the factors that have enabled distance learning, distance teacher education included, to develop rapidly.

Fraser (1993: 30-42) points out that UNISA offers an in-service distance teacher education programme that enables trainees to attain a Higher Education Diploma (called a PGCE since 1998). Frazer’s (ibid) information is also supported by Bagwandeen (1999: 53) who says upgrading of teachers in the province of Kwazulu-Natal was mainly through in-service programmes although a limited number enrolled for pre-service.

The training assessment involved writing of assignments and essays and writing of an examination, Bagwandeen (1999). Trainees were expected to attend residential sessions and tutorials and group discussions (SAIDE, 1995: 7). Louw (1988: 58-65) argues that the success of distance teacher education is affected by its relationship with training programmes offered at conventional and pre-service institutions since it creates continuity and reduces costs and logistical problems.

However, Fraser (1993: 30-42) concedes that there are problems that surround the UNISA Distance Teacher Training Programme. He raises the issue of separation between teacher trainer and trainee during teaching practice sessions and the
failure of learning material to establish an interpersonal relationship with the learner as some of the serious set backs of distance teacher education in South Africa.

2.3.8.5  Tanzania

According to Chale (1993: 22-23), distance education in Tanzania was initially used to train cooperative members in management of their enterprises. It was only used after 1970 to train teachers.

The distance teacher education programme involved theory in education and pedagogy, teaching of mathematics and teaching of reading and writing in Kiswahili. It also involved a teaching practice session. Evaluation was in the form of coursework assignments, a written examination and demonstration in practical teaching (Chale, 1993: 22-23). Brown and Brown (1994: 1-4) point out that when it was fully operational, the distance training programme had churned out 3 500 graduates in a five year period.

Trainees used rural newspapers, posters, printed texts, village libraries, mobile cinema vans, study groups and radio broadcasting as their sources of information and for purposes of tutoring themselves.

2.3.8.6  Zimbabwe

Chivore (1993: 45-61) observed that after independence in 1980, the conventional system of training teachers failed to produce enough trained teachers and the Zimbabwe National Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC) was introduced. Chivore (1993: 45-61) and Ncube (1982) provide a description of the nature of the training programme as will be detailed below. Gatawa (1985: 228) gives the ZINTEC programme credit for having managed to churn out a good number of
teachers five years after being launched. Gatawa (ibid) says by 1985, the ZINTEC programme had churned out over 8,500 trained teachers.

Chivore (1998: 45-61) and Ncube (1982) say students were exposed to the theory of education, which included subjects like Philosophy, Psychology, Sociology, History of Education and curriculum studies. The trainees were also exposed to the study of teaching methods, classroom management through microteaching and teaching in local schools and an in-depth study in a curriculum subject of one’s choice in order to bring in a component of specialisation to the trainees. The trainees were also expected to engage in development studies, which included home economics and agriculture to equip them with community development knowledge. Chivore (1993: 45-61) and Ncube (1982) also point out that students were introduced to research methods to enable them to be active participants in educational research projects. Evaluation for these students was in the form of coursework assignment, a written examination, a project and teaching practice.

Ncube (ibid) provides more information on distance teacher education, which affected holders of T2A and T2B certificates. These were two year trained teachers who needed this in-service training offered at Gweru Teachers’ College to enable them to be holders of a three-year course certificate and align them with new qualifications held by new college graduates.

This kind of facility was later extended to Primary Teacher Lower (PTL) certificate holders and Primary Higher Teachers’ (PTH) certificate holders who had undergone a two year training programme to enable them to attain a three-year Teachers’ Certificate (Ncube, 1982). These trainees had to be in possession of five “O” Levels and were expected to undergo a two-year part-time training programme to attain the new qualification, which was issued by the University of Zimbabwe. Their assessment was in the form of coursework assignments and a written examination. The teaching practice was overlooked because these were already qualified teachers.
Discussions with some members of staff in the Faculty of Education at the
University of Zimbabwe revealed that there was a shortlined distance teacher
education programme between 1986 and 1987 for degree holders who intended to
train as secondary school teachers. They attended residential sessions where they
were exposed to professional foundations and teaching practice as it affected their
areas of specialisation. Their assessment was in the form of written assignments,
teaching practice demonstrations and written examinations.

Louw and Trewby (1993: 30-32) describe a rather low profile training programme
they say was introduced in 1987 to assist under qualified teachers. Louw and
Trewby (ibid) refer to this training programme as the Litraid project whose
centres were in Harare, Gweru, Bulawayo and Mutare.

Louw and Trewby (1993: 30-32) point out that a Dr Richard Walker evaluated
this programme whose efforts were described as having been very successful.
Louw and Trewby (ibid) also say this teacher’s training programme was later
absorbed by the Open University, which started off as a Centre for Distance
Education (CDE). However, there appears to be no further supporting evidence
on the existence of this Litraid teachers’ project, which could help to correctly
evaluate its level of success, failure and impact on the training of teachers through
distance education in Zimbabwe.

Of late, there has been the introduction of the Bachelor of Education in
Educational Administration Planning and Policy Studies (BEDEAPPS) degree
programme that is offered by the Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU) formerly the
University College of Distance Education (UCDE). The programme offers the
course listed in Appendix 1.

According to the 1995 UCDE circular on enrolment figures since its inception in
1993, the Centre for Distance Education (CDE), which later became the
University College of Distance Education (UCDE) and which is now Zimbabwe Open University, has continued to have over ninety percent of its student population being made up of non-degreed primary and secondary school teachers. The same circular shows that in 1996, of the 700 non-degreed teachers enrolled, 500 were primary school teachers. Of the 500, only 60 were either Headmasters or Education Officers.

### 2.3.9 Teacher Education in Zimbabwe

Siyakwazi (1978: 106-113) provides a perspective that portrays an evolutionary development of teacher education in Zimbabwe before independence. Siyakwazi (ibid) refers to the 1941 comment by the Methodist Church on the high quality and already Christian character of candidates who were undergoing teacher training at their church run training institutions. This view is supported by Zvobgo (1994) who says missionaries played a big role in the training of teachers and brought with them the Christian teaching. Siyakwazi (1978: 159) also refers to the drastic change in teacher education after the Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) with the following areas being lined up for all trainees:

- Practical teaching
- Theory of Education
- Academic study – studying of one approved academic field
- Professional study – educational sources that are related to the age range of students the candidates would eventually teach.

These syllabi followed by the various teachers’ training colleges now mandated to have an associate relationship with a recognised University are, in the case of those associated with the University of Zimbabwe, approved by the Department of Teacher Education (Siyakwazi, 1993: 3-23). Detailed below are contents of a typical teacher training syllabus of one of the recognised teachers’ colleges (Morgan) and it is christia...
syllabi for individual subjects’ specialisation training. A sample of the syllabus B for Environmental Science is attached (Appendix E) but it does not form the backbone of Primary Teacher training, which this part of the research aims at highlighting.

Syllabus A has the following three aims:

- To develop a competent professional teacher who is reflective, innovative and effective in the teaching learning situation.
- To develop a student teacher who appreciates education and societal values and ethics of the teaching profession.
- To promote and sharpen both intellectual and practical classroom skills to promote meaningful teaching – learning of primary school pupils.

The syllabus exposes trainees to issues related to the primary school curriculum, Classroom Management, Teaching Strategies, Educational Management, Evaluation and Assessment and Educational Technology (see Appendix A and Appendix B).

The syllabus A gives a picture of the kind of training the students who enrol for the BEDEAPPS would have undergone. It thus becomes important to determine the relationship between the syllabus followed by Teachers’ Training institutions and courses offered by the BEDEAPPS programme as well as the relevance of the BEDEAPPS programme to the whole character of a Primary Teacher training graduate who would have been exposed to both Syllabus A and Syllabus B referred to earlier on (Appendix E). This will enable this research to determine the role of the BEDEAPPS programme to teacher education that is provided through Open and Distance Education by the Zimbabwe Open University.

2.3.9.1 Structure of current Teacher Education Syllabus in Recognised Teacher Training Institutions

Training of Teachers in Zimbabwe is coordinated by the Teacher Education wing of the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education. This wing requires
that Teacher Training institutions provide trainees with clear syllabi that expose them to the foundations of teacher education which, according to the Ministry of Higher Education, should include methodology of teaching, classroom management, measurement and evaluation and evaluation of pupils’ work and the teaching of individual subjects.

2.3.9.2 A brief description of the BEDEAPPS degree programme offered by the Zimbabwe Open University

The Bachelor of Education in Educational Planning and Policy Studies degree programme which has been offered by the Zimbabwe Open University since 1993 has a course profile of twenty nine courses (Appendix D). However, the institution has only been able to offer twenty courses since inception due to limited manpower resource. Listed below are the courses the Zimbabwe Open University has not been able to offer:

- Educational Project Management and Evaluation
- Management of Resources in Schools
- Modern Developments in Primary Education
- Modern Developments in Secondary Education
- Feminist Perspectives in Educational Administration
- Evaluation of Educational Personnel
- Introduction to Organisational Development
- Politics of Education
- Qualitative Methods in Educational Planning.

During the first year of inception, the Bachelor of Education in Educational Planning and Policy Studies (BEDEAPPS) degree programme was taught centrally and residentially since there were no regional structures in place. The situation changed in 1994 when regional structures were instituted and tutorials were decentralised into regions.
Each course with five being done each year, had 12 hours of tutorials per half year with examinations being written once at the end of the year after successful submission of three assignments per course. However, since 2002 to the present day, the programme became semesterised and this meant the introduction of semester examinations with each academic year divided into two semesters. During the same year the institution reduced contact hours to 6 hours per subject per semester due to rising costs of providing face-to-face tutorials. During the same period, the number of assignments was reduced to two per subject per semester.

The BEDEAPPS degree programme was introduced to further develop practising teachers who were holders of teaching certificates and Diplomas. This meant that the programme had students with a sound educational background in the areas that were contained in the BEDEAPPS course profile. This feature tended to influence the high throughput rate that has characterised the BEDEAPPS degree programme. The following are some of the throughput statistics available as per Enrolment Booklet of 2004:

1993 – 1997  61.7%
1994 – 1997  57.0%
1995 – 1998  24.0%
1996 – 1999  59.0%
1997 – 2000  72.0%
1998 – 2001  41.0%

The institution’s Graduation Booklet (1997 – 2001) reflects high pass rates for various groups who studied for the BEDEAPPS degree programme. The pass rate ranges from 52% to 100% with the average being well over 65%. The programme continues to enjoy the highest pass rate throughout the institution each semester.
The popularity of the programme among the intended beneficiaries has continued to give rise to high enrolment figures. Available statistics indicate that while the first group had only 749 students at the end of the programme’s second year of existence, enrolment had risen to over 3,000 students. In 1996, the enrolment was 3,222 while at the end of 1998 the enrolment had risen to 4,222 students with the year 2001 recording an enrolment of 5,553 students. The figures continue to rise with not less than 3,000 candidates being pushed to the waiting list each semester.

Discussions with officials in the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture which employs most of the teachers in Zimbabwe have revealed that most of the programme’s graduates have found their way into higher offices of their schools and the administrative wing of the Ministry itself.

2.4 CASE STUDIES OF TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAMMES OFFERED THROUGH OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING

2.4.1 Domasi College of Malawi
(1999) A study carried out by E Chakwera and F Saiti

Domasi College is the known first college in Malawi to offer a distance teacher education programme and did so alongside a conventional programme.

Findings revealed that it provided quality distance training besides increasing the general access to teacher training and reducing gender disparity among the trainees.

Domasi put in place a selection process that was instituted, supervised and monitored by the senate of the University of Malawi, which was the Diploma awarding institution. The Primary Trained (T2) Certificate holders who were the intended beneficiaries of the secondary school training programme had to have
four credit passes including English in their Malawi School Certificate Examinations (MSCE), the equivalent of the “O” level certificate.

The selected candidates had to take aptitude tests in communication, numerical skills and reasoning skills as was the case with their counterparts in conventional programmes. Even if they would have accumulated more points than their colleagues in the conventional system, the aptitude tests coupled with their prior training experience were enough guarantees for quality assurance.

The trainees also used modules, which were written by well trained writers who were capable of writing quality modules.

Trainees of both the conventional and distance training components were assessed using the same assessment instruments. They wrote the same tests, were observed during teaching practice sessions and were given coursework assignments, which they submitted to the same assessors.

A questionnaire was distributed to Heads of schools which hosted both conventional and distance training students for purposes of objective feedback from their immediate supervisors. The heads of schools observed no differences at all between the capabilities of these trainees and this enabled the Domasi College officials to conclude that the two modes of training teachers were usable as training methods and could thus be given equal rating in as far as their suitability and effectiveness were concerned.

Because of quality assurance measures that were put in place, results of a comparison test between distance trainees and conventional trainees at Domasi revealed that no one model was superior to the other.

However, perception remained negative because people in Malawi had for a long time known no other training programme expect the conventional system.
The case study, however, concluded that training of quality teachers through distance education is possible at any level. However, there was need to have a curriculum that balanced teacher professional growth and higher education with the classroom demands. This would enable any training programme to make school pupils the main focus of its emphasis.

The Domasi College case study is quite useful as a reference point because it provided researchers with the opportunity to place the two training modes side by side thereby making their comparison situationally appropriate. The fact that the same tutors and assessors were used made the comparison even more effective.

2.4.2 A case of the Messy University College of Education (New Zealand) carried out by B Anderson and M Simpson – 2000).

The Messey University College of Education is a long established and state funded distance education institution. It, however, started offering pre-service training for distance learners in 1995 besides its conventional training mode. The distance training programme was better known as the External Delivery Option (EDO).

The college faced a number of challenges as it went about training pre-service trainees through distance. It experienced communication problems. This necessitated the introduction of on-line communication to enable students and teachers to communicate effectively. This also removed isolation of learners. This meant that there was need to staff develop teachers in instructional design and communication technology.

The college was also faced with the problem of integrating all components of the training programme as was the case with trainees on campus. The college had to grapple with lower funding levels, which were based on the argument that distance learning needed very little training of real teaching.
Even with these challenges in sight, Messey College managed to create a natural relationship between its distance learners and their teachers because of various media they employed in order to enhance communication.

The college also embarked on continuous staff development to enhance appreciation of distance learning demands.

Even though this was a pre-service approach, it never compromised quality because students could access resources by using the effective communication system the college had put in place.

The case study on the Messey University College of Education puts emphasis on the importance of communication between tutors and students in a distance learning environment. The use of various media enabled distance learners to continue dialoguing with their tutors on all matters of importance to the two parties. Students were also able to access all resources they required because of the various media that were readily available.

The variety and usefulness of communication media students and teachers in the Zimbabwe Open University is put on the spotlight and it becomes necessary to determine its effectiveness in the dialogue between BEDEAPPS students and their tutors. If such a facility was not there, it would be interesting to observe the effectiveness of communication alternatives available for use by students.

2.5 CRITICAL THEORY OR THOUGHT IN TEACHER EDUCATION

In the introductory parts of this section, it is probably essential to give critical theory or thought, a meaning that would unravel its rather difficult-to-see relationship with education in particular. In simple terms, Carr and Kemmis (1986: 131) describe critical theory as that process of relating theory to practice. This implies that it is a vehicle through which one attempts to relate activities to a particular theoretical background,
which could be political, economic or otherwise. This then makes it mandatory for a critical theorist to relate what is happening at any particular time to a relevant theory.

In terms of education as a whole, critical theory helps one to relate an educational thrust to a theory in existence at any given time. Apple (1982: 1-6) says education is through and through a political enterprise as it is financed and monitored by the government of the day. The whole epistemological framework and the curriculum it provides cannot be separated from the political ideology in existence at any given time. Popkewitz (1991: 13) argues that as a primary institution for establishing direction and purpose and will of the society, education becomes burdened with the collective characters of societal goals for which it should establish an ecological relationship that ultimately produces what is desired by the status quo.

Gutierrez and Maclaren (1995: 131-144) argue that this position or role of education has the effect of impacting on what teacher education equips the teacher with as he joins teaching with its vast rules that have been described earlier. Such kind of education also enables the teacher to interpret correctly, in terms of the existing ideology and societal thinking, what is to be taught, how it is to be taught and how children can effectively learn without contradicting the status quo and societal aspirations.

Such critical theory helps to identify why Siyakwazi (1978: 159) notices a change in the thrust of teacher training in the then Rhodesia after the Unilateral Devaluation of independence by the Rhodesia Front. The change in ideology could not be sustained by a missionary approach to teacher education, which was too religious for the new political era. This caused drastic changes to the structure of teacher education and the subsequent roles of teachers, what they taught and how they taught it.

Critical thought also helps to understand the whole ecological change from conventional teacher education to distance teacher education in various countries. Tisber (1995: 34-35) asserts that the introduction of distance teacher education in Australia was the brainchild of the Hawke Labour Government, which had a soft-spot for the working class
that was deprived of enough teachers to look after their schools. In Britain, the Labour Government of Harold Wilson ushered the commencement of distance learning in Britain in the form of the Open University, (UK). In Zimbabwe, Chivore (1993: 45-61) talks of ZINTEC, which was introduced after independence. Matshazi (1986), in his writings about reasons for introducing Distance Learning in Zimbabwe, argues that UCDE was introduced to cater for large members of students who could not be absorbed by the only existing university, the University of Zimbabwe. This was a further development after independence, which had to come up with a practical interpretation of the new government’s theory of satisfying needs of the previously disadvantaged masses.

Popkewitz (1991: 13-42), Apple (1982: 1-6) and Giroux and Maclaren (1989: 32-49) see schools as productive and reproductive agents of society. They are designed to provide a pedagogy that aligns children to the change requirements of a society, which itself is governed by the ideology of the day. Student experiences in schools are thus geared to prefect the ultimate intention of a political ideology, which could be liberation or reorientation, for purposes of viewing events and knowledge differently from what they would have been previously made to believe. Such a stance is also shared by Paulo Freire in Taylor (1993: 53-72) who says that education is not neutral but purposed to either domesticate or liberate a people. Thus, school content will either domesticate or liberate the child and the society he or she lives in.

Musgrove and Taylor (1975: 15-17) say that critical theory helps learning to be worthwhile as teachers are equipped with the ability to vet facts resulting in them accepting some and rejecting others in order to determine truthfulness of knowledge as opposed to accepting universal truth, which might have no relevance to their own circumstances. Whitaker (1997: 194) believes that teachers as vehicles to change can only live up to expectation if they can implement a curriculum that will enable the society to eventually produce high quality graduates and a service that will signal the advent of change.
Thus, in its most rudimentary context, critical theory or thought should percolate all subsystems of education with include knowledge itself, the kind of training teachers undergo and the manner they handle classroom situations at their disposal. It should enable the teacher to discover relationships in various institutions that impact on learning to enable him or her to make correct interpretations and establish sustainable ecological relationships between these institutions. The teacher will attain an exclusive understanding of his role vis-à-vis the kind of an education system he is meant to convey to his pupils.

The critical theory has a bearing on why the BEDAPPS degree programme was introduced and who the target group were. This becomes even more relevant when one looks at education as a political issue.

The BEDAPPS degree programme could thus be an educational programme deliberately introduced to transform the educational system so that it could deliberately reflect the new political order. The success of the new political order depended heavily on who was running this important political arm called education and how well equipped the officers manning this unit were.

The subject content which will be critically dealt with in the chapters that follow should be useful in explaining the real educational purpose of the BEDAPPS degree programme that found its way into the Zimbabwean educational system after political independence.

2.6 USE OF TECHNOLOGY IN OPEN AND DISTANCE TEACHER EDUCATION

Spitzer (1998: 52-55) believes that distance learning in general has two dimensions, which are the technical dimension and the human dimension. Spitzer (ibid) also believes that the technical dimension seems to have been given more prominence by educationists who surprisingly themselves are essentially humanists. The technical dimension
dominates most, if not all, conferences on distance learning and completely overshadows the humanist dimension.

Lundin (1993: 379-382) however recognises the importance of instructional technology in distance education in general and in distance teacher education in particular. Lundin (ibid) further states that the internet, for example, removes and books the rigid rules of information access that tend to characterise the traditional classroom.

Bates (1995: 15-25) accepts that technology does promise greater learning effectiveness if well implemented. Bates (ibid) also believes that technology is more learner centred and produces better quality interaction between the learner and the information as well as between the learner and other learners.

Lundin (1993: 374-382) even has more praise for technology, especially on-line learning, than Bates (1995) has. Lundin (ibid) says use of communication technology by most virtual universities, for example, the e-mail, internet, relay and web conferencing, allows for the exchange of ideas and messages between students and tutors. This makes technology handy in communication needs of educational interactions and helps open and distance learning overcome all forms of isolation. Such isolation could be worsened by remoteness that usually characterises rural areas (Chaya-Ngam (1993)

While much praise has been given to use of technology, some criticism has also come its way. Castro and Castro (1998: 15-17) lament the enormous amount of attention and resources devoted to the use of technology tends to divert people’s attention from other issues of importance, which are effective learning and good teaching. Whitworth (1999: 69), equally sceptical of the use of technology in distance education, says equipment can act as a barrier between students and their tutor. Whitworth (1999: 69) supports this stance by providing the following quote from one of the students exclusively exposed to teaching through technology;

I do not think you know me as well as you would have had had we been in a traditional set up.
Lundin (1993: 379-382) argues that technology helps education to do the following:

(1) do things in a better way.
(2) do things previously impractical.
(3) do new things.

The three capabilities injected into education by technology are of a developmental nature, which any social service can only ignore at its own peril. The three capabilities are in fact indispensable to the survival of this institution called education, let alone distance education.

Suk-Ying-Wong (1992: 647) particularly commends an aspect of technology he calls teleteaching for use in developing countries as it defies lack of higher education facilities in remote areas. Teleteaching also allows workers in developing countries to retain their jobs since it is known that developing countries have limited capacities to offer the much needed higher education without leaving one’s employment, yet it is also known that giving up a job is a costly thing in developing countries.

Takwale (1995: 45-56) says awareness of the need for technological advancement in distance education emanates from the realisation of the character of the client and his environment. This opinion is elaborated by Rao (1995) who says that technological advancement in distance education helps to provide higher education to large sections of the community, particularly those who live in rural areas, working people, housewives and any other persons wishing to upgrade their qualifications without moving out of the normal living environment.

Matthews (2002: 11-20) views technology based distance education as an increasingly visible feature of post-secondary education in the United States. This technology enables educators to define, design, and manage effective and robust teaching and learning systems, programmes and courses (Matthews, 2002: 11-20). Willis (1993: 3-13)
describes technology as a pedagogical component that is used to bridge the instructional gap that is created by the physical separation of students and tutors.

Parsons (1989: 321) summarises the importance of technology in distance education when he says:

Distance education has become the wave of the future and the answer to an everlasting problem of the need to provide graduate level education and training to an increasing population of clients residing in highly rural areas of the world. Telecommunication, satellite or videocassettes make this possible.

Garrison (1989: 67) endorses the view by Parsons when he says; “

Since teacher and learner are separated, and two way communication is necessary, then technology is required to support the educational transaction.

This, in a way, implies that, in a normal situation, technology and distance education cannot be easily separated. If the truth be said, they are inseparable.

This becomes even more evident when interactive technologies, like multimedia technologies, are made use of since they generate active and participatory learning (Barron et. al., 2002: 3-4).

Bates (1995: 15-25) asserts that the use of technology in distance education is making distance education effective and purposeful. Bates (ibid) also says it is becoming increasingly difficult for distance education institutions to resist the political and sound pressures of the technological imperative. However, Bates (ibid) is quick to point out that technology cannot replace a teacher because the need to keep the human role in teaching cannot be overlooked.

Beagley (1997: 7-10) writes about the Open Access College; formerly the South Australian correspondence school, whose pedagogical strength lies in its use of
technology to interact with students. This, Beagley (1997: 7-10) says, provides what she calls a thorough learner support system to distance learners.

Bishop (1989: 171 - 172) has equal praise for the more ordinary and readily available technologies. Bishop (ibid) mentions the radio, the television and satellite communication as alternatives that are less costly and in many instances, just as effective if not better than conventional system as they help to dissolve barriers of both distance and time. Whitworth (1999: 64-72) mentions the use of fibre optic telecommunication system, video and audio transmissions and the use of tutor controlled computer panel as some of the aspects of technology that are usable in distance education in general and in distance teacher education in particular. Whitworth (ibid) believes the use of the camera, causal panel and monitors have an extra effect of giving students confidence to participate once they had an opportunity to appear on it prior to the interview proper. Technology’s ability to cater for large numbers of students who are far and apart and could be in hardly accessible areas in groups or in isolation, makes it an ideal alternative in distance learning.

Whitworth (1999: 64-72) however, sees technology failure creeping in depending on the quality of the equipment being used and its age. Any other backup technological failures are also capable of rendering the use of technology useless. This calls for a back up plan to avert the failure of planned tutorial sessions.

While it is clear from the discussion above that technology has both strengths and weaknesses, it is encouraging to note that Sir John Daniel (2005: 3) recognises the inaccessibility of certain kinds and levels of technologies in most African countries because of limited development and resources. Thus, while he encourages Africans to utilise technology in open and distance learning, Sir John Daniel (ibid) provides words of advice and caution when he says;

Africans should not be mesmerised by technologies that are not available to you. Africans can innovate too.
These words auger well with Castro and Castrol’s (1998: 17) statement indicating that what is good for America is not necessarily good for Brazil since issues of affordability and accessibility reign supreme where choosing of a suitable technology is concerned.

In essence, it is clear that technology is usable, and, critically so, in distance education in general and in teacher education in particular. Its effect and ability to cater for large numbers of students is highly appreciated. However, it being a potential barrier to interaction between learner and tutor and the fact that it has become more popular than the teaching and learning processes, are some of its negative aspects, which, though, should be viewed positively in order to turn them into usable strategies.

2.7 OBSERVATIONS

The discussions on the provision of distance education in developed countries reveals a deep-rooted use of technology as a tool in the provision of distance education. There is also an effort to use technology in the South Pacific belt but the use tends to be dictated upon them by physical barriers that cannot be detoured through other non-technological means.

However, the discussion on distance education in Africa reveals a relative absence of technology because of financial limitations. However, it is pleasing to note that there is an effort to achieve utilisation of technology-based tutoring. The establishment of the virtual university in Africa (Africa Virtual University) May (2003) (unpublished works) should see most distance education institutions going the technology way. This should also see these institutions share scarce intellectual resources.

The use of technology within the Zimbabwe Open University in general and within the BEDEAPPS programme in particular, becomes an issue of interest in this research. The use or lack of use of technology should be noted in view of its potential or realistic effect on the effectiveness of managing the programme.
2.8 CHALLENGES FOR TEACHER EDUCATION OFFERED THROUGH OPEN AND DISTANCE LEARNING

Provision of teacher education through open and distance learning is not without hitches and setbacks. It is vital to point out these hitches and setbacks so that they can be presented as challenges, which practitioners in distance teacher education have to tame and overcome.

Mwale (1993: 97) says distance learning in general was previously considered an unsatisfactory method of imparting education and was relegated to catering for those individuals who had failed to obtain education through normal and conventional means. Mwale (ibid) gives examples of girls who leave school because of pregnancy as the commonest group of people who were deemed suitable for distance learning. This gives distance learning a negative image and portrays it as a method non-equal to the conventional mode.

Hobbs (1997: 107-108) also recognises that the appropriateness and effectiveness of using open and distance learning for teacher education is still held in doubt by many people despite its success in providing various postgraduate and teacher education related certificates. Their argument is based on the fact that they see teaching as very much a person to person activity, which cannot be provided in any other way besides the conventional process.

The same negative image caught up with UNISA during its launching period. Booyse (1996: 5-15) points out that UNISA was at one time labelled a certificate factory and was thus looked down upon. Some quarters called it a catechism class because of its perceived departure from the traditional and conventional ways of imparting education. Louw (1988: 58-65) and Peters (1988: 31) point out that there appears to be no coherent fusion between in-service training and initial training, which most open and distance-learning institutions provide. Related to this problem is what Peters (1988: 31) calls the in-service programmes failure to recognise the experiences of their students. Peters (ibid)
argues that in-service programmes need to be cognisant of the fact that their students are adults who already have varying educational experiences.

Ding (1994: 4 & 334) appeals for caution when employing technology as he argues that tutors could lose control of activities in a tutorial session to technology, which might end up driving the whole process. Ding (ibid) also raises the fact that where technology is employed, the tutor has far limited control over the events in a tutorial and he risks losing even that limited control that he might have.

Ding (1994: 4 & 334) is also sceptical about long times that are spent in teaching students to use software. Ding (ibid) believes such times could be so unreasonably long that the process of learning how to use software would overshadow the primary process of learning the course content of a given subject.

In the same light, Ding (1994: 4) sees technology failure as a challenge that distance learning has to have full control over it or have the ability to reduce its impact on learning. The fact that open and distance learning relies heavily on technology makes this challenge an unavoidable one to all open and distance learning practitioners.

Bates (1995: 15-25) also throws caution to the use of technology. Bates (ibid) says, while technology does promise greater effectiveness, it is important that distance education practitioners are not carried away by the hype.

These challenges require that technology be used cautiously so that users retain control over its use. These challenges also call for use of technology appropriately to avoid overusing it and denying users the chance to concentrate on the business of learning.

2.9 CONCLUSION

Chapter 2 discussed issues related to the concept Distance Education and its offshoots, Teacher Education and the role of teachers as well as cases of Teacher Education
provided through the Open and Distance Learning strategy. Issues related to critical theory and the role of technology in Open and Distance Learning were also discussed. Chapter 3 deals with the methodology used to carry out the study on the teacher education within the context of Open and Distance Learning in Zimbabwe.
CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODS OF DATA COLLECTION

3.1 RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

Chapter 1 provided general information related to the problem to be researched on and its background information. Chapter 2 describes the research methodology deemed suitable for the kind of research carried out and the data collection and analysis methods that suit a case study. The chapter also deals with quantitative methods that would support the mainframe of the research, which is the case study design, that can be viewed as a subunit of the more thorough and time consuming ethnographic study. Among other things, the chapter pays particular attention to:

- The research design that was utilized,
- The sampling method that was adopted,
- Data collection methods that were employed, and
- Data analysis methods that were used.

3.2 THE PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The study aimed at assessing the suitability of the BEDEAPPS degree offered by the Zimbabwe Open University as a further teacher education programme for trained primary school teachers in Zimbabwe. The suitability level would eventually be determined by the degree’s ability to address professional inadequacies of trained primary school teachers as well as its ability to strengthen the professional skills trained primary school teachers already possessed.

The study would also determine, to a limited extent, the effectiveness of the open and distance learning model through which the programme was delivered to students.
3.3 THE RESEARCH DESIGN

The research process or practice becomes a purposeful, meaningful and systematic exercise if it is carried out within the realms of a distinct and definable mode of investigation, which researchers call the research design. The research design becomes the researcher’s plan of action that will provide the researcher with a framework of operation that will steer the process through stages that are research worthy and that are in agreement with the genre of the research design guiding the process.

Borg and Gall (1983), Kerlinger (1964), Leedy (1980), Cohen and Manion (1985) and Trussel (1981) among others, describe various research designs that a researcher can employ and these include the case studies, historical designs, experimental designs and survey designs. Though the list is not exhaustive, it, however, shows that research designs are various and varied.

The case study design was utilised to carry out the study on provision of teacher education in the context of open and distance learning in Zimbabwe.

3.3.1 The Case Study

Frazier (1973: 127-156), Merriam (1988: 2-5), Stenhouse (1985) and Thomas (1998: 81-132) describe a case study as a systematic and in-depth study of a single case, which could be an individual person, a group of persons, an organisation or an institution (schools included). Thomas (1998: 81-132) in particular includes systems, methods and events in his definition of single cases that a case study can be utilised to study. Frazier (ibid) mentions a person or an individual as an example of a single case that a case study can be used to provide an in-depth study on.

Sturman (1999: 103-109) makes interesting observations on what he calls case study methods. He sees the term case as a generic term for the investigation of an individual group or phenomenon whose intended objective is to provide an indepth study of that
individual or phenomenon. The explanation by Sturman (ibid) is further supported by Wamahui and Karugu (1995: 114-120) who view a case study approach to research as one that aims at providing a detailed study of an individual unit, be it a family, a person, a clique, a group, a school or a community.

The case study’s ability to provide an in-depth study on a phenomenon and an ability to generate detailed information about the phenomenon made it a suitable design for the study that was carried out. It is, however, critical to point out that while an ethnographic design would have provided an even more in-depth study, a case study was settled for because of the relatively less time demands associated with it in comparison to time demands associated with an ethnographic study, (Sturman, 1999: 103-109).

3.3.2 Subsidiary designs

While the case study was the main research design for this study, the researcher will also utilise the survey and the historical designs to augment the case study’s efforts. The survey design was utilised during the data collecting process since questionnaires were used as some of the data collecting instruments. The use of the historical design became prominent when the researcher looked at documents related to the formation of the ZOU and any other documents, including modules that were related to the institution.

Sturman (1999: 103-109) argues that ethnography, action research, evaluation research and educational case studies are the various sheds of this generic term called case study.

It is evident from the contributions by Frazier (1973: 127-156), Merriam (1988: 2-27), Stenhouse (1985), Sturman (1999: 103-109) and Thomas (1998: 81-152) that a case study could be preferred for this study because it has the effect of singling out one case and providing a chance to have an in-depth understanding of the case’s hitherto hidden characteristics. These characteristics of a case study make it suitable for this study as it aimed at singling out a programme on offer at the Zimbabwe Open University in order to generate a theory out of the characteristics that the case study would reveal.
It is, however, critical to point out that an ethnographic study would have been the most ideal research design for this study due to its in-depth approach and the length of time that goes with such a study (Sturman, 1999: 103-109). The case study, which could be viewed as a miniature ethnographic study was preferred because it helped the researcher to produce a study within a limited time. While the limited time could affect the quality of the study, much was done to curb this possibility by having a watchful eye on the elements of reliability and validity.

3.3.3 Justification for the use of the Case Study Design

The researcher settled for the case study because of its many advantages, which this section of the research will highlight and discuss. Mertens (1998: 2-7) views the case study as a research approach that is constructivist in nature and one that could be utilised for interpretive research, which suits social research. These qualities correctly positioned the case study for the kind of research that was carried out since it had the target of interpreting data to be gathered for the purpose of generating relevant theory. These characteristics are the opposite of positivistic methodologies, which ignore the unique characteristics of social research that are not found in the world of nature.

The view on the unique nature of the social research observed by Mertens (1998: 2-7) is elaborated by Wamahui and Karugu (1995: 114-120) who describe the social world as being qualitatively and fundamentally different from the natural world or reality because the human beings involved in this social world are active and unique. Their uniqueness and activeness require a research method that is capable of providing holistic, contextual, descriptive and in-depth data that is rich in detail and the case study leads the way in such endeavours. Wamahui and Karugu (ibid) also credit the case study design with the ability to provide the research with emic (insider’s) as opposed to etic (outsider’s) view of the phenomenon the researcher would be targeting.
Merriam (1998: 2-27) argues that the case study has the ability to penetrate a complex unit that consists of equally complex variables resulting in a rich illumination of hitherto hidden meanings that enrich the researcher’s experiences.

The case study was selected by the researcher because, according to Merriam (1998: 2-27), it is very useful in contemporary research (which was what this research was all about) where manipulation of behaviour is not possible and highly undesirable in order to get factual and progressive information concerning any given phenomenon. The case study is even more relevant to this research on an educational institution in view of Seidman’s (1991: 3) assertion that the primary way by which a researcher can investigate an educational organisation, institution or process is through experiences of individuals who make up the organisation or are involved with it and such an opportunity is provided by utilising a case study which is well supported by suitable data collecting and analysis methods.

In essence, according to Wilson (1979: 446-459), the case study suits this research targeting an institutional programme because it gives the researcher the opportunity to be particularistic in his study, enables the researcher to access information that richly describes the phenomenon under study and it is heuristic as it illuminates the reader’s understanding of the phenomenon under study and uses an inductive approach, which calls for inductive reasoning to generate a relevant theory grounded in the depth of information the researcher would have collected. The elements of specificity and being particularistic are also mentioned by Denzin and Lincoln (1994: 199-208) who argue that these characteristics make the case study suitable for this kind of study.

This is not to say the case study is a problem-free design. Merriam (1998: 2-5) says it is expensive and time consuming. Thomas (1998: 81-133) condemns it for generating data that cannot be generalised extensively. Wamahui and Karugu (1995: 114-120) contend that the case study can have the problem of selective perception and interpretation, which can distort the whole research.
However, the impact of these negative aspects on the research was curtailed by the use of taped interviews which could be replayed to confirm the authenticity of some of the data collected. The researcher also utilised the convenience sampling method as a cost cutting measure. Various data collecting instruments were utilised in order to make the whole process as intensive and thorough as was possible in order to maximise on the truthfulness of the data collected and resultant findings.

While the case study was the dominant research design used in this research, the researcher also supported the case study by using what the researcher is deliberately calling a subsidiary design. This subsidiary design, the descriptive survey method, was described as the subsidiary design because was only used to support the case study method which was the core design utilised in this research.

### 3.3.4 The Sampling Strategies

Henry (1990: 12-26) describes the sample as that unit that provides a practical and efficient means to collect data as it serves as a model of the population under study. This sample is obtainable by going through a process called sampling, which Borg and Gall (1983) describe as the process of selecting a given number of subjects from a defined population so that they become representatives of that total population.

In view of the contributions by Frazier (1973: 127-156), Merriam (1988: 2-7), Sturman (1999: 103-109) and Thomas (1988: 81-132), the sample can be viewed as the singled out unit in its diverse ramifications which could be an individual or a group. Borg and Gall (1983), Cohen and Manion (1985), Brown and Dawling (1988), Galfo (1983), Henry (1990), Kerlinger (1964) and Kalton et al. (1971), just to name a few, mention two main sampling methods that a researcher can utilise to obtain the sample mentioned above. These are the probability and non-probability sampling methods. The probability sampling method provides all units in a population equal chances of being chosen as part of a sample since they contain random selection characteristics. The non-probability
sampling methods do not possess random characteristics and are thus affected by extensive judgements of and manipulation by the researcher.

Of particular interest to the researcher were non-probability sampling methods which dispose of the positivistic stance of traditional research that presupposes a consistent and regular nature of relationships of variables. Among these non-probability sampling methods are the Purposive, Quota sampling, Snowball sampling and Convenience Sampling.

For the bigger part and first stage of this research, the researcher used the purposive sampling method that enabled the researcher to achieve his objective and answer the research question (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994: 161). Denzin and Lincoln, (ibid) also say this method is useful when the researcher is using a very small sample and needs to select cases that are particularly informative.

The researcher used the purposive sampling method because it also allowed him to select units that were conveniently placed in order to serve money and in order to utilise gadgets that are power driven. Babbie (1992: 230-232) calls this convenience sampling. The researcher wanted to use subgroups that interacted with the ZOU BEDEAPPS programme at various levels. This process was made possible by employing what Denzin and Linclon (1994: 261-165) call stratified purposive sampling method. Babbie (1992: 230) calls it purposive or judgemental sampling as it is affected by the judgements and decisions of the researcher in as far as determining convenience is concerned. Eventually, the sample was made up of 8 schools with BEDEAPPS graduates. These eight schools were expected to provide eight units to be interviewed who included four heads of schools and four graduates.

During the second sampling stage, the researcher used the same purposive method to come up with ten Heads of Schools, which had BEDEAPPS graduates on their staff and ten Education Officers. These Heads of Schools and Education Officer were expected to provide write ups and respond to inquiries on the performance of BEDEAPPS graduates.
they supervise. The same sampling method was also used to come up with twenty BEDEAPPS graduates who were expected to provide write ups on their assessment of the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a further teacher education programme.

During the third sampling stage, the researcher utilised the random sampling method to come up with about 400 BEDEAPPS graduates scattered throughout the country who were meant to complete a questionnaire on the BEDEAPPS degree programme. The 400 graduates were 10% (ten percent of BEDEAPPS graduates as at the end of the year 2001).

During the fourth sampling stage, the researcher used the same probability sampling method to come up with (10%) ten percent of the current first year BEDEAPPS students (40) who were expected to respond to a questionnaire for fresh students.

It was the researcher’s hope that the mixing of probability and non-probability sampling methods would enable the research to both limit and broaden its sample base as and when it was deemed necessary in order to maximise on the researcher’s findings.

3.3.5 Data Collecting Methods

Borg and Gall (1983), Cohen and Manion (1985), Galfo (1983) and Merriam (1998) classify case studies under qualitative research as opposed to the quantitative type.

Merraim (ibid) then argues that since case studies are normally of a qualitative nature, it is logical that they utilise qualitative data collecting methods. Mertens (1998: 2-7) and Thomas (1998: 81-133) provide the following data collecting instruments:

- interviews
- observations
- document reviews,

which they strongly believe are used in qualitative research because they are designed to provide an in-depth description of a phenomenon.
Holstein and Gubrium (1988: 113-119) argue that an interview allows people to talk about their lives in a manner that generates empirical data about the social world.

However, data for this research was expected to be collected using both qualitative and quantitative data collecting methods. The qualitative methods would include interviews and write-ups while the quantitative method would include the use of questionnaires.

3.3.5.1 Interviews

In this study, however, the interview was utilised as the main data collection method because of the interactive exchange of ideas that it engineers between the inquirer and the inquired.

Tuckman (1994: 356-372) talks of the totally informal and conversational interview, the highly structured one and one that has fixed and closed responses. Brown and Dawling (1998: 59-82), talk of unstructured and structured interviews. The researcher settled for the structured interview which, according to Brown and Dawling (ibid) works on a loose set of guidelines and has open ended questions, which enable the interviewee to give a comprehensive answer.

Brown and Dawling (ibid) also argue that such an interview allows the interviewer flexible questioning and rephrasing of questions depending on the kind of stumbling block to be detoured. Their opinion is supported by Douglas (1985: 22) who says loose guidelines generate creative interviewing, which enables the interviewer to change communication in order to meet requirements of varying situations that might arise during the process of data collection.

3.3.5.2 Justification for the use of an Interview as a Data Collecting Method Instrument

Wamahui and Karugu (1995: 114-120) view an interview as one of the most effective means of getting in-depth information on any given phenomenon. They
consider information gathered using an interview as one of an inner nature as opposed to one of an outward nature that is obtained by using quantitative methods or instruments.

Thomas (1998: 81-133) argues that an interview has the advantage of lending itself to rephrasing of questions if the need arises. Miller and Glassner (1998: 103-105) say that this flexibility in question formulation makes interviews reliable and effective meaning-making occasions for the interviewer as he is able to probe horizontally and vertically until the truth emerges.

Holstein and Gubrium (1998: 113-119) believe an interview gives the interviewee a moral boost as the interviewee sees sincerity on the part of the interviewer as he creates time to talk to him and share feelings and deepest thoughts about a given phenomenon. Tuckman (1994) rightly summarises the importance and value of an interview when he says one of the most effective ways of finding out the truth about a phenomenon is to ask questions of the people who are involved with it (phenomenon) in one way or another.

Thomas (1998: 81-133) also develops the idea of moral boosting by saying it emanates from the interviewees feeling of providing valued opinion for which the interviewer is prepared to spend much time and money on in order to access them.

Thomas (ibid) also looks at interviews as very valuable sources of the truth about phenomenon since the interviewer is able to get further meaning from non-verbal reactions and emotions provoked by the interview questions. Brown and Dawling (1998: 59-82) describe this dimension of the interview as an activity that mirrors the limitations of the questionnaire, which does not provide the valuable chance of availing non-verbal communication to the interviewer.
3.3.5.3 **Write-ups**

These were used to support the interview method, which has the potential to be affected by the interview situation since there would be a recording gadget. The formal nature of the interview could affect the amount and quality of data to be collected. Hence, the need to provide respondents with the opportunity to do write ups in a free and relaxed atmosphere.

3.3.5.4 **Questionnaires**

The researcher used questionnaires to get information from over 400 BEDEAPPS graduates and from 40 first year BEDEAPPS students scattered all over Zimbabwe. The questionnaire was chosen because of the number of respondents involved and their wide dispersion, which could be very expensive to manage if any alternative methods were to be preferred.

3.3.6 **Reliability and Validity**

3.3.6.1 **Reliability**

In this study, the term reliability was used to mean: the degree to which the findings are independent of accidental circumstances of the research (Kirk and Miller, 1986: 203).

Such a situation guarantees consistency of results in the event of replication of the research (Linn and Gronlund, 1995: 47-48).

Since the researcher is going to utilise, besides other instruments, the in-depth interviewing, which is exploratory in nature, and one that will be on tape, which is playable over and over again to ensure authenticity of findings, it will, thus, be possible to ensure that non-relevant information is accidentally incorporated.

Reliability was also enhanced by transcribing the interview in order to use the tape and the transcribed version in a complimentary manner (Schunan, 1992: 17-
19). Schunan (ibid) also emphasises the importance of recording all non-verbal signals such as coughs, laughs, signs and pauses, which are part of the interviewing process as they help to convey important responses to the interviewer’s questions.

Schunan (1982: 17-19) further recommends that outside noises like telephone rings and interruptions that occur on tape either because of a mechanical fault or human interference should be taken note of to expose accidental circumstances, which should not be allowed to unduly affect the process and findings of the research.

The researcher also ensured reliability by using write-ups from various sections of the population as well as units that interacted with the population. These non-members of the research population included Heads of Schools and Education officers. Any issues of controversy or diversions and deviations from units within the population were noted and discussed objectively in order to retain and maintain reliability of instruments used in data collection.

3.3.6.2 Validity

In this study, validity was understood to mean the ability of an instrument to provide data that are true to what is being studied (Harallambos, 1990) and Babbie (1992: 129-133). If an instrument can provide data which are true to what is being studied, it logically follows that such data can, with some degree of caution, be generalised to the population from which participants of the research process were drawn. Such an instrument would also ensure that distortions from extraneous variables are extensively done away with, thereby ensuring that there is both external and internal validity (Borg and Gall, 2002: 404-405).
Schunan (1982: 59-86) argues that validity in case studies is enhanced by the mutual trust that is generated between the interviewer and the interviewee. Moreover, the responses of interviewees can be compared with those of their colleagues to determine the level of their sincerity and trustworthiness of answers provided. With interviews being taped and transcribed, it was possible that high level of validity was achieved since input from various interviewees can be closely monitored and scrutinised. Holstein and Gubrium (1998: 113-119) also argue that validity is further enhanced by the fact that interview data are unavoidably collaborative thereby making it highly unlikely that irrelevant data can find their way into the research system.

Validity of instruments was further ensured by use of a variety of instruments, which included interviews, write-ups and questionnaires. Such a diversity of instruments was expected to provide enough ground of ensuring validity of data collected by these instruments as the various instruments would be capable of providing checks and balances to the data collecting processes.

3.4 DATA ANALYSIS METHOD

Merriam (1988: 2-27) points out that the end product of a case study can primarily be descriptive, interpretative or evaluative. Merriam (ibid) says the descriptive structure involves a detailed account of a phenomenon under study while the interpretative structure involves description and development of concepts, which support or challenge the theoretical assumptions that existed before data were gathered. Merriam (1988: 2-27) also states that the evaluative structure involves description, explanation and judgment.

The three categories of the end product of a case study provided by Merriam (1998: 2-27) show that analysis of data gathered in a case study is generally presented descriptively. The researcher, in this case study, presented findings in a descriptive manner while, whenever the need arose, responded to specific requirements of the case study on teacher
education in an Open and Distance learning environment, using statistics and related responses.

This means the analysis would not rule out use of statistical methods, which the researcher used whenever the need arose – especially when analysing data collected using survey related data collecting instruments. However, according to Patton (1990: 376-379), data from unstructured interviews tend to be voluminous and less easily summarised in numerical form. This then leaves the researcher with no other major analysis option besides the descriptive one. Thus, the researcher mainly reported and analysed descriptively (Denzin and Lincoln, 1994: 261-265) to meet the analysis requirements of data collected when qualitative research methodology has been utilised though limited quantitative analysis was employed to cater for quantitatively collected data.

3.5 LIMITATIONS OF THE RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The research methodology had a wide range of limitations. It should be noted that the study was dealing with a widely dispersed population. Such dispersion would inadvertently leave out very critically informative members of the populations. The dispersion, coupled with serious remoteness of some places, was capable of generating an acute rate of none returns, which again might deprive the researcher of very important information. The population dispersion was also capable of resulting in high postage expenses.

The planned taped interviews could cause unnecessary uneasiness among the interviewees, thereby diluting their final input into the research. Most of the intended interviewees, being civil servants, could not be comfortable with being taped as they might suspect that such information might be used in a manner that compromises their positions as civil servants.
The case study is believed to be less thorough than an ethonography due to the rather limited duration of the case study (Sturman, 1999: 103-109), but was chosen because of the rather long duration of the ethnography which this research could not accommodate.

The researcher was a fulltime employee, who had to create time for this important assignment. Due to pressure of work, the researcher would not have enough time to adequately and conclusively deal with issues involved in this research.

However, the researcher hoped to limit the effects of the limitations described above by:

- Seeking the assistance of regional centres to distribute questionnaires. This would make even remotest of places accessible and would also limit the number of none returns.
- Making interviewees as comfortable as possible by explaining to them the importance of the research findings to their own professional development. The researcher would also assure them that their names would remain anonymous.
- Budgeting time available in a very shrewd manner that would keep an impeccable balance between time allocated to work related matters and time allocated to the research.
- Using supporting data collecting instruments to the interviews with even the use of quantitative data collecting instruments to maximise the chances of having all relevant data collected and to ensure the use of as many units as was possible. This diversified the data collecting points, thereby making the data collecting process robust.

3.6 CONCLUSION

Chapter 3 dealt with aspects of the research design, sampling methods and the size of the sample and the research instruments. Chapter four dwells on data presentation and analysis.
CHAPTER 4

DATA PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS

4.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter three provided information on methodology. Chapter four provides an opportunity for data collected to be presented and analysed with emphasis on its relevance to the problem discussed in chapter one that of an analysis of the value of the Bachelor of Educational Planning and Policy Studies offered by the Zimbabwe Open University as a further teacher education programme for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe.

The researcher had initially intended to use the interview method as the main data collecting instrument with limited back up from questionnaires and write-ups, but this strategy had to be abandoned because of serious logistical problems that the researcher encountered.

This then necessitated the provision of detailed questionnaires for various stakeholders and write-ups that created a more relaxed environment for the sampled group. This also meant that the interviewees had to be reduced from the intended total of 8 interviewees to 4. This unavoidable and yet progressive change of strategy resulted in the use of the seven data collecting instruments listed below.

The data presented and analysed below were collected using seven different instruments which were:

- Questionnaire for BEDEAPPS graduates
- Questionnaire for BEDEAPPS students who completed the first semester
- Questionnaire for Education Officers
- Write-up for BEDEAPPS graduates
- Write-up for full-time lecturers on the BEDEAPPS degree programme
- Write-up for heads of schools with BEDEAPPS graduate teachers
Recorded interviews of heads of schools and BEDEAPPS graduates.

4.2 DATA PRESENTATION

4.2.1 The Questionnaire for BEDEAPPS graduates

Out of 400 questionnaires sent, which was 20% of the total number of Bachelor of Educational Administration, Planning and Policy Studies (BEDEAPPS) graduates churned out by the Zimbabwe Open University as at the end of the 2003 academic year, a total of 111 returns were recorded. This was slightly more than 20% of the expected respondents.

Among these 111 respondents, 63 were male and this figure translated to 56.8% of the total returns, while 48 of the respondents were female, whose number translated to 43.2% of the total number of returns recorded.

The respondents were a mixed bag in that they graduated either from the Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU) or from training colleges at different and varying times. However, it was clear that respondents interpreted the term graduation differently, thereby generating graduation dates ranging from 1972 when no Zimbabwe Open University was in existence, to the year 2003. What is of importance is the range of experiences found in the participants of the survey.

Listed in table 4.1 are years of graduation, number of respondents for that year and their percentage value as a percentage of the total respondents.
Among the respondents, 73 or 65.8% were first degree holders (BEDEAPPS) while 9 or 8.1% were holders of a masters degree (MEDEAPPS) besides their first degree, which was the BEDEAPPS degree. However, 29 or 26.1% failed to provide a satisfactory answer to this question, thereby making their contributions non-relevant.

Of the 111 respondents, 82 or 73.9% were class teachers while 29 or 26.1% were in administrative positions as heads of schools or education officers.

The respondents were of varied work experiences. Table 4.2 below shows the experience ranges and the number of respondents falling in each of the ranges.
Table 4.2 Experiences of respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Experience range</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Number of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 – 5 years</td>
<td>10%</td>
<td>11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 – 10 years</td>
<td>13%</td>
<td>14</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 – 15 years</td>
<td>28%</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 – 20 years</td>
<td>38%</td>
<td>42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Above 20 years</td>
<td>9%</td>
<td>10</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>3%</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
<td>111</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q.7 Question seven asked respondents to give their views on various areas of ability given by the BEDEAPPS degree programme and the following responses were recorded as shown in table 4.3 below.
### Table 4.3  Views on various areas of ability by the BEDEAPPS degree programme

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area developed</th>
<th>Response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Can develop curriculum for primary school classes</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>88.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to organise and manage a primary class</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>88.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to relate well with fellow teachers and parents</td>
<td>108</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>97.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to evaluate and assess pieces of work produced by primary school pupils</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>87/4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to conduct lessons effectively</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>81.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to plan lessons efficiently</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>82%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to teach effectively each of the subjects on the primary school timetable</td>
<td>76</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>68.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to clearly understand each pupil as an individual</td>
<td>90</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>81.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ability to have a deeper understanding and appreciation of subjects taught in primary schools</td>
<td>82</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>73.9%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Q.8  On whether the module Managing Schools made them feel more like managers as opposed to being good classroom teachers, the responses were as listed in Figure 4.1 below.
On whether the module Managing Schools gave the respondents the ability to make sound management decisions during classroom situations, responses were as contained in Figure 4.2.
The responses on whether the module Leadership and Supervision helped the respondents to provide good leadership in classroom situations, were as shown in Figure 4.3.

**Figure 4.2  Managing Schools module ability**

![Bar chart showing the number of respondents by level of agreement.](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>No response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Series1</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>47</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Figure 4.3  Leadership and Supervision module**

![Bar chart showing the number of respondents by level of agreement.](image)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
<th>Agree</th>
<th>Neutral</th>
<th>Disagree</th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>No response</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Series1</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
On whether the module Leadership and Supervision was only useful to a teacher who intends to assume leadership roles within the school and the community, responses recorded in Figure 4.4 were obtained.

**Figure 4.4  Module Leadership and Supervision**

![Figure 4.4](image)

Respondents gave answers listed in Table 4.4 below on their reaction to the suggestion that the module Introduction to Policy Studies helped them to contribute positively to issues related to education policies as they affect teaching in primary schools.

**Table 4.4  Module Introduction to Policy Studies**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of response</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>53.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>37</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>1.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>111</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
On the issue of the module Introduction to Policy Studies being inappropriate for operatives like primary school teachers, responses listed in Table 4.5 were recorded.

Table 4.5 Inappropriateness of Introduction to Policy Studies module for primary school teachers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of response</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>12.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>14.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>27.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>29.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>111</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents reacted to the suggestion that the module Curriculum Planning Implementation Change and Innovation enables BEDEAPPS graduates to assess suitability of curricula used at various levels of primary school education in ways recorded in Table 4.6 below.

Table 4.6 Module Curriculum Planning Implementation Change

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of response</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>55.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>42</td>
<td>37.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>3.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>111</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The suggestion that the module Staff Development Programmes in Educational Research helped BEDEAPPS graduates to become active researchers in
classroom and school based educational issues received reactions listed in Figure 4.5 below.

**Figure 4.5  Module Staff Development Programmes in Educational Research**

The 111 respondents gave responses depicted in Figure 4.6 below on the suggestion that the module Role of Instructional Leader improved their lesson planning and presentation skills.

**Figure 4.6  Module Role of Instructional Leader**

---

110
The suggestion that the module Introduction to Research methods made BEAEAPPS graduates aware of how research in their own classroom situation can be carried out for the benefit of their school and the whole education set up got the responses as shown in Figure 4.7

**Figure 4.7 Module Introduction to Research Methods**

On whether the module Measurement and Evaluation made the BEDEAPPS graduates both effective and objective assessors of their classrooms set up, the 111 respondents gave answers listed in Table 4.7 below

**Table 4.7 Module Measurement and Evaluation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of response</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>64</td>
<td>57.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>111</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The 111 respondents reacted in ways shown in Figure 4.8 below to the suggestion that the tutorials provided by the Zimbabwe Open University gave them adequate assistance that enabled them to successfully go through their BEDEAPPS programme.

Figure 4.8 Assistance provided by ZOU Tutorials

On the need for more contact hours and facilities to enable students to get much needed attention and assistance to do well in their studies, the 111 respondents gave responses listed in table 4.8 below.

Table 4.8 Assistance from contact hours and facilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of response</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>63.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>23</td>
<td>20.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>2.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>6.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>111</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The suggestion that the inclusion on the subjects menu for the BEDEAPPS degree programme of modules on Philosophy, Sociology and Psychology of Education would make the programme more meaningful to a primary school teacher, received reactions recorded on Figure 4.9.

**Figure 4.9 Inclusion of Philosophy, Sociology and Psychology of Education on BEDEAPPS degree programme**

![Bar chart showing responses](chart.png)

The 111 respondents gave answers listed in Table 4.9 below to the suggestion that supervised classroom teaching should be added to the BEDEAPPS programme to make it more relevant to a classroom practitioner.
### Table 4.9  Addition of Supervised Classroom Teaching

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of response</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>40</td>
<td>36.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>34</td>
<td>30.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>9.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>9.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>111</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The respondents named modules listed in Table 4.10 below which appeared irrelevant to a classroom teacher but whose content could be easily transferred to classroom teaching requirements and skills.

### Table 4.10  Irrelevant modules

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Module</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Collective bargaining</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>7.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Politics and Administration</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy studies</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing schools</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership and Supervision</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business Administration</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No responses</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>84.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>111</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked whether teaching standards had improved since the ZOU BEDEAPPS graduates started playing their roles as class teachers and they gave responses listed in Table 4.11 below.
Table 4.11  Contribution from BEDEAPPS graduates to teaching standards

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Response</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Results changed because graduates were effectively trained</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>41.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results changed because of staff development programmes for non-graduate organised by graduates</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>0.9%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need to conduct a survey in order to reach an informed decision</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistics are not available at the moment</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Results have not improved due to lack of resources</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>19.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>32</td>
<td>28.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>111</td>
<td>100.0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The 111 respondents were asked to describe areas of their professional lives which they felt were not adequately addressed by the BEDEAPPS programme they studied for and they provided answers listed below:

- 17 respondents felt the programme did not adequately deal with classroom practice.
- 15 respondents felt the programme did not adequately deal with the area of information technology.
- 13 respondents felt they needed more information related to the Philosophy, Sociology and Psychology of education.
- 4 respondents felt they needed to take up an in-depth study of a subject area related to primary school teaching.
- 5 respondents felt they needed exposure to guidance and counselling as primary schools also needed it.
- 4 respondents felt they graduated without exposure to a co-curricular subject like sports and home economics.
- 5 respondents felt the area of staff development and supervision was not adequately dealt with.
- 2 respondents felt the programme did not give them enough exposure to conflict resolution in schools.
- 46 respondents did not provide an answer to this inquiry.

4.2.2 Questionnaire for BEDEAPPS current students who are in their first year of study

Forty (40) questionnaires were distributed to all the ten regions where Zimbabwe Open University (ZOU) offices are located. However, by the time of the data presentation process, only returns from the following five regions had been received:

Harare Region       11  
Manicaland Region    4   
Mashonaland Central Region    4  
Matebeleland South Region    2   
Mashonaland East Region       1  
Total                  22

A total of 22 respondents sent back their questionnaires out of the 40 questionnaires that had been distributed.

There were 10 male respondents and 12 female respondents. Among these respondents, ten were holders of a Diploma qualification while 11 were holders of a teachers’ certificate. One respondent gave a description, which could not be easily classified.
In table 4.12 a, b and c listed below are skills, which the respondents who are primary school teachers hoped to acquire by studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme. The respondents were requested to name three skills. Thus tables 4.12 a, b and c arose from the multiple responses of the 22 respondents.

**Table 4.12 (a) Three skills acquired from BEDEAPPS degree**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of skill</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership skills</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>54.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervision skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative skills</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management skills</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4.12 (b) Three skills acquired from BEDEAPPS degree**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of skill</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Lecturing skill</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervisory skills</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>27.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management skills</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation of social policies skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching skills</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>27.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.12 (c) Three skills acquired from BEDEAPPS degree

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of skill</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrative skills</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management skills</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Implementation of social policies skills</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teaching skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>13.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Planning skills</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Statistics compilation skills</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>31.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked which three subjects offered by the ZOU would enable them to acquire the three skills described in tables 2.12 (a), (b) and (c) and their responses are contained in table 2.13 (a), (b) and (c) below.

Table 4.13(a) Three subjects offered by the ZOU which enable them to acquire the three skills above

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Staff Development</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to Policy Studies</td>
<td>11</td>
<td>50.0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Planning</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership &amp; Supervision</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>100.0%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.13(b) Three subjects offered by the ZOU which enable them to acquire the three skills above

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Change Process in Education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Planning</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership &amp; Supervision</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>54.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Introduction to Statistics</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing Schools</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.13(c) Three subjects offered by the ZOU which enable them to acquire the three skills above

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Change Process in Education</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership &amp; Supervision</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managing Schools</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>63.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As asked whether the respondents enrolled for the BEDEAPPS degree programme to further their studies, they provided answers given on Figure 4.10 below.

Figure 4.10 Whether respondents enrolled for BEDEAPPS degree to further their studies
Their explanations to their reaction to the question on whether they enrolled for the BEDEAPPS degree programme to further their teaching capabilities were as listed below.

- 8 out of 22 respondents gave the explanation that they enrolled in order to improve their teaching methods.
- 5 out of 22 respondents gave the explanation that they wanted to fully understand policies to have a better implementation process.
- 2 out of 22 respondents said they felt lacking in their teaching capabilities and thus decided to address this problem by enrolling for the BEDEAPPS degree programme.
- 2 out of 22 respondents gave the explanation that the BEDEAPPS degree programme would widen their reasoning capacity.
- 1 out of 22 respondents enrolled in order to move with time.
- 4 out of 22 respondents did not give a response.

Asked whether the respondents considered themselves less qualified teachers than their colleagues who hold BEDEAPPS degree programmes, they responded as reflected in figure 4.11 below.

**Figure 4.11 Whether respondents considered themselves less qualified teachers than those with BEDEAPPS degrees**

![Pie chart showing responses: 21 No, 1 Yes]
The respondents’ explanation to answers reflected in Figure 4.11 were as described below:

- 12 out of 22 respondents felt they needed knowledge to enable them to run schools using better management styles.
- 2 out of 22 respondents gave the explanations that they were aware that promotion was based on performance and better qualifications, which could only be obtained by enrolling for the BEDEAPPS degree programme.
- 2 out of 22 respondents said they were of the opinion that the BEDEAPPS graduates were more confident than they were as non-BEDEAPPS graduates.
- 1 out of 22 respondents gave the explanation that BEDEAPPS graduates earned more money than they did.

However, 5 out of 22 respondents did not provide an answer.

Asked whether the BEDEAPPS graduates produced better examination results than those produced by college-trained teachers, the respondents gave answers reflected on Figure 4.12 below.

**Figure 4.12 Do BEDEAPPS graduates produce better examination results than those produced by college-trained teachers?**

![Pie chart showing 59% Yes and 41% No.]

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Respondents were asked to give three areas in which they would help their colleagues if they eventually attained their BEDEAPPS degrees and they provided responses reflected on Tables 4.14a, 4.14(b) and 4.14(c).

Table 4.14(a) Three areas in which they would help colleagues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area in which assistance could be offered to colleagues</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Change Processes in Education</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administration qualities</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership &amp; Supervision</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.14 (b) Three areas in which they would help colleagues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area in which assistance could be offered to colleagues</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Staff Development</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Policy</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Educational Statistics</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leadership and Supervision</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>13.8%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Implementation and Innovation</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Running Departments</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Handling of Change</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication skills</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.14 (c) Three areas in which they would help colleagues

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Area in which assistance could be offered to colleagues</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Leadership and Supervision</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum Implementation and Innovation</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy making &amp; Implementation</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>12</td>
<td>54.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked whether they realised any change in their attitude towards their work as class teachers now that they had completed at least a semester in their BEDEAPPS studies and 21 out of 22 indicated they felt changes while 1 respondent did not give an answer.

Respondents were asked to assess the effect that the BEDEAPPS degree has had so far on their lives as teachers and they gave answers listed below.

- 2 respondents described it as a very useful programme.
- 14 respondents described it as a fairly useful programme.
- 5 respondents said the effect was yet to be realised.
- 1 respondent gave no response to the inquiry.
19 respondents indicated that they were looking forward to the next semester while 2 indicated that they were not.

- 1 respondent did not give an answer.

Reasons for the answers given above were as described below.

- 3 respondents out of 22 indicated that they were looking forward to the next semester because they were hoping to attain a higher qualification.

- 3 out of 22 respondents said they were looking forward to the next semester because they had started seeing improvement in their work.

- 2 out of 22 respondents indicated that they were looking forward to the next semester because they wanted to learn more on administrative issues.

- 6 out of 22 respondents indicated that they were looking forward to the next semester because learning was quite exciting for them and were thus quite eager to get into the next semester.

- 8 out of 22 respondents did not provide responses.

Respondents were asked if after not doing well in their examination they had anything that would urge them to continue with their studies and their responses were as reflected on Figure 4.13.
Figure 4.13 Is there anything that would urge you to continue even after not doing well in the examination

Explanations to responses on Figure 4.14 were as follows:

- 6 out of 22 respondents said they would continue because they had the zeal to obtain a degree.
- 4 out of 22 respondents said they would continue studying because failing did not mean the end of the road.
- 1 respondent out of 22 said they would continue studying because of the competition on the job market.
- 11 respondents did not provide any answers.

20 out of 22 respondents indicated that they were proud to be students of the ZOU but 1 respondent said they were not proud to be students of the ZOU while one did not provide a response.

Explanations to answers to being proud or not being proud to be students of the ZOU were as given below.

- 2 respondents out of 22 gave the reason that their pride emanated from the ZOU’s ability to produce very good students.
- 5 out of 22 respondents said they were proud to be students of the ZOU because they got the opportunity to further their education.
- 5 out of 22 respondents said their pride emanated from the fact that successful completion of the programme offers a lot of benefits.
- 1 respondent gave the reason that their studies were enabling them to gain a lot of administrative skills.
- 1 respondent gave the reason that being a ZOU student had a lot of prestige attached to it.
- 1 respondent gave the reason that the degree they were studying for was also offered by other Universities thereby making it an attractive qualification.

However, seven (7) respondents out of 22 did not provide responses.

Respondents were asked if they considered distance education an effective way of offering a degree like the BEDEAPPS degree and their responses were as given in Table 4.15 below.

**Table 4.15 Do you consider distance education an effective way of offering a degree like the BEDEAPPS**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of response</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>There is time to do research and write assignments</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>There is enough time with tutors before handing in assignments</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Students have the chance to read and study on their own</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>22.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not effective for rural teachers because of lack of libraries</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unclassified.</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>36.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Respondents were asked if they thought distance education in general was an effective way of training teachers and responses were as recorded in Table 4.16 below.

Table 4.16 Do you think distance education is an effective way of training teachers?

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of response</th>
<th>No of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>It is very effective</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>27.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>One is able to learn and work at the same time</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Effective but requires a lot of dedication &amp; commitment</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>18.2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>45.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Respondents were asked whether they intended to continue teaching or would want to have a change of jobs after attaining a BEDEAPPS degree qualification and their responses were as given on Figure 4.14 below.

Figure 4.14 Do you intend to continue teaching after attaining a BEDEAPPS degree?
Respondents were asked to describe in a sentence or two the changes they hoped to effect in their classes when the new school term begins and responded in ways reflected on Tables 4.17(a) and 4.17(b) below.

**Table 4.17(a)  What changes do you hope to effect in your class at the beginning of the new school term?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of change</th>
<th>No of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Creating extra time with pupils</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good class management styles</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>A changed attitude towards pupils</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Interchanging of roles between the boy child and the girl child</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Reading skills using the cyclic method</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2</td>
<td>9.1%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Making pupils learn through discussion</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>New teaching strategies</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>36.4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4.17(b)  What changes do you hope to effect in your class at the beginning of the new school term?**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of change</th>
<th>No of respondents</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Good class management styles</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good teaching strategies</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Communication skills</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>13.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>17</td>
<td>77.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>22</strong></td>
<td><strong>100%</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4.2.3 Questionnaire for Education Officers

The researcher was allowed to distribute six questionnaires to six Education Officers stationed in Harare, who were known to have enough experience that would enable them to provide an outsider with relevant information. The six Education Officers provided a 100% return rate.

Of the six Education Officers who completed the questionnaires, four were male Education Officers while two were female Education Officers.

Five of the six respondents had a work experience of between 15 and 20 years while the sixth one had a work experience of over 20 years.

Using the Ministry’s assessment criteria, the six respondents were asked to list desirable qualities possessed by primary school teachers who hold the BEDEAPPS degree certificate offered by the Zimbabwe Open University. Their responses are reflected in tables 4.18(a), 4.18(b), 4.18(c) below.

Table 4.18(a) Desirable qualities possessed by primary school teachers with the BEDEAPPS degree from the ZOU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Desirable quality</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They are quite good at class management</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use various teaching methods</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They are quite knowledgeable and quite effective in their duties</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Table 4.18(b) Desirable qualities possessed by primary school teachers with the BEDEAPPS degree from the ZOU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of desirable quality</th>
<th>No. of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Use various teaching methods</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>They are knowledgeable and quite effective in their duties</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Aware of different educational policies</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Knowledgeable in whatever they do</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.18(c) Desirable qualities possessed by primary school teachers with the BEDEAPPS degree from the ZOU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of desirable quality</th>
<th>No of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>They are knowledgeable and quite effective in their duties</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Always make reference to syllabus</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Openness in their operations</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrators in their own right</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 4.18(d) Desirable qualities possessed by primary school teachers with the BEDEAPPS degree from the ZOU

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of desirable quality</th>
<th>No of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Knowledgeable in whatever they do</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Administrators in their own right</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Respondents were asked to describe skills areas that still required attention even though these teachers were BEDEAPPS graduates. Their responses are reflected in tables 4.19(a), 4.19(b), 4.19(c) and 4.19(d).

**Table 4.19(a)  Skills areas that still require attention**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills areas requiring attention</th>
<th>No of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Philosophy, Psychology and Sociology should be included</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Improvement in the area of marking and lesson instruction</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Need deeper theory work</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4.19(b)  Skills areas that still require attention**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills areas requiring attention</th>
<th>No of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Improvement in the area of marking and lesson instruction</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical education is being given very little attention</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deeper theory work need</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Table 4.19(c)  Skills areas that still require attention**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills areas requiring attention</th>
<th>No of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Norms and organisational support for problem solving</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers need to be exposed to computers</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4.19(d)  Skills areas that still require attention

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Skills areas requiring attention</th>
<th>No of respondents</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Effective leadership that initiates problem solving</td>
<td>1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No response</td>
<td>5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>6</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

4.2.4 Write up for BEDEAPPS Graduates

4.2.4.1 Out of 13 selected B.Ed.(EAPPS) graduates scattered throughout the country, 11 returned their write ups and listed below are skills and capabilities each individual respondent believes are possessed by B.Ed.(EAPPS) graduates.

Respondent number one (1) gave the following skills and capabilities:
- Leadership skills
- Administrative skills
- Classroom organizational skills
- Teaching skills
- Lesson preparation skills.

Respondent number two (2) gave the following skills and capabilities:
- Administrative skills
- Supervision skills
- Counselling skills
- Communication skills
- Research skills
- Teaching skills.
Respondent number three (3) gave the following skills and capabilities:
- Leadership skills
- Management skills
- Communication skills

Respondent number four (4) gave the following skills:
- Business management skills
- Resource management skills.

Respondent number five (5) gave the following skills:
- Administrative skills
- Planning skills
- Analysis skills
- Change management skills.

Respondent number six (6) gave the following skills and capabilities:
- Supervision skills
- Computer skills
- Policy implementation skills.

Respondent number seven (7) gave the following skills and capabilities:
- Leadership skills
- Policy formulation and implementation skills
- Resource management skills
- Business management skills
- Evaluation and assessment skills.

Respondent number eight (8) gave the following skills and capabilities:
- Staff development skills
- Organizational skills
- Leadership skills
- Policy interpretation and implementation skills
- Teaching skills.

Respondent number nine (9) gave the following skills and capabilities:
- Leadership skills
- Staff development skills
- Policy interpretation skills
- Ability to put theory into practice.

Respondent number ten (10) gave the following skills and capabilities:
- Leadership skills
- Supervision skills

Respondent number eleven (11) gave the following skills and capabilities:
- Organizational skills
- Communication skills
- Evaluation skills
- Planning skills

4.2.4.2 The eleven respondents gave suggestions for improving the BEDEAPPS degree programme listed below:

Respondent number 1’s suggestions:
- More time to be allocated to computer studies, curriculum innovation and classroom management tutorial sessions.
- Inclusion of an in-depth study that is relevant to the primary schools sector.
Respondent number 2’s suggestions:
- More time needs to be given to teaching skills development
- Emphasis on marking skills to be made
- Training in setting of examinations to be included
- Preparing students for examinations to be included

Respondent number 3’s suggestions:
- Introduction of peer group teaching
- Introduction of micro teaching sessions
- More practical sessions on the use of computers.

Respondent number 4’s suggestions:
- Introduction of demonstration lessons
- Introduction of group teaching sessions.

Respondent number 5’s suggestions:
- Exposure to the administration of schools to be introduced
- Exposure to assessment skills

Respondent number 6’s suggestions:
- More time needs to be allocated to practical computer sessions
- Addition of subjects that equip teachers with classroom expertise.

Respondent number 7’s suggestions:
- Addition of counselling subjects
- Extend the curriculum to include primary class teaching sessions
- The role of a teacher in a classroom situation to be given more prominence
- Addition of teaching theories to widen learners’ knowledge.
Respondent number 8’s suggestions:
- Additional practical sessions on the use of computers
- Inclusion of practical teaching sessions
- Use of performance appraisals as an assessment tool to be included
- Addition of Educational Law as a subject.

Respondent number 9’s suggestions:
- More emphasis to be put on classroom management
- Introduction of teaching practice sessions.

Respondent number 10’s suggestions:
- The curriculum to include subjects taught in the primary school.

Respondent number 11 did not give any suggestions.

4.2.5 Write up for the BEDEAPPS Programme Lecturers

4.2.5.1 The initial intention was to give the write up to a sample of both part-time and full-time lecturers. However, at the request of the Chairperson of the department of Education, the write up was only given to the programme leader and his two programme assistants. The basis of the argument was that these three were involved in the formulation of the programme and so were qualified to make an objective and relevant input to the enquiry.

The three returned their write-ups, giving this group a 100% return rate.

4.2.5.2 The three respondents gave areas of empowerment emanating from acquiring a BEDEAPPS degree, which are listed below.
Respondent number one gave the following empowerment areas:

- Training in educational administration, educational planning and educational policy-making process to improve school governance.
- Develop manpower (teachers) capable of solving educational problems through systematic research.
- Develop an administrator capable of formulating, implementing and evaluating educational policy.

The respondent put an N.B., that said, “The BEDEAPPS degree programme is not meant for primary school teachers but educational administrators”.

Respondent number 2 gave the following areas of empowerment:

- Management and administrative issues
- Planning and strategies in education
- Policy formulation and evaluation in education
- Can carry out research in schools
- Supervisory abilities.

The second respondent added the fact that the BEDEAPPS degree programme goes beyond good practice, but also provides students with a theoretical base, which enables them to be perceptive administrators and managers. This, he further argued, led to the delegation of most supervisory duties to schools, which now have an abundant pool of personnel with supervisory skills who have been churned out through the ZOU’s BEDEAPPS degree programme.

Respondent number 3 gave the following areas of empowerment:

- Helps students to acquire managerial skills, which they may use in their day-to-day lives.
- Prepares students for promotion as deputy heads and heads of schools.
- Helps students to cope with classroom functions like classroom management and assessment of pupils’ work
- Helps students to become leaders wherever they are.

4.2.5.3 Programme lecturers gave shortcomings of the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a further teacher education programme, which are described below:

Respondent number 1 saw no shortcomings on the part of the BEDEAPPS degree programme for the reason that it is only meant to equip teachers with administrative skills and that is what it should be doing.

The second respondent believed that there were no shortcomings to talk about but instead chronicled events, which resulted in many primary teachers enrolling for the BEDEAPPS degree programme. The second respondent said,

Because not many B.Ed. programmes focussing on specific subjects were being offered, there was a tendency for all who needed a degree to opt for the BEDEAPPS degree.

The third respondent saw no shortcomings in the BEDEAPPS degree programme but instead gave a spirited defence of what the whole programme is about. The respondent argued that the BEDEAPPS degree programme was designed to impart leadership and management skills to heads and prospective heads. The third respondent further argued that only two courses, namely, classroom management and measurement and Evaluation had direct relevance to primary classroom practice.

4.2.5.4 The programme lecturers were also asked to comment on the effect of the absence of technology based teaching within ZOU on the
quality of interactions between the BEDEAPPS students and their lecturers.

The first respondent felt there was need for research to be carried out to determine the effect.

The second respondent believed technology-based teaching was not completely absent but goes further to say that there was need to put in place a policy on the provision of technology-based teaching. The respondent also said the absence of a policy on technology-based teaching had effects, which are listed below:

- Students have to rely on the module and face-to-face tutorials
- Students have to bear the huge expense to cover costs of travelling to attend seminars and tutorials or to collect study materials.
- Feedback is often delayed and this does not benefit the student.

The third respondent felt that the absence of technology-based teaching had effects listed below:

- Many students working in rural area find it difficult to communicate with their lecturers
- Creates isolation of students in remote settings
- Students have to wait for the weekend tutorial sessions to have their problems solved.

4.2.5.5 The programme lecturers gave suggestions on how the value of the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a further education programme, could be enhanced.

The first respondent made recommendations listed below:

- Reviewing of all modules
- Rewriting of all modules.
The respondent also recommended the inclusion of financial management courses in the programme.

The second respondent gave recommendations listed below:

- There should be options that allow for specialisation in specific primary, secondary or tertiary levels.
- There should be arrangements for inter-faculty sharing to enable students to select courses from other faculties once the host department has selected the compulsory core courses.
- There should be impact evaluation to determine the success of the programme as it is currently being offered.
- A needs assessment should be made in schools and relevant ministries.

The third respondent gave recommendations, which are listed below:

- Overhauling the whole programme
- Introducing programmes that are more relevant to primary school teachers

4.2.6 Write up for School Heads that have the BEDEAPPS Graduate Teachers

4.2.6.1 Heads of schools, which have BEDEAPPS graduate teachers were given write ups to provide information on important aspects of the primary class teaching activities. Out of a total of 13 write ups distributed, 7 were returned and this represents about 54% of the write ups distributed.

4.2.6.2 The Heads of schools with BEDEAPPS graduates described skills, which are possessed by these graduates as highlighted below.
Respondent number 1 gave the skills possessed as follows:
- Can supervise staff
- Can share decision-making powers with colleagues.

Respondent number 2 gave the skills possessed as listed below:
- Relate well with, and have respect for their colleagues
- Believe in shared decision-making powers
- Use theories to solve problems.

Respondent number 3 gave skill listed below:
- They are good planners
- Are clear about their activities for a given period
- Are able to implement curriculum
- Understand the country’s educational policies.

Respondent number 4 gave the skills listed below:
- Are good at planning day-to-day activities within the school
- Have good leadership skills.

Respondent number 5 gave the skills listed below:
- Possess leadership qualities
- Have supervision skills
- Good planners of their class work
- Have ability to interact with everyone and everybody.

Respondent number 6 gave the skills written below:
- Good leaders.

Respondent number 7 gave the skills listed below:
- Have decision-making skills
- Have managerial skills.
4.2.6.3 Heads of schools with BEDEAPPS graduates were requested to mention areas of competence advantage which the BEDEAPPS graduates have over their colleagues who only hold certificate and teaching diplomas.

Respondent number 1 gave the areas of competence listed below:
- Can handle challenges
- Can solve problems by using theoretical experiences
- Are well disciplined.

Respondent number 2 gave the competence areas listed below:
- Are well disciplined
- Are quite respectful of authority
- Take up tasks as challenges and do them well.

Respondent number 3 gave competence areas listed below:
- Have a good understanding of how schools are administered
- Are able to motivate children
- Are good at curriculum implementation
- Have a clear understanding of staff development issues.

Respondent number 4 gave the competence areas listed below:
- Are capable of making decisions on what can be done and what cannot be done in schools
- Have the confidence to participate in meetings at any level.

Respondent number 5 gave the competence areas listed below:
- Are good leaders.

Respondent number 6 gave the areas of competence listed below:
- Are good leaders.
Respondent number 7 gave areas of competence listed below:
- Ability to achieve goals
- Thorough planning and scheming ability.

4.2.6.4 Heads of schools with BEDEAPPS graduate teachers were asked to give suggestions on areas that require improvement in order to make the BEDEAPPS degree an effective further teacher education programme for primary school teachers. The following suggestions were obtained:

Respondent number 1:
- Addition of a module on counselling children with problems.
- Information on ways of setting examinations
- Information on marking of children’s work.

Respondent number 2
- Supervision
- Setting of tests and examinations
- Record keeping
- Counselling of children with different problems.

Respondent number 3 did not suggest areas requiring improvement.

Respondent number 4:
- Need for more face-to-face tutorials
- Shortening of the duration of the programme since candidates are already holders of a teaching qualification
- Increase accessibility to all teachers in Zimbabwe.
Respondent number 5:
- More face-to-face tutorials
- Use technology in tutorial delivery to increase accessibility
- Shortening the duration of the programme in view of the teaching qualifications of candidates.

Respondent number 6:
- Libraries should have more resources
- Presence of lecturers to be guaranteed
- Reduction of duration of programme since candidates are already holders of a teaching qualification
- Provision of financial assistance to students who need it.

Respondent number 7
- Addition of teaching practice sessions
- Use of technology in teaching to increase accessibility and convenience
- Financial management information to be added.

4.2.7 Presentation of data collected using structured interview schedules

The initial intention to have eight (8) interviewees was overtaken by events due to unforeseen hindrances. The researcher ended up having only four recorded interviews with two each for graduates and heads of schools that have BEDEAPPS graduates on their staff.

4.2.7.1 Presentation of data collected using the structured interview schedule for BEDEAPPS graduates

The order of questions was determined by the prevailing atmosphere and the desire to make the interviewee comfortable.
The two interviewees became teachers by choice and not by accident although they did their training at different colleges.

The two interviewees indicated that their college training experiences equipped them with teaching methods, which enabled them to create a good understanding with their pupils.

The two interviewees directly or by implication, credited their colleges with the ability to handle classes that they were trained to teach. However, one of the interviewees indicated they were ready to teach soon after training while the other one indicated there were a few grey areas which prompted them to enrol for the BEDEAPPS degree programme.

On this achievement since they started teaching, one interviewee mentioned that most of their former pupils did “O” level and went to University while the other interviewee indicated that their biggest achievement rested on their ability to lead others.

One of the interviewees believed some difficult children who they could not teach were a problem and as such made teaching rather problematic especially considering the fact that they had to teach them whether they liked it or not regardless of their being retarded and needing special classes. The other interviewee felt the resistance by other teachers to new ideas they were asked to share with them was a kind of a problem they faced during their teaching experiences after attainment of the BEDEAPPS degree programme.

There was near consensus in the responses of the two respondents to their reason for enrolling for the BEDEAPPS degree programme. One interviewee used the term ‘desire to upgrade themselves’ while the other gave the reason that ‘they wanted to grow professionally’ besides having
envy for their colleagues who had already acquired the BEDEAPPS degree programme.

The two interviewees gave areas of skill, which developed as a result of studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme. One of them gave the ability to participate in discussions in an assertive way and the ability to organise staff development sessions. The other interviewee mentioned the staff development skill, evaluation skills, supervision skill and class management skill, which skills they acquired after studying for the BEDEAPPS degree.

The two interviewees admitted that it was worthwhile studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme as it created changes in the way they operated. By implication, one of the interviewees felt they expanded their knowledge base related to the way they taught children, their assessment methods and the way they administered their work environments. The other interviewee felt there was a change in their understanding of statutory instruments, which are administrative instruments.

The two interviewees agreed on the fact that there was a developmental link between their college training experiences and the BEDEAPPS degree programme. One of the interviewees saw a link in the area of teaching methods while the other interviewee was given the chance to qualify the link, which they described as being very close.

The two interviewees admitted they faced problems as they went about studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme. They quoted lack of resources and lack of time. One of the interviewees mentioned the difficulties they encountered from the school administration, which did not allow them to take time off to look for resources. One of the interviewees actually used the word ‘scrounge’ to describe the way they went about
looking for information resources. The lack of time also affected the way they prepared for examinations with one of the interviewees making reference to the fact that they were mothers yet they were still expected to do their school work on time.

The two interviewees reacted differently to the question of effectiveness of distance education in the training of teachers. One of the interviewees believed distance education was not good enough for initial training, which they believed needed people to be at one place in order to gainfully partake in the training. They, however, recommended distance learning for those advancing who in the case of this study would be doing in-service training as opposed to pre-service training.

The other interviewee believed otherwise since their response was a clear yes and gave the reasons that distance learning gave them enough time to read on their own. They also gave the reason that they were also able to work and study at the same time.

The two interviewees also rated the quality of the interaction between them and their tutors differently. One of them felt project supervision was not well handled because at times tutors gave comments which were confusing. However, this particular interviewee praised the same tutors for the way they handled assignments.

The other interviewee praised the interaction between them and their tutors during project writing and even went further to mention the name of the tutor who gave them invaluable assistance. They would have gone ahead to mention other helpful tutors but had, by the time of the interview, forgotten their names.
One of the interviewees made it clear that they believed it was necessary to maintain and retain tutorials as they were very helpful to students. However, the other interviewee felt delays in marking assignments tended to frustrate students who took tutorial sessions as places where to air their grievances thereby disrupting the smooth running of tutorial sessions.

On the developmental thrust of the BEDEAPPS degree, one of the interviewees felt the programme made them advanced teachers. They also felt that it was proper to use the programme as a further teacher education programme and picked subjects like classroom management, managing schools, research, measurement and evaluation, supervision and statistics as some of the most useful subjects on the programme.

The other interviewee was confident about the usefulness of BEDEAPPS degree programme as a further teacher education programme. They buttressed their argument by saying that for anyone who was proud of their profession, the BEDEAPPS degree programme was the programme to do. It was clear from their presentation that they recognised the existence of other teacher education programmes yet their first choice was the BEDEAPPS degree programme offered by the ZOU.

While the other interviewee saw positives in the BEDEAPPS degree programme, they did not recommend the restriction of all people doing further teacher education to the BEDEAPPS degree programme. They believed this would congest the environment and this they emphasised by giving the selection problems that bedevilled the University of Zimbabwe when it was the only University offering the further teacher education programme.

The two interviewees gave differing opinions on the need for follow up practical supervision of the BEDEAPPS students by the ZOU lecturers.
One of the interviewees recommended the inclusion of a practical supervision component as they would help to highlight the strengths and weaknesses of students in as far as practical teaching was concerned. However, the other interviewee thought otherwise. They believed that it was not necessary to observe teachers in their classroom situations because they would be enjoying the practical experience as they do their work everyday. They went further to recommend an investigation into the need for such practical follow up.

One of the interviewees believed the BEDEAPPS degree programme enhanced their ability to teach as it exposed them to a variety of teaching models. The other interviewee was no longer sure of the roles that were enhanced by the BEDEAPPS degree programme.

One of the interviewees picked poor library facilities as a weakness of the BEDEAPPS degree programme offered by the ZOU. They also believed that absence of practical exposure to the computer and the absence of Educational Philosophy weakened the programme. However, the other interviewee saw no problems with the programme at the moment.

The two interviewees saw nothing wrong with the title of the programme. One of them went further to say teachers are planners and policy makers within their institutions and this made them to believe there was nothing wrong with the name of the programme and all that it contained in as far as primary school teachers were concerned.

One of the interviewees mentioned that some areas in statistics were not relevant to roles and duties of primary school teachers. They also referred to Economics and Accounting, which they believed were not directly linked to their duties. However, this interviewee was quick to say they
would not recommend complete removal of these subjects because they would find them helpful when they were eventually promoted.

One of the interviewees mentioned that they were very strong at teaching methods, which they attained by studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme. The other interviewee did not see anything wrong with making it compulsory for all primary school teachers to study for the BEDEAPPS degree offered by the ZOU because of professional benefits they would attain.

The two interviewees felt they had acquired sufficient skills by studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme and needed no further training to sharpen their skills. However, one of the interviewees felt they wanted to study for a Masters degree in order to sufficiently prepare themselves for promotion. They also intimated that the kind of further training they would opt for was in the form of short courses, which did not necessary culminate in a degree. These short courses would help them to keep abreast with changes.

The two interviewees encouraged their non-degreed colleagues to enrol for the BEDEAPPS degree programme because they would benefit from studying for the degree. One of the interviewees indicated they had influenced a number of their colleagues to join the programme.

The two interviewees agreed there was nothing political about the introduction of distance education.
4.2.7.2 Presentation of Data collected using the structured interview schedule for Headmaster’s of Schools that have BEDEAPPS graduates on their staff

The two interviewees were in agreement on the attributes of teachers who come from teachers’ colleges. One of them mentioned teaching specific subjects and handling of pupils as some of the critical skills possessed by college graduates.

The two interviewees were also in agreement on certain limitations that college graduates had which required upgrading. One of them specifically pointed at teaching of environmental science, religious studies, mathematics and English as specific skills areas that required addressing.

The two interviewees positively described the coming on board of the ZOU. One of them described it as an eye opener while the other described it as a relief to the nation. The two interviewees were also happy with the administrative and professional skills exhibited by BEDEAPPS graduates. They indicated that schools and pupils had benefited from the coming on board of the ZOU.

The interviewees admitted there were noticeable differences between the ZOU graduates and college graduates on their staff with one of the interviewees describing the difference as a vast one which could be measured in kilometres. The two interviewees indicted that the ZOU graduates were very active in staff meetings and were quite supportive to the efforts of the school administrators. The two interviewees indicted that the BEDEAPPS graduates contributed immensely to the process of solving problems related to the teaching-learning processes and general problems affecting the whole school environment.
The two interviewees attributed the existence of changes within their schools to the contributions of the BEDEAPPS graduates. They were credited with the improvement of the standard of teaching and that they contributed positively to the setting of standardised tests. One of the interviewees praised the BEDEAPPS graduates for handling cases involving children and parents in professional ways with the headmaster only coming in to polish up whatever decisions they would have made. They also credited the ZOU BEDEAPPS graduates with improvement of examination results especially at grade seven level.

The two interviewees admitted that their allocation of classes was influenced by the teachers’ possession of the BEDEAPPS degree offered by the Zimbabwe Open University. One of the interviewees went further to say they used these graduates during supervision periods to enable them to assist other teachers to improve their performance.

The two interviewees believed that the BEDEAPPS degree programme is a further teacher education qualification since it helped teachers to improve their performance. The qualification enables graduates to carry out staff inductions, workshops and staff development programmes. The interviewees also intimated that the graduates took leadership roles in various activities within the school, be they sporting or curriculum related activities.

The two interviewees viewed the ZOU BEDEAPPS graduates as promotion material. One of the interviewees made it clear that they would not hesitate to recommend these graduates for promotion. The two concurred on the fact that there was a Ministry regulation that favoured graduates who included the ZOU BEDEAPPS graduates. The two also agreed they would recommend that the BEDEAPPS degree programme be
adopted as a further teacher education programme for teachers in Zimbabwe.

The two interviewees spoke highly of the ZOU BEDEAPPS graduates who they described as suitable candidates for promotion compared to other graduates who would have graduated with other B.Ed. related degrees.

The two interviewees recommended additions to the BEDEAPPS degree programme offered by the ZOU in order to make the graduates more effective as teachers. One of the interviewees recommended the inclusion of a component of subject specialisation since teachers are now expected to handle learners from grade 1 up to A level. The other interviewee recommended the inclusion of Financial Administration as a way of preparing them for leadership roles. They also recommended the inclusion of Counselling to enable them to handle children affected by the HIV and AIDS scourge.

The two interviewees agreed that the BEDEAPPS degree programme was more aligned to administration than it was to classroom teaching. The two interviewees also found it difficult to pick on subjects that could be dropped from the programme on the grounds of being irrelevant. One of the interviewees opted for a polishing exercise as opposed to changing anything.

The two interviewees saw the BEDEAPPS programme as a suitable programme for primary teachers. They believed that the programme made teachers more focused and enabled them to approach issues in an analytical way. The programme, according to the two interviewees, gives teachers confidence and makes them effective and good implementers of various policies. One of the interviewees recommended the introduction
of practical observations in order to enhance the effectiveness of the BEDEAPPS degree programme.

4.3 DATA ANALYSIS

Introductory remarks

The data analysed as evidenced by the data presentation section details was collected using seven instruments, which fall within two categories of data collecting instruments, which are the quantitative and qualitative data collecting instruments. All questionnaires which were quantitative in character had their data analysed using quantitative methods while write-ups and interviews had their data analysed mainly using qualitative methods because of their qualitative character.

4.3.1 Data collected using the questionnaire for BEDEAPPS graduates

The respondents resembled a balanced representation of male and female respondents since males were 52% while females were 48% of the total number of respondents. The total of 111 returns gave a returns percentage of slightly above 20%, thereby making it an acceptable returns usable in a research situation.

The mixed bag of respondents whose graduation dates ranged from 1972 to 2003 gave credibility of findings since the possibility of generational or peer influence was ruled out. The mixed bag created a wide base for objective and sincere responses to questions contained in the questionnaire for BEDEAPPS graduates.

While information available seemed to indicate that only 73 respondents were degree holders of the BEDEAPPS degree programme offered by the ZOU, the researcher correctly assumed that all respondents actually graduated with a BEDEAPPS degree programme offered by the ZOU because the distribution register was based on the institution’s graduation list. It was a matter of failing to
realise that the respondents had to indicate their first degrees and their highest
degrees. The discrepancy was a carry over from the respondents’ failure to give a
correct graduation date, which ended up providing graduation dates dating back to
1972 long before the ZOU was established.

The pool of respondents was dominated by class teachers with 82 of the 111
respondents being full-time class teachers. This structure tended to confirm the
researcher’s observation on that the greater majority of professionals studying for
the BEDEAPPS degree were practising class teachers (section 1.1). The 26.1%
administrative personnel among the respondents, though fairly insignificant, gave
some weight to the argument that that the BEDEAPPS degree programme was put
in place mainly to benefit headmasters and education officers.

The varied experiences reflected in Table 4.1 are further strengthened by Table
4.2 contents, which reflect experiences ranging from 1 to over 20 years of
teaching. This further strengthens the researcher’s belief that responses would be
objective and true if age is anything to go by. The respondents’ teaching
experiences themselves manifest a deep understanding of what teaching is about
and conditions necessary for its improvement.

To some extent, this range of experiences gives the ZOU programme an open
learning characteristic, which is described in 2.1.2 and vividly described by
Rowntree (1992: 8-14) and Keegan (1990: 23). The fact that there is an element
of a limited removal of restrictions on students’ ages helps the BEDEAPPS
programme to be counted among open learning programmes.

Ninety-eight (98) respondents out of 111 confirmed that the BEDEAPPS degree
programme equipped them with the ability to develop curriculum for primary
school classes. This response had a bearing on the inclusion of the module
Curriculum Planning Implementation, Change and Innovation in the BEDEAPPS
degree programme (Table 4.6).
It was also observed that the issue of curriculum development in general was also one of the important aims of college training programmes for primary schools as reflected on 2.1 of Appendix A and 2 of Appendix B. The appendices show that primary school training institutions consider active involvement of their graduates in curriculum development as one of their critical aims in training of primary school teachers. CLOTEP (1996: 6-52) also places ability to interpret and develop curricula high on its aims in teacher education (2.3).

However, though fairly insignificant, there were 8 respondents out of 111 being 7.2% of the respondents, who did not consider that they got curriculum development skills from studying for the BEDEAPPs degree programme. There is need to revisit the communicative nature of the tutoring instrument to put right areas that did not meet the expectations of the eight respondents. This becomes even more necessary when the fact that 4 out of the 111 respondents gave no responses to the question suggesting a decision to remain neutral.

The high response of 98 out of 111 respondents which translated to 88.3% who agreed that the BEDEAPPs degree programme equipped them with the ability to organise and manage a primary school class credits the programme with an important contribution to the professional development of primary school teachers. This ability is also given prominence by COTEP (1996: 6-52) on 2.3.1 page 25 as an important component of teacher education. Cropley and Dave (1978: 29-37) gave this ability similar importance as they argued that a teacher should organise learning situations that positively contribute to the learning process (section 2.3.2).

The Appendix A on college primary training aims highlights on 2.3, the important aim of making trainees effective organisers of the classes. Appendix B mentions sound classroom management as an important objective of the primary teachers training programme.
However, there were 8 out of 111 respondents who saw no such gains from the BEDEAPPS degree programme. Their response was further strengthened by 5 out of 111 respondents who preferred not to give a response. Their cumulative number of 13 out of 111 respondents cannot be ignored and this calls for an evaluation of the programme’s ability to clearly impart the knowledge of organisation and management of primary school classes.

The almost total positive response to the ability of the BEDEAPPS degree programme to equip graduates with the ability to relate well with fellow teachers and parents enables the programme to move in tandem with other training programmes like COTEP (1996: 6-52), which lists proficiency in interpersonal relationships as an important component of the training aspects of South African teachers (section 2.3.1).

MacDonald (1994: 14) on 2.2.2 highlights the importance of a good understanding between the school and the home, which she says makes the school and the home a continuum. Sapackman (1991: 29-52) on 2.3.2 also highlights the importance of a close relationship between the school and home in as far as it positively affects the child’s learning process. Chivore (1992: 45-61) on 2.3.2 further highlights the importance of the relationship between the school and the teacher by mentioning that the teacher’s roles are guided by guidelines that include what the general society expects to get from a teacher at their local school. Popkewitz (1991) and Apple (1982) on 2.4 emphasise this relationship by saying schools are productive and reproductive agents of society. This relationship is implied in Appendix B on section 5 under the subsection on school administration which makes reference to the role of the School Development Association as one of the components that teachers learn about during their training.
However, an insignificant figure of 2 out of 111 respondents or 1.8% observed that the BEDEAPPS programme did not give them anything in the area of good relations between them and fellow teachers and parents. Though their case got the support of 1 respondent who decided not to give an answer, the impact of their contributions bore no much significance.

The 97 out of 111 respondents who answered that the BEDEAPPS degree programme equipped them with the ability to evaluate and assess children’s work gives the programme a quality that has strong relevance to the training process and roles of primary school teachers. COTEP (1996: 6-52) on 2.2.1 highlights the ability to engage in evaluation procedures and assessment techniques in its teacher education programmes.

Parkay and Hardcastle (1990: 8-89) on 2.3.2 indicate that the teacher plays an important role of an evaluator and judge of the pupils’ learning process. Musgrove and Taylor (1975: 15-17) on 2.4 also argue that teachers are expected to be fully equipped with the ability to vet facts resulting in them accepting some and rejecting others to determine the truthfulness of knowledge.

The training of teachers in Zimbabwe is also known to emphasise the trainees’ ability to assess and evaluate children’s work. Appendix A, 3.2 had one of its objectives the ability to evaluate teaching and learning processes. Appendix B, section 3 also refers to the trainees’ ability to evaluate the whole teaching/learning process.

It is equally significant to highlight the fact that 9 out of 111 respondents did not believe the BEDEAPPS degree programme ever equipped them with the ability to evaluate and assess pupils’ work. Five (5) out of 111 respondents’ failure to provide an answer further strengthened the position taken by the 9 respondents. However, their cumulative figure of 14 is overshadowed by the 97 who saw it otherwise.
Effective conducting of lessons imparted by the BEDEAPPS degree programme got the backing of 90 out of 111 respondents who translate to 81.1% of the total respondents. The ability to conduct lessons is backed by Chivore (1992: 13-14) on 2.3.2 where he describes a teacher as a person who instructs. Deiro (1996: 715) on 2.3.2 describes a teacher as a guide, a facilitator of the learning process, while Cropley and Dave (1978: 29-37) on 2.3.2 highlight the mentoring role of the teacher. COTEP (1996: 6-52) on 2.3.1 also, by implication, highlight the importance of the ability to teach by mentioning the ability to facilitate the learner centred approach among its aims in training of primary school teachers.

Appendix A, section 3.5 mentioned the effective demonstration of the knowledge and various skills needed to teach various subject areas as an important objective of the training of primary school teachers in a Zimbabwean set up. Appendix B on section 3 on objectives of the training programme for primary school teachers highlights the ability to present lessons effectively.

Twenty (20) out of 111 respondents who believed otherwise are quite a force to reckon with. This makes it extremely necessary to revisit the programme’s ability to make graduates capable of improving their ability to conduct class lessons.

A total of 91 out of 111 respondents who credited the BEDEAPPS degree programme with equipping them with the ability to plan lessons efficiently gave the programme relevance to the basic training provided by teachers colleges. Appendix A, section 4.1 mentions lesson planning as an important attribute of the training process. The same attribute is highlighted in Appendix B, section 3 on objectives, which include lesson preparation.

However, the programme was found wanting on this aspect by 19 (17.8%) out of 111 respondents. While the number is fairly small, the message has a bearing on
the perceived failure of the programme to address this component of a teachers’ roles.

A lesser number of 76 out of 111 respondents who believed the BEDEAPPS degree programme equipped them with the ability to teach effectively all subjects on the primary school timetable put in doubt the programme’s ability to sufficiently equip graduates with this ability. The fairly high number of 32 out of 111 who believed otherwise is yet another strong indication of the programme’s questionable ability to impart the ability in question. Yet Appendix A, section 3.5 advocates for a teacher training programme that effectively demonstrates ability to impart a sound and firm grasp of the knowledge and various skills needed to teach various subject areas.

The number of 82 out of 111 respondents who believed the BEDEAPPS degree programme equipped them with the ability to have a deeper understanding of subjects taught in primary schools had a fairly big opposing number of 27 out of 111 respondents. This tended to put a good number of questions on the programme’s ability to give graduates such an ability. The absence of a module targeting this aspect further aggravated the level of doubt, (Appendix D).

The ability of a number of the modules taught within the BEDEAPPS programme to impart a given ability was put into perspective as the programme’s evaluation strategy. 51 respondents as is reflected on table 3, strongly agreed that the module Managing Schools made them more of managers than classroom teachers with their position being endorsed by 42 out of 111 respondents who only agreed to the suggestion. This gave a cumulative figure of 93 respondents who were in agreement.

This position got 7 neutral, 7 disagreeing and 4 providing no answer, thereby giving a cumulative figure of 17 respondents, a rather low figure to suggest that the module Managing Schools did not make them feel more like managers than
classroom teachers. However, this rather low figure should also be viewed in light of the 41 respondents, who only agreed as opposed to strongly agreeing giving doubt to their total commitment to the whole framework of agreeing to the suggestion.

This analysis should be viewed together with responses reflected on Table 4.4 on whether the module Managing Schools gave the respondents the ability to make sound management decisions during classroom teaching situations.

Fifty-five (55) respondents or 49.5% strongly agreed to this suggestion with 47 (42.3%) only agreeing giving this general position a cumulative figure of 102 respondents out of 111 respondents. This gave credit to the transfer of knowledge and skills acquired from the module Managing Schools to the classroom management process.

There is further need to refer to the COTEP (1996: 6-52) on 2.3.1 that highlights prospective teachers’ attributes and makes reference to the ability to manage and organise the classroom implying that the general ability to manage, which in the case of the BEDEAPPS degree programme was imparted by the module Managing Schools, was an indispensable component of the primary class teacher’s wide spectrum of characteristics and attributes.

Appendix A section 4.2 reflects the emphasis of training institutions on classroom management and school administration attributes belonging to the general framework of management and organisation. Appendix B section B is even more specific on management as it makes reference to administrative structures at the regional offices, roles of heads of schools and deputies and keeping of school records, information which is all contained in the module Managing Schools for the BEDEAPPS degree programme. Analysis of course content in the module Managing Schools revealed that teaching and management had inseparable characteristics that enable the teacher to teach as they managed their classroom
situations. Moreover, all things being equal, a class teacher should rise into management and an orientation for such roles should rightfully have begun from the micro management of a classroom situation.

The analysis of the impact of the module Managing Schools would be incomplete without reference to the earlier section that had 98 out of 111 respondents who agreed that the BEDEAPPS degree equipped them with the ability to organise and manage primary classes. The fact that a cumulative figure of 102 respondents saw class management benefits accrued from the module Managing Schools gives the impression that the BEDEAPPS degree programme, by including the module Managing Schools on its course outline, strengthened the graduates’ ability to manage classes well, an ability that ripples to the general management and organisation of the entire school. This does not render the opposing respondents redundant but only helps to endorse the positive impact realised by the bigger majority of the respondents.

Figure 4.3 reflects that 58 respondents strongly agreed that the module Leadership and Supervision helped them to provide good leadership in their classroom situations with 37 only agreeing. This gave those agreeing a cumulative figure of 95 (85.6%). The fact that the module Leadership Supervision provides leadership styles and their implications for management has information that is bound to affect anyone in a leadership position that includes a classroom situation presided over by a teacher. When Diero (1996: 7-15) on 2.3.2 described a teacher as a guide indirectly implied that they take a leading role in giving direction to all activities that take place in a classroom teaching situation. The opposing group that includes the neutrals numbering 16 made their contribution against the idea yet did so insignificantly, thus, rendering their contribution rather unimportant and of no consequence to the popular opinion.

The popularised belief above requires further scrutiny in view of the respondents’ contribution to the suggestion that the module Leadership and Supervision was
only meant for those teachers who intended to assume leadership roles. Figure 4.4 shows that 28 respondents strongly agreed to the suggestion while 23 respondents only agreed, giving those agreeing a cumulative figure of 51 respondents representing 46% of the total respondents. Those respondents who decided to remain neutral and those disagreeing and strongly disagreeing, besides those who gave no response, had a cumulative figure of 55 respondents representing 54% of the total number of respondents. This picture then implied that half the respondents saw relevance of leadership and supervision to the classroom situation while the other half saw it otherwise thereby creating need to revisit the role of this module to a class teacher.

Fifty-nine (59) respondents out of 111 respondents (53.2%) strongly believed that the module Introduction to Policy Studies helped them to contribute positively to issues related to educational policies as they affected teaching in primary schools and had their views supported by 37 respondents who simply agreed. This gave the positive response a cumulative figure of 96 out of 111 respondents.

The value of policy understanding is buttressed by Apple’s (1982: 1-6) on 2.4 assertions that education is through and through a political enterprise whose understanding is incomplete without an informed position that emanates from a clear understanding of resultant policies.

The overwhelming response endorsed the importance of exposing teachers to policy guiding their classroom operations. That the BEDAPPS degree programme included the module in the course outline (Appendix D) was not accidental since Appendix B, section B (ii) indicates that primary school teachers undergoing training are exposed to policy circulars thereby making their understanding of the actual policy formulation process a level higher and as such a necessary and appropriate developmental thrust.
The insignificant cumulative figure of 15 out of 111 of those respondents who did not see the importance of the module Introduction to Policy Studies to practising teachers appears completely overshadowed. However, the fact that there were dissenting voices calls for an improvement of the module’s role in a programme that is accessed by primary classroom teachers.

This argument is further strengthened by responses recorded on whether the module Introduction to Policy Studies was inappropriate for operatives like primary school teachers. The fact that a cumulative figure of 86 respondents out of 111 respondents (Table 4.4) did not agree, but, rather endorsed the importance of the module to primary classroom teachers. However, a cumulative figure of 24 respondents who believed the module was inappropriate for primary school teachers is reflective of certain shortcomings of the module, which are only ignored to the detriment of the usefulness of the module to practising primary school teachers.

The fact that a cumulative figure of 103 respondents out of 111 respondents agreed with the statement that the module Curriculum Planning, Implementation Change and Innovation enabled graduates to assess suitability of curricula used at various levels of primary school education, emphasised the importance of the module to primary school teachers. COTEP (1996: 6-52) on 2.3.1 included an attribute related to thinking skills in the curriculum both domain specific and generic further strengthening the argument that there is value in exposing primary school teachers to curriculum development issues.

The 103 respondents who believed the module on Curriculum, Planning, Implementation, Change and Innovation had an influence on the BEDEAPPS graduates to assess suitability of curriculum in primary schools is very close to the 98 respondents who earlier on argued that the BEDEAPPS programme in general equipped them with this ability. This further endorses the validity of COTEP’s
(1996: 6-52) inclusion of the same attribute in its list of attributes of prospective teachers (section 2.3.1).

The importance of knowledge and literacy in curriculum issues among primary school teachers is also emphasised by Carl (2202: 29) who says such knowledge and literacy should be possessed by all persons who deal with curriculum issues, be they at the micro or macro levels. This is from classroom level up to the national level. This will enable them to contribute meaningfully to all matters that relate to the curriculum.

A cumulative figure of 95 respondents out of the total of 111 respondents as reflected on Figure 4.5 confirmed the influence of the module Staff Development Programmes in Educational Research on teachers’ participation in research on classroom practice and school based educational issues. Deiro (1996: 7-15) on 2.3.2 endorsed the need for school based research as it assures that the teachers continue to learn and discover new ideas related to their work and the needs of the pupils they teach. Such class based research, according to Giroux and Maclaren (1989: 32-49) (2.4) helps teachers and pupils to keep pace with change and meet its requirements. Appendix B, section 3 has as one of its objectives the establishment of links between research findings and practical teaching situations. The cumulative number of respondents not agreeing with the influence, which is 16 was deemed rather insignificant and as such, could not interfere with the popular opinion.

Figure 4.6 reflects a cumulative figure of 84 respondents (75.7%) who believed that the module Role of Instructional Leader improved their lesson planning and presentation skills. This module reflected on Appendix D deals with issues related to lesson planning strategies and delivery systems that the teacher might decide to utilise. The critical role of the instructional leader in a learning environment is discussed at length in the module.
Chivore (1992: 13-14) on 2.3.2 describes a teacher as a person who instructs others thereby highlighting the importance of the ability to instruct when one is in a teaching situation. Mamabolo (1996: 67-70) on 2.3.1 refers to the teachers’ ability to enable learners to interact with the phenomenon called education, which, when simply explained, refers to the process of instructing learners on educational issues.

This instructional role receives no mean attention at college training sessions. Appendix A, section 3 has the following instructional related objectives:

- Select, structure and improvise teaching and learning resources for effective delivery of learning experiences.
- Employ a variety of methods, strategies and teaching techniques of organising children’s learning activities.
- Effectively demonstrate a sound and firm, grasp of the knowledge and various skills needed to teach various subject areas.

Appendix B, section 3, has the following instructional objectives:

- Present lessons effectively utilising approaches studied during the training course.
- Use a variety of instructional media and devise their own purposeful materials to promote child centred learning.

It is important to raise the observation that the 84 respondents who believed that they improved their instructional ability by having the module Role of Instructional Leader on their course outline are comparable to 90 respondents who earlier on agreed to the suggestion that the BEDEAPPS degree programme equipped them with the ability to conduct lessons effectively. This suggests that the programme did so by having the module Role of Instructional Leader on its course outline. However, 20 respondents who did not see such benefits from the BEDEAPPS degree programme and 27 who did not believe the module Role of Instructional Leader enhanced their lesson conducting ability are figures too high
to be ignored, thus, generating the need to address the shortcomings of the module.

A total of 27 respondents as reflected on Figure 4.6 who did not take an agreeing position implied shortcomings in the module, which did not appeal to the respondents’ desire to better their instructional capabilities. While an impact could have been made, it was not uniformly felt.

Figure 4.7 reflects a picture similar to the one reflected by Figure 4.5 though the affirmative group on Figure 4.6 was 4 respondents less than those on Figure 4.5. The subject under scrutiny, which was research enjoyed positive responses and as such shared conclusions made with reference to Figure 4.5 and the whole value of research to a practising teacher.

The extent of the impact of the module Measurement and Evaluation on the BEDEAPPS graduates’ ability to assess objectively and effectively (Table 4.7) had 64 respondents, 57.7% of the total respondents strongly agreeing that it did with 32 respondents out of 111 only agreeing to the suggestion. This gave the positive opinion a cumulative figure of 96 respondents, translating to 86.5%.

Musgrove and Taylor (1975: 15-17) on 2.5 advocate the equipping of the teacher with the ability to vet facts existing in a body of knowledge in order to facilitate progressive mental change, which is part of the whole phenomenon called change of which the teacher is a vehicle (Whitaker, 1997, section 2.5). Such change gives education relevance to the existing societal beliefs and aspirations (Gutierrez and Mclaren, 1995: 131-144, section 2.5). This then makes the teacher’s ability to vet and assess even more critical as it helps to keep track of the congruency between the knowledge children are eventually encouraged to assimilate and the general societal and national aspirations and set of beliefs.
The fact that in the earlier parts of this section, it has been recorded that 97 out of 111 respondents concurred with the suggestion that the BEDEAPPS degree programme equipped them with the ability to evaluate children’s work, it further strengthens the same position expressed by an almost equal number of respondents, 96, as reflected on Table 4.7. This further validates the supporting argument by Parkay and Harcastle (1990: 8-89) on 2.4.2 that teachers evaluate and judge pupils work, an attribute that colleges also emphasise as reflected on Appendix A, section 3.2 whose contents have already been referred to in an earlier discussion on whether the BEDEAPPS degree programme equipped the respondents with the ability to assess and evaluate children’s work.

There was a cumulative figure of 80 who translated to 72.1% of the 111 respondents confirming that tutorial sessions offered to BEDEAPPS students by the ZOU gave them adequate assistance that saw them go through their studies (Figure 4.8). This admission is put in doubt by the cumulative figure of 93 respondents, 83.8%, who in Table 4.8 advocated for an increased number of contact hours to enable students to get much needed assistance to do well in their studies.

These two statistics have an implication for the role of open and distance learning among the BEDEAPPS graduates and students and their understanding of it. The fact that, among other things, there is geographical separation (Keegan, 1988 and Halmberg, 1977) that inhibits constant physical contact was by implication decried by the respondents (2.2.1). That they were expected to engage in independent and individualised learning (Rauntree, 1992: 8-14) was either not understood or not appreciated (2.2.2).

This rather oblique view of the ZOU’s pedagogical approach is observable even though open and distance learning for teachers has had shining successes in Australia (2.3.5.1), Ireland (2.3.5.2), Britain (2.3.5.3), Indonesia (2.3.6.2), India (2.3.6.7), South Pacific Islands (2.3.6.10), Nigeria (2.3.8.3) and Tanzania (2.3.8.5)
to name a few countries, which have varying levels of development, various population sizes and varying geographical structures that negate replication of operational modes but rather promote situational and circumstantial ‘modus operandi’ that combine adaptive and adoptive implementation policies.

These views exist regardless of the much-talked-about successes of the ZINTEC programme (2.3.8.6) and visible products, which unfortunately were not singled out in the instrument used. This is the case even though there is clear evidence of successful open and distance learning as evidenced by confirmed individual successes of the Domasi College experiences (Chakwera and Saiti, 1999) and the Messy University College of Education, New Zealand (Anderson and Simpson 2000) (section 2.4.2).

Equally worrisome was the sizeable number of respondents who saw no positive contribution of the few tutorials offered by the ZOU (Figure 4.8). A cumulative figure of 31 possessing such a view casts further doubt on the respondents’ appreciation and understanding of open and distance learning methodologies. However, it could be encouraging to realise that 18 respondents did not advocate for the increase of contact hours at least giving hope that some respondents correctly interpreted the pedagogical viewpoint of the ZOU and similar institutions (Table 4.8).

The value of including modules on Philosophy, Sociology and Psychology of Education on the BEDEAPPS subjects menu was supported by 88 out of 111 respondents (79.3%) (Figure 4.9). These subjects are closely related to methodology issues that are described in both Appendix A and Appendix B. Their inclusion would then create a close link between college training and the ZOU’s BEDEAPPS programme.

Supervised classroom teaching is an important component of the teachers’ colleges training process. Teachers’ colleges utilise peer group teaching, micro-
teaching strategy and observations to enhance this capability (Appendix A, section 4) and their coursework assessment component includes practicals (Appendix A, section 6). This situation is closely related to responses recorded on the issue of the inclusion of supervised classroom teaching sessions (Table 4.9). 74 respondents out of 111 respondents found this agreeable as opposed to a cumulative figure of 37 who did not register a positive response. This implies that there could be need for such an assessment strategy yet the non-positive positions taken by the 37 respondents calls for a convincing justification of its inclusion since the target group are holders of a teaching qualification that heavily relied on practical involvement of trainees in the teaching process.

It is appreciated that the case study examples on 2.4, Domasi and Messy Colleges, used supervised teaching sessions for assessment because they were dealing with pre-service trainees (2.3.3) as opposed to the ZOU’s in-service programme. However, the use of hosting headmasters and education officers is transferable to the in-service process (2.3.1) but would need a backup of many mentors that would not necessarily be part of those hosting schools. However, if Diamond’s (1991: 8-47) (2.3.3) view of in-service as a gap filling process is anything to go by, on knowledge areas that ultimately affects the teaching process, then the inclusion of the practical tutor-supervised teaching might not be that necessary and critical. This view becomes even more important if it is considered that 97 respondents believed they became better evaluators, 90 respondents believed they became better lesson presenters while 91 respondents believed they became better planners by going through the BEDEAPPS programme because they could try out new ideas in their day-to-day teaching experiences which enjoyed the normal supervision of their resident supervisors.

Respondents were given a list of randomly selected modules on the BEDEAPPS subjects menu which do not appear to be directly relevant to classroom teaching and were asked to comment on how knowledge acquired from these modules could be transferred to the classroom teaching situation (Table 4.10). Responses
on the modules Collective Bargaining (8 = 7.2%), Politics and Administration (1 = 0.9%), and Business Administration (1 = 0.9%) gave the opinion that respondents did not see any transfer of knowledge to the classroom situation taking place and this has the potential to affect the concentration levels of BEDEAPPS students studying these subjects. An attempt is however needed to demonstrate their relevance, direct or indirect, to the classroom situation.

However, the equally low number of respondents who viewed the modules Managing Schools and Leadership and Supervision as having a low knowledge transfer rate (Table 14.10) tends to contradict findings reflected on Figure 4.4, where a cumulative figure of 60 respondents out of 111 were of the opinion that the module Leadership and Supervision was not only meant to be useful to a teacher who intended to assume a leadership role. There were 28 respondents who strongly agreed and 18 respondents who strongly disagreed and a figure not less than 18 would have been expected to at least agree to the suggestion that knowledge acquired from this module could be transferred to the classroom situation. The same would have been expected on responses related to the module Managing Schools whose earlier related responses on Figure 4.5 reflected a completely different picture. More surprising though was the large number of 94 non-respondents who tended to confirm the entirely negative attitude of the respondents to the transferability of knowledge provided by the modules on Table 18 to classroom teaching situations.

Forty-six (46) respondents out of 111 respondents who felt teaching standards in schools improved because of impact of the presence of BEDEAPPS graduates was unfortunately less than half of the total number of respondents, thereby diluting the strength of the argument that suggests that BEDEAPPS graduates positively affected teaching standards. However, the fact that as many as 46 respondents (41.5%) viewed the situation that way gives the BEDEAPPS degree programme considerable credit as a further teacher education qualification.
Moreover, the fact that 22 out of 111 respondents did not blame the lack of improvement on results on the quality and nature of the BEDEAPPS degree programme but on absence of resources was an indication that the programme was not faulty or deficient. The 32 non-respondents created the impression that the impact of the BEDEAPPS graduates on the improvement of teaching standards in primary schools was not at all outstanding. It would be folly to ignore the suggestion that a survey needed to be carried out and that there were no statistics available to confirm this position.

The few respondents who mentioned areas of their professional lives that were not adequately addressed by the BEDEAPPS degree programme tended to weaken the impact of the weaknesses of the individual areas although the cumulative figure of 65 respondents who identified weaknesses indicated presence of weaknesses within the programme. The biggest single group was 17 respondents who felt the programme did not adequately deal with classroom practice while the smallest number was 2 respondents who felt conflict resolution was not adequately dealt with. However, the objectivity of respondents on this aspect cannot be doubted as they picked on areas that are currently emphasised in primary schools. These areas include information technology, sociology, psychology and philosophy of education, guidance and counselling and co-curricular activities. The fact that as many as 46 non-respondents were recorded tended to overshadow the small numbers that characterised the responses to the specific weaknesses.

4.3.2 Data Analysis for Questionnaire for BEDEAPPS current students who are in their first year of study

Whilst not all regions sent in their returns, 5 regions which represented 50% of the total number of regions sent in their returns. The distribution had been done proportionately in accordance with the statistics of the student population in each region.
It was also interesting to note that the 22 respondents represented more than 50% of the total number of questionnaires dispatched throughout the length and breadth of the country with respondents coming from the central area, the eastern, western, the northern and the southern areas of the country. The ratio of urban respondents to rural respondents was 1 is to 1 as 11 respondents came from Harare while 11 came from the predominantly rural regions.

The 22 respondents had the potential to give balanced responses since there were 10 male respondents and 12 female respondents. Even the distribution of their basic teaching qualifications with 10 being Diploma holders while 11 were teachers certificate holders represented balanced opinions of the experiences of engaging in the study for a BEDEAPPS qualification.

The fact that 12 out of 22 respondents (Table 4.12a)) hoped to acquire leadership skills by studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme shows a close relationship with the course content for fresh BEDEAPPS students who do the modules Leadership and Supervision, Managing Schools and Policy Studies in their first semester. The 4 and 3 respondents who respectively hoped to acquire administrative and management skills had a similar influence when they gave these responses. However, their training background, especially those who hold diploma qualifications, also had an influence since they were exposed to studies like Classroom Management and School Administration (Appendix A) Management and Administration and Classroom Management (Appendix B).

Responses recorded on Table 4.12(b) reflect higher numbers of respondents who hoped to acquire supervisory, management and teaching skills with 6, 5 and 6 respondents respectively choosing these skills. These responses indicated the multipurpose potential inherent in the BEDEAPPS programme, which originated from the respondents’ understanding and appreciation of the programme. Though skills like planning and lecturing had one respondent each, the fact that they were ever mentioned indicated the multiple intentions of those at an early stage of their
studies, which intentions had a relationship, close or remote and strong or weak, to the course structure and content (Appendix D) of the BEDEAPPS degree programme.

Emphasis on Supervisory and Administrative skills was reflected in responses recorded on Table 4.12(c) with 4 respondents and 3 respondents respectively expressing hope to acquire Management and Policy Implementation. However, 3 respondents who hoped to acquire planning skills revealed the opinion that the BEDEAPPS degree programme had the ability to improve their classroom practice. Teaching per se, though it enjoyed the support of only 1 respondent, was presented as one of the skills the respondent hoped to acquire by studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme thereby confirming the student’s opinion that the programme was capable of enhancing their classroom practice capabilities.

Respondents chose subjects they believed would enable them to acquire skills reflected in the Tables 4.12(a), 4.12(b) and 4.12(c), which, among the popular skills, were supervision, management, teaching and planning skills. The most popular subjects were Leadership and Supervision, Managing School and Introduction to Policy Studies, whose cumulative figures of respondents [Tables 4.13(a), 4.13(b) and 4.13(c)] were 16, 18 and 11 respectively.

The choice of subjects showed a bias towards administrative and supervisory skills as opposed to classroom teaching skills. The choice had a bearing on the limited exposure to the programme the respondents had enjoyed at the time of the research. Moreover, these answers had no backing of course outlines and course content of all subjects available. Therefore, the chance of providing informed answers remained very remote.

Twenty-one (21) out of 22 respondents, 95.5% of the total number of respondents indicated that they enrolled for the BEDEAPPS degree programme in order to further their studies (Figure 4.10). The word ‘furthering studies’ was deliberately
used to find out if they appreciated that the BEDEAPPS degree programme had the ability to increase skills acquired at teachers colleges where they had trained. In order to discern their understanding of the ‘furthering’ process, the respondents were asked to give explanations to their responses to the question why they enrolled for the BEDEAPPS degree programme.

The fact that a number as big as 8 out of 22 respondents (36.3%) gave the explanation that they enrolled in order to improve their teaching methods gives the BEDEAPPS degree programme a quality related to the classroom practice that class teachers engage in on a daily basis. While only 2 out of 22 respondents felt lacking in their teaching capabilities, their response further strengthens the position taken by the 8 respondents discussed above. This then generates the conclusion that almost 50% of the respondents enrolled for the BEDEAPPS degree programme for the purpose of enhancing their teaching capabilities.

The almost 50% of the respondents whose reasons for enrolling for the BEDEAPPS degree programme had something to do with class teaching had their position supported by 21 out of 22 respondents (Figure 4.11) 95.5%, who argued that they enrolled for the BEDEAPPS degree programme because they felt less qualified teachers than their colleagues who held a BEDEAPPS degree qualification. However, this high percentage of respondents with that belief should at least have been matched by the number of respondents who enrolled in order to enhance their teaching capabilities. Though such an imbalance exists, the persuasion to believe that BEDEAPPS students consciously enrol for this programme to better their teaching capabilities cannot be exclusively resisted.

Explanations to responses recorded on Figure 4.11 tend to dent the almost 100 respondents’ view of the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a teaching enhancing qualification. Twelve (12) out of 22 respondents felt they needed knowledge that would enable them to run schools using better management styles with 2 out of 22 respondents giving the reason that suitability and readiness for promotion could
only be attained by enrolling for the BEDEAPPS degree programme. However, only 2 respondents who observed that BEDEAPPS graduates showed more confidence than they did gave an answer that was related, though remotely, to the actual teaching process thereby creating a seeming contradiction between the responses on Figure 4.11 and the subsequent explanations to the responses. The 5 out of 22 non respondents even further magnified the seeming contradiction.

If truly the BEDEAPPS degree was a teaching enhancing tool, then it would have been logical to expect a positive development in the area of children’s examination results. However, the fact that only 13 out of 22 respondents (59.1%) (Figure 4.12) believed BEDEAPPS graduates produced better results than college trained graduates raises questions on what the 21 out of 22 respondents (Figure 4.11) meant by the implied higher teaching qualification possessed by BEDEAPPS graduates, which was less pronounced among the college trained graduates, if the higher qualification is not linked to examination results. The fact that as many as 9 out of 22 respondents (40.9%) did not agree with the thinking that BEDEAPPS graduates produced better results than those produced by college trained graduates casts further doubt on the BEDEAPPS degree programme’s teaching enhancement effect on students.

Respondents provided areas they felt they could assist their colleagues in if they eventually competed their studies (Tables 4.14(a), 4.14(b) and 4.14(c). The most popular area was Leadership and Supervision, which had a cumulative number of respondents totalling 16 generated by the multiple nature of responses to the question. Areas like Change Processes, Administration, Staff Development and Policy Making and Implementation were also mentioned by some of the respondents.

Areas mentioned that have a close relationship with class teaching were Curriculum Implementation (2 respondents) and Educational Policy (3 respondents). One (1) respondent mentioned Running of Departments as an area
they were able to assist colleagues in and this area is closely related to all modules that have something to do with Leadership and Management. This situation casts further doubt on the direct impact of the BEDEAPPS degree programme on classroom practice, which is what the study is focusing on. However, there is evidence that the programme strengthens the students’ and graduates’ knowledge in specific areas thereby making them more developed in those areas.

Although responses recorded on Tables 4.14(a), 4.14(b) and (4.14(c) did not show direct relevance to class teaching, 21 respondents out of 22 felt a change in their attitude towards their work as class teachers since the completion of their first semester as BEDEAPPS students. This large number of respondents who felt a change in their attitude towards their work gives the BEDEAPPS degree programme relevance to class teaching since attitude has a ripple effect on all other functions that are expected of a class teacher and any operative at the shop floor.

This understanding was further supported by the responses recorded on the effect so far of the BEDEAPPS degree programme on lives of respondents who are practising teachers. Two (2) respondents described the programme as a very useful programme while 14 respondents described it as a fairly useful programme. This means that over 50% of the respondents assessed the programme as a useful one to them as primary school teachers.

Of interest though is the fact that 5 respondents felt that the effect was yet to be experienced. This response does not at all reduce the value of the BEDEAPPS programme as a further teacher education programme since respondents had only completed the first semester of their first year.

Nineteen (19) out of 22 respondents indicated they were looking forward to the next semester and interesting reasons were provided by these respondents. The fact that among the reasons given were reasons like desire to attain a higher
qualification, (3 respondents), improvement in their work already being experienced (2 respondents), and that they were enjoying the learning process (6 respondents) indicated that students were going through a programme that, either to a greater or lesser extent, was benefiting them as primary school class teachers. However, the fact that 8 respondents did not provide a reason means the programme needs revisiting in order to give students enough confidence to easily describe their appreciation of the programme.

Respondents’ attitude towards the BEDEAPPS degree programme was further assessed by asking them whether there was anything that would urge them to go on learning if they experienced failure in their studies. The fact that 17 out of 22 respondents said yes gives credit to the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a programme meant for primary school class teachers.

However, explanations to the reasons for continuing with studies had very little relevance to the programme’s benefits to practicing primary school class teachers. Reasons like zeal to obtain a degree (6 respondents), failing not meaning the end of the road (4 respondents) and high competition on the job market failed to position the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a programme that benefited classroom practitioners in the primary school sector. The fact that 11 respondents did not provide any responses also cast further doubt on the actual benefits students hoped to accrue from the programme.

As a preliminary question to the attitude of students towards distance learning, the respondents were asked if they were proud to be students of the Zimbabwe Open University. Twenty (20) out of (22) twenty two respondents said they were proud and gave reasons which included reasons like the ZOU having the ability to produce good results (2 respondents), the institution gave them the opportunity to further their studies, benefits accrued after attaining a degree (5 respondents), the programme would make them better administrators (1 respondent), the prestige attached to being a ZOU student and the fact that the degree was also offered by
other universities. Answers did not directly point to the open and distance learning component, which is the most critical characteristic of the institution although their answers showed they had confidence in an institution that incidentally was known to have this unique pedagogical approach. However, it would be safely deduced that, though without being implicit, respondents showed confidence in open and distance learning.

When they were eventually directly asked to assess the effectiveness of open and distance learning in offering a degree like the BEDEAPPS programme, respondents gave thumbs up to open and distance learning (Table 4.15). It became clear that open and distance learning, among many others, gave students enough time to do assignments, time to study on their own and gave students the chance to interact with tutors who gave them assistance to do their assignments. These responses endorse the advantages of open and distance learning described by Keegan (1980: 33-60), Holmberg (1977: 17) (section 3.2.1) and Rowntree (1992: 14 & 28) (section 3.2.2), which include, among others, presence of a tutor and as well as face-to-face tutorship and individualisation of the learning process.

The cumulative figure of 12 respondents who gave supportive reasons to the suitability of open and distance learning in offering a programme like the BEDEAPPS degree programme further endorsed the findings of the case studies of the Domasi College (2.4.1) and the Messy University College of Education (2.3.1) whose successes on pre-service training of teachers were unparalleled.

However, more directly, the thumbs up reasons authenticated successes registered in various countries of in-service training opportunities offered to practising teachers. Examples of note are the Australian experience as described by Evans and Nation (1992: 3-13) (2.3.5.1), which highlights the effect of external degrees on teacher shortages, the Ireland insert experience (2.3.5.2) as described by Belbenoit (1979: 29), the German insert experience (2.3.5.4) and the Sri Lankan insert experience as described by Suck-Ying Wong et.al. (1992: 667) (2.3.6.1).
Similar insert successes were also recorded in Indonesia (2.2.6.2), China (2.3.6.4), India (2.3.6.7) and the Republic of Korea (2.3.6.9). Not to be outdone were less developed regions like the South Pacific (2.3.6.10), Latin America represented by the Brazilian experience (2.3.7.1) and the African region with success stories coming from Botswana (2.3.8.1), Kenya (2.3.8.2), Nigeria (2.3.8.3) and South Africa (2.3.8.4).

The 8 respondents who felt the programme was not successful in rural areas because of lack of library books made a critical contribution, which points towards the necessity of providing a variety of media in open and distance learning as propounded by Keegan (1980), Halmberg (1977) and Peters (1998) (2.2.3). The use of various media is also closely related to use of technology, which is encouraged by Spitzer (1998: 52-55) and Bates (1995: 15-25) (1997) (2.6). The current rural electrification programme going on in Zimbabwe would not make use of technology based teaching strategy at the ZOU a far fetched idea. This would reduce travel and other avoidable expenses. Thus, success would be registered in rural areas in the same way it has, by implication, been registered in urban areas.

When further probed to assess the effectiveness of open and distance learning as a teachers’ training tool, a total number of 12 respondents (54.6%) gave responses that indicated it was effective though they qualified their answers. This puts open and distance learning in a favourable position in as far as training of teachers, especially the in-service mode, is concerned. However, the 10 respondents who did not provide a response are a cause for concern and indicate that there are negative aspects of open and distance learning, which require attention. The fact that the 10 are less than 50% of the respondents recorded gives the effectiveness of open and distance learning a fairly positive standing.
The fact that 13 respondents out of 22 (59.1) indicated they would continue teaching after completing their studies was indicative of both the change in attitude towards teaching and the deeper understanding and appreciation of teaching as a qualification that would have been generated by the BEDEAPPS degree programme. This further confirms the potential of the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a further teacher education programme for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe.

The 9 respondents who either said they would not continue teaching or did not take a position creates need for an inquiry into what the BEDEAPPS degree does to graduates, which causes a negative attitude towards and interest in teaching at the primary school level.

Of note are the changes the students intended to implement in their classrooms at the commencement of the new school term as reflected on Tables 4.17(a) and 4.17(b). Those directly related to class teaching are good class management styles (4 respondents) and communication skills (3 respondents). The implementation of such operational changes gives the impression that the BEDEAPPS degree programme contains course components that directly impact on the primary class teachers’ performance as a classroom practitioner. Moreover, the fact that there were other changes that the students intended to implement also credits the BEDEAPPS degree programme with useful ideas that a class teacher can use to improve their teaching strategies and the way they handle their classes.

4.3.3 Data analysis for questionnaire for Education Officers

The multiple answers to questions on the qualities possessed by primary school teachers who are BEDEAPPS graduates generated tables 4.18(a), 4.18(b), 4.18(c) and 4.18(d). The most popular quality was being knowledgeable in whatever they do, which had a cumulative figure of 6 respondents, which accounts for 100% of
the respondents in this category. This gives the BEDEAPPS degree programme an all-round effect on the performance of the graduate who is a primary school teacher. However, the non-specific nature of the skills has the weakness of not unreservedly giving specific credit to the programme thereby making its assessment equally weak and non-specific.

The cumulative number of 2 respondents who described the BEDEAPPS graduates as administrators in their own right did not do much justice to the question as they did not specify how this skill was exhibited. One would be persuaded to assume that the 4 respondents who pointed out that the graduates had a class management skill were more specific on the management skill possessed by the graduates and this would have helped to shed light on the actual management or administrative skill possessed by BEDEAPPS graduates. This kind of skill, though, bears close relevance to the duties of class teachers who manage as they teach.

While insignificant numbers of respondents mentioned skills like ‘they are aware of different educational policies (1 respondent),’ ‘they always make reference to syllabus (1 respondent)’ ‘they are open in their operations (1 respondent),’ and that ‘they use various teaching methods (2 respondents),’ their value rests in that they help to portray the BEDEAPPS multi-skilling ability.

This multi-skilling quality of any teacher education programme is also confirmed by COTEP (2.3.1), which outlines various attributes of a teacher that can only be attained by engaging in a multi-skilling programme. The multi-skilling, according to Sapackman (1991: 25-52) (2.3.2), helps the teacher to purposefully interact with both the school and the community and perform various duties that enable the school to function and remain relevant to the community it serves. This multi-skilling programme is also a carry over from the kind of training most of the BEDEAPPS students would have undergone as trainees at various pre-service training institutions. Appendix A shows exposure to syllabus, evaluation
methods, teaching strategies and ways of utilising the environment, abilities that work to the advantage of students. This then makes the multi-skilling ability of the BEDEAPPS degree programme evidently appreciated and noticed by education officers as a continuation of the training process of teachers that is necessary for their survival as primary school teachers.

The 6 respondents (education officers) mentioned skills areas that still required attention despite the attainment of the BEDEAPPS degree programme. The multiple nature of the responses generated the tables 4.19(a), 4.19(b), 4.19(c) and 4.19(d) in the data presentation section in sub-section 4.2.3. A cumulative figure of 4 respondents out of 6 called for improvement in marking skills while 2 respondents called for attention to problem solving skills. 1 respondent encouraged exposure to computers with another 1 respondent admitting that physical education was getting very little attention. 4 respondents called for inclusion of Philosophy, Psychology and Sociology, while 1 respondent encouraged deeper theory work which are not skills areas though.

Of note is the fact that none of the desirable skills reflected in tables 4.18(a), 4.18(b) and 4.18(c) were included among areas needing attention. However, the mentioning of these areas of skills deficiency by education officers is critical to the process of enhancing the value of the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a further teacher education programme for primary school teachers. One assumes that these few areas would not justify condemning the programme though their inclusion would do no harm to a programme already popular with officials mandated to ensure standards control in primary schools in Zimbabwe.

4.3.4 Data Analysis for the write up for Bachelor of Educational in Planning, Policy Studies (BEDEAPPS) graduates

The 11 out of 13 BEDEAPPS graduates who provided write ups named various skills and capabilities that are possessed by persons who would have graduated with the BEDEAPPS degree offered by the Zimbabwe Open University.
The most popular skill acquired by BEDEAPPS graduates was the leadership skill, which had 5 out of 11 respondents mentioning it. The next popular skill was the policy implementation skill, which was mentioned by 4 out of 11 respondents. The management skill, the administrative skills, communication skill, organisational skill, supervision skill and the teaching skill were each identified by 3 out of 11 respondents. Then, the evaluation and assessment skill and the staff development skill were each mentioned by 2 out of 11 respondents. analysis skills, research skill, counselling skill, planning skill, computer skill, lesson preparation skill and change management skill were each mentioned by 1 respondent out of the 11 who provided write ups.

Skills that fall within the generic group of skills that are relevant to Classroom Practice are as listed below:

- Teaching skills
- Evaluation and Assessment skills
- Planning skills
- Organisational skills
- Leadership skills
- Management skills
- Lesson preparation skills
- Supervision skills
- Research skills
- Communication skills
- Staff development skills
- Computer skills
- Analysis skills
- Change management skills.

The fourteen skills listed above out of the 18 skills mentioned by the 11 BEDEAPPS graduates who provided write-ups have relevance to classroom
practice. Their relevance is supported by Cropley and Dave (1978: 29-39), Chivore (1992: 45-61), Deiro (1996: 7-15), Parkay and Hardcastle (1990: 8-89), Cohn and Kottkamp (1993: 36-208) (2.3.2) who describe a teacher as an organiser and manager of learning situations, an instructor, a guide, a supervisor and leader in the learning situation, an evaluator and judge and a vehicle of change that reflects the aspirations of the society. This means that the majority of skills acquired by graduates have relevance to classroom practice, thereby properly positioning the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a further teacher education programme for the classroom practice of primary school teachers in Zimbabwe.

The five remaining skills are not strangers to the learning situation since Policy affects what is taught and how it is taught. Counselling involves corrective behaviour in the learning process, while administration guides all activities the teacher engages in as he or she teaches. Supervision characterises the way the teacher oversees activities in the class while putting theory into practice is what teaching is all about. Thus, it is still safe to conclude that skills acquired by the ZOU graduates who study for the BEDEAPPS degree are all relevant to classroom practice, which primary school teachers engage in as they teach.

There are five ways of improving the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a further teacher education, which are prefixed by the expression “more time to” before a suggestion to improve is provided. Described below are the five ways that are consistently prefixed by the phrase “more time to” (4.2.4.2) with reference to improvements required to make the BEDEAPPS degree programme more effective as a further teacher education programme for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe.

Five out of 11 respondents recommended that more time be allocated to activities related to practical teaching sessions while 4 out of 11 respondents recommended that more time be allocated to computer studies. Two out of 11 respondents recommended the allocation of more time to the classroom management course with an equal number of respondents recommending the allocation of more time
to the course on assessment. One out of 11 respondents recommended the allocation of more time to curriculum innovation tutorials.

It is interesting to note that the respondents made recommendations to increase time allocated to specific courses as a way of improving the value of the programme as opposed to introducing completely new things. This gave the hope that the courses mentioned were of importance to the programme and only needed to be strengthened by the recommended additions. However, while the recommendations confirmed the importance of the courses mentioned, one of them, addition of time allocated to practical teaching, appeared a bit out of place because the programme has no slot for practical teaching assessment. The recommendation should, instead have been expressed as an additional aspect to improve the programme’s value as a further teacher education programme. This was fortunately added by 5 our of the 11 respondents as a new component that needed to be added to the programme to enhance its value.

Besides the addition of the practical teaching session component, the graduates recommended the addition of various courses. One out of 11 respondents recommended the addition of a course on training in examinations setting with an equal number recommending the introduction of an in-depth study. One respondent out of 11 respondents also recommended the introduction of courses on teaching theories while another respondent recommended the introduction of a course on use of performance appraisals as an assessment tool. One respondent each recommended the introduction of courses in Counselling, Educational Law and a course that accommodates all subjects taught at the primary school level. Of concern though, is the mentioning of Counselling as an additional course, yet, respondent number 2 (4.1.4), mentioned Counselling as one of the skills imparted by the BEDEAPPs programme to those who get exposed to this course. The fact that one respondent mentioned this skill puts doubt to the source of such an aspect in view of the BEDEAPPs course list reflected on Appendix D.
A closer look at the recommended new additions reflects the influence of college training experiences on the respondents. This influence is particularly noticeable in the recommendations related to the addition of in-depth study, and theories of teaching as reflected on Appendix A, Section 3. The influence of college training experience related to Research is traceable to syllabus C section 4 (Appendix C) while the component related to exposure to teaching methods that are suitable for various primary school subjects is traceable to syllabus C, Section 3.1, which describes the objective of equipping trainees with the ability to use various methods to teach different subjects taught within the primary school sector.

There is clear evidence of a deliberate effort by respondents to foster a developmental link between their college training experiences with the BEDEAPPS syllabus. Incidentally, there is a noticeable link between the two experiences as substantiated by the courses that make up the BEDEAPPS degree programme and the structure of the college training programme as reflected by descriptions of objectives and course contents in Appendix A and Appendix C. This tends to put to rest any doubts over the credentials of the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a further teacher education programme for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe since a developmental link between it and the college training syllabus is clearly exhibited.

4.3.5 Data Analysis for the Write-up for BEDEAPPS programme Lecturers

The three full-time lecturers who provided write ups provided areas of empowerment that are realised by those who study for the BEDEAPPS degree programme offered by the ZOU.

The contributions by the first respondent may be summarised to point towards the training of an administrator capable of running a school, solving problems systematically and presiding over the educational policy formulation processes. However, it is interesting to note that the respondent included evaluation and
research processes, which the respondent assumes are part of the administrative roles of the administrator modelled by the BEDEAPPS degree programme.

These contributions, though, mainly centre on the provision of administrative skills to BEDEAPPS graduates. It is, however, important to point out that evaluation and research are also duties that are performed by a class teacher. This observation contradicts the “note well” (NB) provided by the first respondent, which said that the BEDEAPPS degree programme was not meant for primary school teachers but was meant for educational administrators. The contradiction brought out the inadvertent property of the BEDEAPPS degree programme, which obviously the first respondent was not aware of, that of the programme being capable of providing relevant further education for the primary school teacher.

The second respondent mentioned management, supervision and administrative roles as some of the areas of empowerment associated with the BEDEAPPS degree programme. The picture painted out by such a description is one that portrays the BEDEAPPS degree programme offered by the ZOU as being mainly an administrative programme, which has very little, if anything to do with a primary school teacher.

However, this position is not given much support by the fact that the second respondent mentioned that the BEDEAPPS degree programme also contains teacher related areas of empowerment that include planning, evaluation and research. This does not in any way imply any attempt to overshadow the emphasis also given on the administrative strengths of the programme that were highlighted by the second respondent.

The third respondent highlighted the administrative strengths of the BEDEAPPS degree programme, which include provision of managerial skills that logically prepare teachers for promotion as well as the general leadership components that
the programme imparts to graduates. However, interestingly, the third respondent admitted that the BEDEAPPS programme also helped students to cope with classroom functions like classroom management and assessment of pupils’ work, an admission that credits the programme with the ability to further develop classroom teachers in the primary school sector.

Generally, the three respondents agreed there were no shortcomings in the programme because the programme was not meant to be a further teacher education programme for primary school teachers but was only put together to equip teachers with administrative skills. However, the third respondent’s admission that only two courses, namely, classroom management and measurement and evaluation have direct relevance to primary classroom practice gave support to the opinion that the programme can be treated as a further teacher education programme for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe.

These responses should be seen in light of the profile of courses for the BEDEAPPS degree programme as reflected on Appendix D. The list below shows courses of a generic nature whose description has relevance to and a bearing on classroom practice. The courses were extracted from Appendix D.

- Managing schools
- Educational leadership and supervision
- Educational planning and development
- Introduction to policy studies in education
- Staff development programmes in education
- Curriculum implementation, change and innovation
- Introduction to research methods
- Change processes in education
- Leadership and organisational effectiveness
- Educational policy making process
- The role of instructional leader
- Computer application in educational research
Measurement and evaluation

Classroom management.

The 14 courses listed above out of the twenty that make up the BEDEAPPS degree programme have both close and fairly remote relevance to classroom practice since they have something to do with planning, leadership organisation, change management and research that feed into classroom practice. This gives doubt to the belief of the three lecturers that the BEDEAPPS degree programme was never intended for classroom practitioners but was meant for those who were looking forward to being promoted.

This belief expressed by the lecturers over-looks the management and leadership roles of class teachers, which also require further sharpening to ensure progressive management and organisation of the classroom situation. The relevance of the seeming purely administrative courses taught in the BEDEAPPS programme to the classroom situations that teachers find themselves in should be critically and positively scrutinised to appreciate their importance to the micro establishment like a class at a primary school.

The three lecturers gave varying responses to the effect of the absence of technology-based teaching within ZOU’s operations. The first respondent called for a research to be carried out to determine the impact while the second one said technology-based teaching was not completely absent but was limited due to the absence of a technology-based teaching policy.

Of importance are the problems encountered by students due to the absence of a policy on technology-based teaching. The problems, in summary, could be expressed as over-reliance on modules and face-to-face teaching, which do not sufficiently address the learning problems of students. Huge travelling costs realised by students as they travel to attend lectures and delay in getting feedback,
which could be accessed by utilising a suitable technology reflected the disadvantages of not having a technology-based pedagogical strategy.

The third respondent’s list of problems encountered by students due to the absence of technology-based teaching endorses problems raised by the second respondent. The third respondent mentioned communication problems faced by rural based students, the isolation experienced by students in remote areas and delay in getting responses to problems since students needed to wait for next weekend school to get assistance as some of the problems generated by the absence of technology within the ZOU.

These problems need not be there if technology is adequately provided. Bates (1995: 15-25) recognises the fact that technology, especially the internet, removes and breaks the rigid rules of information access that tend to characterise the traditional classroom set up. Bates (1995:15-25) (2.6) buttresses this point by arguing that technology is leaner centred and as such endeavours to produce better quality of interaction between the learner and the information source.

Chaya-Ngam (1993) (2.5) makes particular reference to rural areas and says teleteaching is particularly important in distance education since it defies lack of higher education facilities in rural areas. Takwale (1995: 45-56) (2.6) sums it all by saying use of technology results from the realisation of the character of the client and their environment. This implies that use of technology-based teaching is neither a luxury nor a mere imitation of what others would be doing, but is used to give the clients maximum assistance in their learning process to ensure success.

The much needed assistance realised by utilising technology in open and distance learning ventures has precedents in countries like Bangladesh (2.3.6.7), China (2.3.6.4) and India (2.3.6.7) which have large populations utilising the facility and in countries like Japan (2.3.6.5) and the South Pacific Islands (2.3.6.10) which have serious geographical barriers and yet feel duty-bound to assist the open and
distance learners in various parts of these countries. There is also evidence of use of technology in developing countries like Botswana (2.3.8.1) and Tanzania (2.3.8.5) where radios are used to assist open and distance learners to learn effectively. Thus, the concern by lecturers on the absence of use of technology-based teaching within the ZOU deserves attention and corrective measures, if students are going to access assistance regardless of their numbers and geographical locations.

The ZOU has limited technology-based teaching, which has been confined to programmes housed in the Department of Languages and Media Studies where cassettes have been occasionally used. However, the rest of the programmes tend to over rely on tutorials, which as has already been mentioned, generate high travelling expenses for the students. The limited technology has also been known to hard-hit rural based students whose access to technology is limited. However, agreements of understanding signed between the ZOU and organisations like SIRDC (Scientific Industrial and Research Development Centre) and World Links are expected to establish more broad based technology-based teaching, which would also be accessed by even rural based students in view of the rural distribution of World Links resource stations whose increase has been guaranteed by the Rural Electrification Programme being carried out in Zimbabwe’s rural areas. The very fact of the existence of such agreements of understanding is a clear indication of the ZOU’s realisation of the importance of technology-based teaching in an open and distance learning institution.

Of interest as well were the suggestions put forward by the lecturers on ways of improving the value of the programme as a further teacher education programme. The first respondent recommended reviewing and rewriting of all modules as well as inclusion of financial management courses. The second respondent recommended the provision of opportunities for specialisation and need for a needs assessment to determine the nature of changes to be instituted. Of essence is the admission that the programme can be improved to enhance relevance,
which at the moment is, at most, limited but not absent from the programme. The
generic list of courses with relevance to teaching is also a source of inspiration for
those who see relevance to classroom practice of the BEDEAPPS degree
programme offered by the Zimbabwe Open University.

However, it is equally important to highlight recommendations by the third
respondent, which include overhauling of the whole programme and inclusion of
programmes more relevant to primary school teachers. The overhauling part of it
casts a dark shadow on the relevance of the programme to further education for
teachers, yet the same respondent is self-contradicted by their second
recommendation that talks of programmes ‘more relevant’ to primary school
teachers, again indicating non-total absence of relevance of the programme even
as it currently stands.

4.3.6 Data Analysis of data collected by use of write-ups for Heads of
Schools that have BEDEAPPS graduates on their staff

Headmasters of schools that have BEDEAPPS graduates on their staff named
skills that are possessed by these graduates. Skills that are traceable to
programmes offered on the BEDEAPPS degree programme include supervision,
planning, leadership and management. Of note, though, is the fact that only the
planning skill had attracted the attention of the biggest number of respondents out
of the seven respondents, with 4 respondents noting it within their staff. The
leadership skill was named by 2 respondents while the supervision skill was
named by the 2 respondents with the management skill attracting the attention of
1 respondent.

While it is true that the existence of these skills was noted by some of the
headmasters, the small number of those who noted them is rather too insignificant
especially when it is considered that there are whole sets of courses that were
designed specifically to impart these skills. One would have expected that these
skills would have been noted by a big majority of respondents whose function is
to assess the strengths and capabilities of persons on their staff. However, the fact that they were ever noticed is testimony enough to their existence within graduates of the BEDEAPPS degree programme.

The fact that these graduates understand the country’s educational policies and can easily comprehend matters related to curriculum and its implementation, give one the satisfaction that the BEDEAPPS degree programme sufficiently made graduates aware of these aspects relevantly expected of persons involved in teaching and learning. Although one respondent each noted their existence within the graduates, it is encouraging to note that the BEDEAPPS degree programme ever made the valuable contribution of imparting such critical expertise within those who dared rub shoulders with it.

These skills are also a major focus of the college training programme as evidenced by information on sub-section 5 of Appendix B where planning, leadership, management and supervision are either directly or indirectly made reference to. This creates a noticeable link between college training and the BEDEAPPS degree programme. These skills are also highlighted in section 2.3.1 where COTEP (1996: 6-52) describes what teacher education is all about and on section 3.2.2 where Cropley and Dave (1978: 29-37), Parkay and Hardcastle (1990: 8-89) and Deiro (1996: 7-15) describe the various roles of teachers.

The two respondents who saw in BEDEAPPS graduates the ability to share decision-making powers with colleagues confirmed the relevance of the BEDEAPPS programme to real school situations. Schools and classes are about making decisions and modules like managing schools, leadership, and supervision provide information on leaders and leadership and the decision-making process is one of the aspects dealt with in management and supervision.

The leadership and management theories that are naturally part of the lectures on leadership and management are directly linked to the ability of BEDEAPPS
graduates to use theories in their problem solving processes. This means that the graduates’ ability to share with colleagues in decision-making processes is an ability that is theory based and as such, makes the decision-making process systematic and progressive. No wonder why one of the respondents noticed that the BEDEAPPS graduates based their problem solving processes on established theories (4.2.6).

The skills discussed above are directly related to what goes on both in classroom and school situations. What is worth noting here is the fact that these skills, as exhibited in the discussion above, are traceable to the course outline of the BEDEAPPS degree programme thereby endorsing its value to a primary school teacher in Zimbabwe (Appendix D).

The heads of schools with BEDEAPPS graduates were asked to identify areas of competence advantage of these graduates over their college trained colleagues. Some issues that have already been discussed in the early sections of this section of the analysis like use of theories to solve problems, good curriculum implementation, ability and good management skills, though mentioned by one respondent each, are appearing again, further endorsing the programme’s ability to impart skills relevant to the primary school teachers roles. The graduates’ ability to handle change and appreciate staff development issues can easily be traced to the BEDEAPPS degree programme’s course outline (Appendix D). The fact that heads of schools noticed and mentioned these skills is indicative of their use and value to the day-to-day duties of teachers in primary schools.

Heads of schools with BEDEAPPS graduates also noticed within the graduates, tendencies of a behavioural nature which include discipline and respect for authority. While they are not skills themselves, they have a direct bearing on the leadership and management processes and theories that graduates are exposed to during their studies. It can be argued that they are behavioural changes realised as
a result of being made aware of what is involved in leadership and management processes.

As instructional leaders, teachers are expected to motivate children and the fact that heads noticed within the BEDEAPPS graduates such an ability further credits the suitability of the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a further teacher education programme for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe. While it is clear from the data presentation unit that in all these suggestions, only one respondent each mentioned these competence areas, it should be appreciated that the fact that they were ever mentioned gives the impression that these skills are noticeable if an effort to look for them is made.

Improvements required to make the BEDEAPPS degree programme more useful to those studying for it were quite varied. Use of technology to increase accessibility was the most popular change which had 3 respondents mentioning it. This contribution supports views by Lundin (1993: 379-382), and Bates (1995: 15-25) as shown on section 2.6 with their emphasis on the need for technology in distance learning as a way of breaking limiting effects of the conventional system.

The content related contributions on the improvements of the programme included addition of a module on counselling, information on marking children’s work, information on record keeping and information on setting of examinations. What makes these contributions interesting is that some can be made part of existing modules on Evaluation and Assessment, while the one on counselling can be offered by the department of social studies especially with the AIDS scourge wrecking havoc among most of the primary school going children. Such improvements, thus, do not drastically cause changes to the current structure of the programme.

Organisational changes to the programme include increasing face-to-face tutorials, expanding library facilities, guaranteed presence of lecturers at tutorials,
addition of the teaching practice session and providing students with financial assistance. These organisational changes reflect a situation of mutual discussions between heads of schools and BEDEAPPS graduates on matters to do with improving children’s learning processes. These contributions could also be a result of experiences of these heads as BEDEAPPS students. However, the organisational changes can easily be accommodated within the general framework of the organisation of the BEDEAPPS degree programme. It is also important to point out that some of the changes have already been discussed after being raised by other groups of respondents.

What is evident though is the fact that the heads of schools see more positives than negatives in the values, organisation and management of the BEDEAPPS degree programme. This makes the programme more useful than it is useless to primary school teachers in Zimbabwe. The practical use of the programme to school and classroom situations cannot be overlooked thereby confirming its place as a further teacher education programme for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe.

4.3.7 Data Analysis for four interviews carried out

4.3.7.1 Data Analysis for two graduates who were interviewed

The two graduates who did their training at different colleges experienced training in different environments and this created a situation where influence of place of training would not bring bias to the interviewees’ responses. The fact that the two interviewees had different opinions towards what they had accrued from their training with one believing they were ready to teach soon after college training while the other felt deficient in some areas, also created a situation where the researcher was to deal with interviewees of differing dispositions. The two areas of difference made the two interviewees fairly reliable sources of critical
information concerning the value and place of the BEDEAPPS degree programme offered by the ZOU as a further teacher education programme.

The reason behind the two interviewees’ enrolling for the BEDEAPPS degree programme was the professional growth they hoped to attain. This made it clear that the two were not interested in developing their administrative skills but were interested in upgrading themselves and growing professionally, qualities better imparted by a further teacher education programme. This places the BEDEAPPS degree programme in a position closely aligned to further teacher education programmes for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe.

Skills acquired by the two interviewees included ability to organise staff development sessions, evaluation, class management and supervision. Appendix A section 2.3 refers to production of effective organisers sensitive and responsive to pupils’ needs as one of its aims in the training of teachers. Section 4.2 on Appendix A has classroom management and school administration as part of the content of the training programme for teachers while under objectives, Appendix A describes ability to assess and evaluate learners’ performance through the construction and use of valid instruments which trainees are exposed to. The described links help to establish and confirm the essence of the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a further teacher education programme for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe since the BEDEAPPS degree also contains modules on these aspects. It is, thus, not surprising to note that the two interviewees restated the fact that they found it worthwhile studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme as it made them good assessors and good organisers. It is also for the same stated link that the interviewees saw a developmental link between their college training experiences and the BEDEAPPS degree programme.
While the two interviewees accepted that distance learning exerted serious challenges to their already congested environment and obligations, they accepted the fact that it was an effective way of conducting a teacher education programme although one of the interviewees made it clear it was not good enough for initial training but for in-service training that affected those whose aim was to advance and upgrade themselves. This understanding tended to be opposed by the other interviewee who believed distance education was good enough for teacher education as it gave trainees enough time to do their assignments while allowing students to learn as they work. However, the second interviewee did not mention whether it was only good enough for in-service trainees or for both pre-service and in-service trainees.

The Domasi College experience (2.3.1) however made it clear that distance education was also effective as a pre-service training method since it gave researchers an opportunity to place conventional and distance learning training methodologies side by side in a comparative assessment. The results which were empirically obtained revealed that the two training methodologies were equally good as teacher education providing strategies. The same success was also experienced by the Messy University College of Education (2.3.2).

Evidence available indicates that many countries use open and distance learning to upgrade and further develop primary and secondary school teachers. Nigeria (2.3.8.3), Kenya (2.3.8.2), India (2.3.6.7), China (2.3.6.4), Indonesia (2.3.6.2), Sri Lanka (2.3.6.1) and Australia (2.3.5.1) put emphasis on learning to train, upgrade and further develop teachers. Among these countries, open and distance learning was initially introduced to address either the shortage of teachers or the problem of under-qualified and less qualified teachers. This endorses the opinion of
the interviewees on the effectiveness of open and distance learning as a strategy for training teachers.

The two interviewees, though using different examples and areas, felt the role of the tutor was important and, both, in a way, benefited from their interactions with them. Critical assistance was obtainable even though there was distance separating them from their tutors. The fact that one of the interviewees actually mentioned a tutor by name helps to amplify the critical role played by tutors to those who are open and distance learners. This critical role of tutors endorses their importance in distance learning as portrayed by Keegan (1980: 13-36) Section 2.2.1.

The two interviewees agreed on the developmental thrust of the BEDEAPPS degree programme. The specific areas mentioned by one of the interviewees namely, evaluation (assessment), class management, supervision, managing schools and research are covered in the syllabus of college training institutions as reflected on Appendix A. These are also handled by the BEDEAPPS degree programme as reflected on Appendix D.

The two interviewees were in agreement on the suitability of the BEDEAPPS degree as a further teacher education programme with one of the interviewees expressing satisfaction with the advanced status they had acquired from the programme while the other interviewee summarised their feeling by saying that for anyone who was proud of their profession, the BEDEAPPS degree programme was the programme to do. These sentiments confirmed the professional development attained by those who studied for the BEDEAPPS degree programme offered by the ZOU.

While the two interviewees collectively saw a developmental thrust embedded in the BEDEAPPS degree programme, they did not agree that
such a developmental thrust needed to be accompanied by practical teaching supervisions. One of the interviewees felt it was necessary to do that but the other did not see it that way and gave the convincing reason that the teachers were already engaging in the teaching process on a daily basis. This needed no practical follow up. No wonder why they were able to realise an improvement in their teaching abilities as a result of studying for the BEDEAPPS degree. The second contribution is quite plausible and is thus worth taking note of as one assesses the strengths and weakness of the BEDEAPPS degree offered by the Zimbabwe Open University.

The differing views on the need for practical teaching follow-ups are not complemented by the two interviewees’ shared opinion that the BEDEAPPS degree programme sufficiently equipped them with teaching skills and needed nothing more to further sharpen their skills. Though one of the interviewees indicated they needed to study for a Masters degree, they did not intend to do so in order to further sharpen their skills, but needed to do so in order to enhance their chances for promotion.

The collective opinion on skills sharpening should also have influenced their collective defence for the title of the programme. One of the interviewees even supported their stand point by giving the reason that teachers were planners and policy makers within their institutions, thereby rendering invalid any criticism directed at the title of the programme.

Their positive attitude towards what they gained from the programme would not have allowed them to see any link between politics and the introduction of distance education yet Tisber (1995), Apple (1982: 1-6) and Gutierrez and Maclaren (1995: 131-144) (Section 2.5) see education and all that it is made of as being political through and through. Tisber (1995: 34-35) goes further to establish a link between the introduction of distance teacher education in Australia with the coming on board of a
Labour government known for sympathising with the marginalized workers.

It is thus not surprising that when they were asked to pick on subjects which were not directly relevant to their duties as teachers, the two interviewees played down this aspect of the inquiry. One of the interviewees decided to ignore this part while the other one who attempted to provide a response played down this aspect. They mentioned only three subjects and in some cases described the irrelevance as applying only to parts of the subjects. They, however, made a u-turn when they said they would still need the three subjects, namely statistics, economics and accounting, when they eventually got promoted. This statement actually puts in serious doubt the irrelevance of these subjects. It is this near total relevance of the programme that influenced them to point out that they would encourage colleagues to study for the BEDEAPPS degree offered by the ZOU because of unquestionable professional benefits they would accrue at the end of it all.

4.3.7.2 Data Analysis for information collected from Heads of Schools with BEDEAPPS graduates on their staff who were interviewed

It was clear from the responses of the two interviewees that college graduates were skilled persons who were ready to teach and handle pupils under their supervision. The skilling process in training colleges is evidenced by objectives of the training process as outlined on section 3 of Appendix A. However, after accepting that the college graduates were skilled persons, it was a bit strange that one of the interviewees named four subjects in which the graduates lacked instructive expertise. The strange part of the response is that these subjects almost make up the whole subjects spectrum of a primary school class. What then can be deduced from such a situation is that the interviewees would want the
researcher to believe that the college graduate generally experienced limitations in their whole methodological exposure as teachers.

The two interviewees shared a high opinion about the coming into existence of the Zimbabwe Open University with one of the interviewees describing it as a relief to the nation since it equipped graduates with both administrative and professional skills. This gives the impression that the BEDEAPPS degree programme is targeted towards the teachers’ professional and administrative interests.

The admission by the two interviewees that there was a vast difference between the performance of a college graduate and a ZOU BEDEAPPS degree graduate suggests the programme contains developmental aspects that drastically raise the gradient of operation of its graduates. Confidence generated from being a BEDEAPPS graduate is believed to enable graduates to be active contributors to school events. What is more encouraging is that the two interviewees agreed on the issue of the graduates’ ability to solve teaching and learning related problems within the school, activities that exhibit a deeper understanding of their roles as teachers.

The two interviewees observed a positive change in the teaching standards within their schools which is credited to the presence on the staff of BEDEAPPS graduates. The influence of the Assessment and Evaluation course can be credited with equipping the teachers with the ability to set standardised tests that generate an objective and balanced assessment strategy with the course on managing schools being responsible for the teachers’ ability to handle children and their parents professionally. This ability confirms teachers’ roles as described by Chivore (1992: 13-14) and MacDonald (1994: 14) (section 2.3.2) with emphasis on the place of the parent and the home in the child’s learning process.
The professional growth and maturity exhibited by the BEDEAPPS graduates, according to the two interviewees, influenced the way they allocated classes each year. This influence culminated in these teachers also taking part in the supervision of their colleagues as a way of helping colleagues to understand the whole teaching process the way they did. The act of involving the teachers in the supervision process also gives a thumb-up to the importance and value of supervision as a course that itself is a component of the BEDEAPPS degree programme.

The interviewees also qualified the strength and value of the BEDEAPPS programme as a further teacher education programme by pointing out that its graduates on their staff are now involved in staff induction activities, staff development workshops and that they play leadership roles wherever they are, capabilities and skills sufficiently dealt with by subjects reflected on Appendix D that reflects the courses that make up the BEDEAPPS degree programme.

The two interviewees suggested very limited additions to the programme to make it a more effective teacher education programme. Collectively, they suggested the addition of subject specialisation and counselling. One of the interviewees suggested adding a component of financial management, which incidentally, is already part of the BEDEAPPS degree programme (Appendix D). The limited number of proposed additions reflects an element of satisfaction with both the content of the course and its products who happen to grace the schools under the leadership of the two interviewees.

The two interviewees were also in agreement on the suitability of the programme for primary school teachers. The fact that they credited the programme with making teaching more focused and more analytical in
their approach to issues helps to appreciate their positive opinion of the value of the programme as a programme that adequately addresses the professional needs of primary school teachers. It is this kind of appreciation that influenced one of the interviewees to suggest only polishing the programme to make it more relevant as a further teacher education programme as opposed to removing anything from it.

While admitting that the programme was more aligned to administration than it was to classroom teaching, the two interviewees were still convinced that the programme was good enough for primary school teachers as it added to the skills dimension of good and effective implementation of various policies. This makes it clear that the two interviewees do not believe that the programme’s alignment to administration reduces its value as a professional weapon for primary school teachers. The polishing recommended by one of the interviewees and the addition of practical supervision and a few new components suggested by the other are insignificant processes to warrant condemning the BEDEAPPs degree programme’s value to the primary school teachers. The two interviewees praised the programme for improving the standard of teaching and for producing material suitable for promotion thereby confirming the programme’s ability to produce good classroom teachers and good administrators.

4.3.8 RESEARCH THEORY

Research Theory is an integral component of a research process since it ordinarily plays the role of a foundation on which the entire research process is based as it provides clear understanding of variables that exist in a given research situation (Sekaran, 1984: 47-58). Dooley (2003: 63) describes it as guide to any research process.
The research theory guides the research process by systematically explaining the observed facts and laws that relate to a particular aspect of life that would be under the spotlight of the whole research process, (Babbie, 1992: 55). Mason and Bramble (1997: 69) further endorse the guiding role of the research theory by describing it as a set of formulations deliberately designed to explain or predict facts and events which can be observed in a given research process.

The characteristics of the research theory described above would logically have the influence of having it at the beginning of the research process. However, this was not the case with this particular research because the theory was embedded within the body of data collected which had to be unveiled in a scientific way.

Of particular interest to this research is the argument by Hammersley, et.al (1989: 59) that research can be used to test a given theory or generate a new theory thereby suggesting that theory could exist before a research is carried out or could be a product of a research that would have been carried out to its completion. Merriam (1988: 2) describes the process of producing a research theory after the completion of a research process as building a research theory.

The kind of theory which is a product of a research process, which incidentially was the kind of theory contained in this particular research, is described by Strauss and Corbin (1994: 170) as a grounded theory. It is described this way because it is contained in the data that are systematically analysed in order to produce findings that are usable in coming up with a research theory. Strauss and Corbin (ibid) further explain the term grounded theory by saying it is described this way because it emerges from emmersion in data collected and is only identified after the data would have been analysed.

This particular research did not have a research theory at its onset, but was deliberately organised in such a way that it would generate a theory after completion. Thus, its research theory is a grounded one which can only be pronounced now that the research process has been concluded. The generated theory reads;
Further teacher education for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe is both diverse and dynamic and thus, can be presented under various titles and with differing areas of emphasis depending on the intention of the providing institution. While this further teacher education which ordinarily is of an in-service nature, is normally provided through the conventional system, it can equally be effectively provided through the open and distance learning strategy provided that the providing institution has well-formulated and organised pedagogical instruments and sessions which are adequately supported by an accessible technological backup. The further teacher education programme should mandatorily have identifiable developmental links with the initial or pre-service training experiences of the intended target population and their core functions, diverse and dynamic as they might be.

Scrutiny of this research theory reveals a close relationship between it and the research findings as well as the many variables that the research process on the BEDEAPPS degree offered by the ZOU had to adequately deal with. That the findings were unknown until the conclusion of the research also applied to the research theory which was grounded and as such immersed in data that were collected and only became known when the data had been systematically analysed.

4.4 CONCLUSION

The discussion engaged in from 4.1 to 4.3 highlighted issues of data presentation and the discourse on its analysis. The data collected from the instruments was presented and subsequently discussed in detail with emphasis on the problem raised in chapter 1. The chapter also helped to generate the grounded research theory which was only made known by findings of which it was part of.

Chapter five that follows gives the summary of findings generated by the consulted literature and those generated by the empirical investigation.
Chapter 5

SUMMARY OF FINDINGS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter four provided information on findings from the empirical investigation. Chapter five avails important information on findings revealed by the related literature which was reviewed and those that emerged from the investigation, in order to identify areas of agreement and those of disagreement, if any can be found.

5.1.2 FINDINGS FROM THE RELATED LITERATURE

The Literature reviewed revealed the diversity in the meaning of the ‘minefield’ called open and distance learning (The Distance Education Clearing House at the University of Wisconsin Extension 2001; Daniel 1988: 126-137; Keegan 1988: 35-38 and Peters 1993: 01-18). This diversity in meaning generates variations in the manner open and distance learning is organized and viewed by various countries, organizations and different geographical locations.

There is a clear consensus by various authors on the fact that teacher education describes a collection of attributes and roles that end up being identified with and being performed by the product of the teacher educating process (Cotep 1996: 6-52; Mamabolo 1996: 67-70 and Chivore 1992: 13-14). Such attributes and roles, as described by the individual authors, further explain the collectiveness of the complex nature of teacher education which might accommodate all known attributes and roles or might be seen to be selective in its strategy. The exclusive accommodation or selective emphasis could emanate from the aims and intentions of the specific teacher education programme in place at any given time and place.
It is evident from the related literature consulted that pre-service and in-service training methods are the two main approaches to teacher education which are used by many teacher education providers (Alexander 1984: 105; Mamabolo 1996: 67-70 and Aldrich 1990: 14-27). These authors also agree on the fact that most of the further teacher education programmes use the in-service strategy because of the nature of the students.


Related literature also revealed that there were large numbers of non-degreed primary school teachers who enrolled and who continue to enroll for the BEDEAPPs degree programme as a means of furthering their studies in the area of teacher education (Centre for Distance Education Circular 1995). Those who enroll for this BEDEAPPs degree programme have 29 courses from which to select the 20 courses they eventually end up doing throughout their four years of study (Appendix D).

It is also evident from the literature reviewed that, generally, the BEDEAPPs degree programme has a high throughput rate which ranges from 24% to 72% (Enrolment Booklet of 2004). There is further evidence that the pass rate for the period 1997 to 2001 has been quiet high ranging from 52% to 100% (Education Booklet of 1997-2001).

5.1.3 FINDINGS FROM THE EMPIRICAL INVESTIGATION

This part of the summary looks at findings as revealed by the investigation process of the research. The empirical investigation revealed a close link between the content of the BEDEAPPS programme and that of the teachers training institutions in Zimbabwe thereby giving the BEDEAPPS degree programme the position of a further teacher education programme for the Zimbabwe Teachers’ College graduates.

The link is more pronounced in the areas of ability and skill listed below:-

- Organization and Management of Primary School classes
- Effective class teaching
- Leadership and Supervision
- Understanding of educational issues
- Organization and implementation of in-house staff development programmes
- Research in primary school education (4.3.7.1 p 203)

Incidentally, these areas of linkage are traceable to the 14 out of 20 courses regularly offered by the Zimbabwe Open University, which have relevance to primary class teaching. This further strengthens the role of the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a further teacher education programme for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe (4.3.5 p 193). This happens to be the case even though lecturers on the programme were adamant that the BEDEAPPS degree programme was never deliberately introduced to provide further teacher education but to produce administrators in primary schools (4.3.2 p 179 and 183-185, 4.3.1 p 159, 4.3.2 p 177 – 178, 4.3.7.2 p 211).
The various modules that are used on the BEDEAPPS degree programme make it a multi-skilling programme that instills various expertise among primary school teachers in line with their varied roles that make up the field called teacher education (4.3.3 p 187, 4.3.7.2, 4.3.6). This multiskilling attribute is credited with the improvement of teaching standards in most of the schools where BEDEAPPS graduates are stationed (4.3.1 p 175, 4.3.2. p179, 4.3.5 p 201, 4.3.7.2 p 210). No wonder why in most of the schools, allocation of classes is determined by possession of the BEDEAPPS degree certificate with critical and senior classes being the preserve of holders of the BEDEAPPS degree certificate (4.3.7.2 p 211, 4.3.5 p198). Such persons are also strategically positioned for promotion since they are rated highly in terms of managerial skills attained by studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme (4.3.5 p 191).

There was overwhelming praise for the open and distance learning strategy as an effective pedagogical approach with respondents crediting it with convenience to the learner. (4.3.2 p183-184, 4.3.7.1 p 206 and 210). However, the investigation revealed that the effectiveness of the open and distance learning strategy, in the case of the Zimbabwe Open University situation, was somehow compromised by the limited technological back up to the teaching and learning process. The limited technology based teaching adversely affects the learning processes of students resident in rural areas as they incur high traveling costs to attend tutorial sessions which they are forced to heavily rely on due to prevailing circumstances (4.3.5 p 196-197, 4.3.2 p 184-185). These tutorial sessions tend to play a centre stage since the investigation revealed that they are useful and effective though effectiveness could, according to respondents, be enhanced by increasing contact hours (4.3.1 p 171, 4.3.4 p 189, 4.3.6 p 199).

The investigation further revealed that respondents wished to see changes like introduction of subject specialization, introduction of supervised learning practice sessions, and introduction of Philosophy, Sociology and Psychology, implemented soon in order to enhance the quality of the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a further teacher education programme for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe. Respondents also
recommended the removal of certain modules which they believed had no relevance to the spirit and intention of the BEDEAPPS degree programme, a further teacher education programme.

5.1.4 COMMENT

There is evidence of commonality in findings revealed by the related literature reviewed and those generated by the empirical investigation. The Zimbabwe Open University is operating an open and distance learning model which could fail the test in other parts of the world where open and distance learning is practiced. The limited use of technology stands out as the most visible limitation which could have a bearing on satisfying the requirements of open and distance learning as viewed by other users of this strategy. This tends to confirm the diversity of the meaning of open and distance learning as pronounced by Daniel (1988: 126-137), Keegan (1988: 35-38) and Peters (1993: 10-18), among others. However, even in its diversity, open and distance learning can be easily identified by its common characteristic of separation of the learner and the provider of the education (ibid).

The critical importance of the use of technology in open and distance learning resonates throughout the two sets of findings. Spitzer (1998: 52-55), Lundini (1993: 371-382), Bales (1995: 15-25) credit technology with the ability to defy barriers and accommodate a large population of learners. The findings from the empirical investigation also reveal that limited use of technology based teaching by the Zimbabwe Open University causes inconveniences, avoidable expenses and disadvantages for the rural folk who have to travel long expensive distances to attend face-to-face tutorials which they, as a result, tend to overly upon (4.3.5 p 196-197 and 4.3.2 p 184-185).

It is also quite apparent that findings from the related literature and findings from the empirical investigation confirm the role of the in-service training strategy in providing further teacher education opportunities. The findings from the empirical investigation even provide reasons for preferring the use of the in-service strategy in providing further

The theoretical framework from related literature portrays teacher education as a multiskilling discipline which exposes the trainee to various roles and abilities for the purpose of fully equipping the trainee to perform multifunctions in the learning environment (COTEP 1996: p 6-52; Mamabolo 1996: 67-70 and Chivore 1992: P 15-14 among others). The same characteristic is found within the BEDEAPPS degree which, as evidenced by courses on offer and supporting modules, is a multiskilling programme whose skills content corresponds to the skills imparted by any programme that qualifies to be described as a teacher education programme. This makes the BEDEAPPS degree more like a teacher education programme than had been envisaged by those who brought it into being (4.3.5 p 191).

It is quite evident that the literature consulted and the information empirically gathered had many shared critical views which generated continuity of thought that avails opportunities for further investigation in various offshoots that can be extrapolated from the research report. It can be further argued that the content and processes of teacher education in Zimbabwe have parallels in other countries which, as such, are transferable reciprocally. It is also clear that the BEDEAPPS degree programme has attributes that are true to the intentions, aims and strengths of a typical further teacher education programme for which, unfortunately, it was not intentionally formulated to become. With necessary changes and additions, the programme should become a useful further teacher education programme against which, practitioners in further teacher education elsewhere in the world, would feel comfortable to benchmark their operations.

While not all findings from the related literature and those from the empirical investigation might have direct similarities on either side, none of them are found to contradict each other. If anything, they collectively endorse the valuable characteristics of a further education programme which characteristics are abundantly contained in the BEDEAPPS degree programme offered by the Zimbabwe Open University.
5.1.5 RECOMMENDATIONS

5.1.5.1 Recommendations to the Zimbabwe Open University

Due to the nature of findings realised from this research, it is recommended that the following steps be taken by the ZOU to improve the whole environment in which the BEDEAPPS degree programme is provided:

- The institution should make necessary changes to the BEDEAPPS degree programme to make it a fully-fledged further teacher education programme for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe.

- A very thorough scrutiny should be made on what is needed to enhance the value of the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a further teacher education course.

- BEDEAPPS modules should be reviewed and rewritten in order to make them effective tutoring instruments.

- Theories of Education, Psychology, Philosophy and Sociology of Education should be added to the list of courses offered under the BEDEAPPS degree programme in order to expand the learners’ levels of understanding of these issues and enhance their performance in classroom situations.

- The ZOU should seriously consider introducing within the BEDEAPPS degree programme a component of subject specialization in order to produce teachers who are subject specialists of various primary school level subjects. This should improve the quality of teaching of these subjects with a ripple effect on performance in these subjects at higher levels of education.

- The Zimbabwe Open University should make an effort to establish associateship with teachers’ training institutions to enable it to research further
on further teacher education and make an input in the area of teacher education provision.

• There is need for the Zimbabwe Open University to give each module a definite lifespan which makes updating and rewriting of modules a predictable event to be carried out at a specific point in time.

• The Zimbabwe Open University in the absence of widespread technology based teaching, should do everything possible to decentralize into Districts and service centers to make education affordable to people living in rural areas as this will cut traveling costs.

• The Zimbabwe Open University should carry out surveys on values of each of the modules offered on the BEDEAPPS degree programme in order to determine their individual relevance to the BEDEAPPS degree programme.

• The Zimbabwe Open University should do everything possible to access a suitable and sustainable technology employable in the effective provision of technology based teaching for purposes of strengthening the effectiveness of their open and distance learning strategy.

5.1.5.2 Recommendations to Researchers

It is recommended that researchers carry out researches on areas listed below in order to come up with information that will inform the ZOU on measures necessary to enhance the effectiveness of the BEDEAPPS degree as a further teacher education programme.

• It is recommended that an in-depth analysis be carried out on the relationship between improvement of children’s results and the presence of BEDEAPPS graduates in schools affected.
• A comparative research needs to be carried out to compare the teaching capabilities of college trained teachers with those of BEDEAPPS degree graduates.

• A research needs to be carried out to determine the nature of changes to be done to BEDEAPPS modules in order to make them effective pedagogical instruments.

• A research needs to be carried out on the dynamic nature of further teacher education programmes in order to determine the ideal structure of a further teacher education programme for primary school teachers in Zimbabwe.

• There is need to research on the characteristics of Teachers’ Training programmes offered by various institutions in order to come up with a further teacher education programme capable of accommodating cultures in these training institutions. This strategy could in turn foster infirmity in teacher education provision in Zimbabwe.

• There is need to carry out research on the training requirements of various professionals working for the Zimbabwe Open University in order to equip them with performance enhancing skills.

• It is important to carryout a research on viable and suitable technology to be utilized in Zimbabwe in order to enhance capacity to provide open and distance learning to the larger Zimbabwean population.

• A research needs to be carried out to ascertain requirements to enable the Zimbabwe Open University to effectively provide pre-service teacher education through the open and distance learning strategy.
• There is need to carry out a research on how utilization of current contact hours can be maximized to avoid increasing contact hours since an increase will have a ripple effect on cost of studying using the open and distance learning strategy.

• It is important to carry out a research on ways of further improving throughput levels in the BEDEAPPS degree programme.

• There is need to carry out a research on causes of dropouts among adults studying for a BEDEAPPS degree programme.

5.1.6 CONCLUSION

Chapter 5 provided an opportunity to place side-by-side findings revealed by related literature and those revealed by the empirical investigation for purposes of identifying their reciprocal relevance. This chapter also gave the researcher an opportunity to give a fitting input into the summary of findings besides providing recommendations to the Zimbabwe Open University and interested researchers.
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APPENDIX A

DEPARTMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION

MORGAN ZINTEC COLLEGE

DIPLOMA IN EDUCATION (PRIMARY)

PROFESSIONAL STUDIES SYLLABUS “A”

1.0 PREAMBLE
Syllabus “A” in Professional Study is a three-year course in General Applied Education. The focus of the programme is to equip student teachers with professional knowledge and skills necessary for teaching in the Primary School. The course structure is two terms, first – residential phase, five terms attachment teaching practice and two terms final residential phase.

2.0 AIMS
This course aims to help student teachers to:

2.1 acquire knowledge and develop skills, attitudes and values appropriate for meaningful and effective contribution to curriculum implementation Zimbabwe’s evolving educational environment;

2.2 be imaginative, resourceful, innovative and self-reliant in their approaches to teaching; and

2.3 be effective organisers sensitive and responsive to pupils’ needs.

3.0 OBJECTIVES
By the end of the course student-teachers should be able to:

3.1 interpret syllabus documents, draw up schemes of work, plan and prepare lessons confidently and effectively;

3.2 evaluate teaching and learning processes;

3.3 select, structure and improvise teaching and learning resources for effective delivery of learning experiences;

3.4 employ a variety of methods, strategies and technologies of organising children’s learning activities;

3.5 effectively demonstrate a sound and firm grasp of the knowledge and various skills needed to teach various subject areas;
3.6 assess and evaluate learners’ performance through the construction and use of valid instruments;

3.7 compile and maintain records necessary and appropriate in monitoring children’s progress, remediation and personal circumstances; and

3.8 utilise the physical and social environment to best advantage for educational ends in attempting to reconcile the real world with the classroom.

4.0 CONTENT

4.1 PREPARATION FOR TEACHING:
- Interpreting syllabus documents.
- Formulating Aims, scheming, evaluating.
- Commenting.
- Stating performance objectives, planning and evaluating.
- Chalkboard writing skills.
- Preparation and use of audio-visual aids.

4.2 CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT AND SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION
4.2.1 Class/classroom management/organisation
- Group work and group dynamics.
- Ability and mixed ability grouping.
- Reinforcement.
- Reflective practice.

4.2.2 Class displays, subject corners.

4.2.3 Assessing learning
- Types and functions of tests
- Construction of tests
- Types of records.

4.2.4 Compiling and maintaining records:
- Register
- Individual
- Progress
- Remedial and Extension
- Reading.

4.2.5 Discipline.

4.2.6 Duties and responsibilities of the class teacher and head.
4.2.7 Conditions of service e.g. appointment, advancement, promotion, etc.

4.3 FOUNDATION LANGUAGE
- Definitions of Language
- Acquisition of Language
- Language and thought
- Concept of reading.

4.4 FOUNDATION EXPRESSIVE ARTS
- Expressive Arts e.g. Art and Craft, P.E. and Music across the curriculum
- Development of manipulative skills.
- Methods for introducing and developing expressive Arts.
- Identification and application of activities.
- Evaluating Expressive Arts.

4.5 FOUNDATION SCIENCE
- Environmental Science and Home Economics across the curriculum.
- Process skills in Environmental Science/Home Economics learning.
- Use of local resources in learning.
- Evaluation of learning/teaching in the Primary School.

4.6 FOUNDATION MATHEMATICS
- Mathematics across the curriculum.
- Making and using aids in Mathematics.
- Methods for introducing and developing Mathematical concepts.
- Constructing, setting, marking exercises, tests and examinations.
- Interpreting the results of tests and examinations.
- Analysis and remediation of pupil errors.

4.7 APPROACHES TO TEACHING
- Introducing lessons.
- Developing lessons through pupil activity.
- Conducting lessons.
- Demonstration techniques.
- Use of primary and secondary resources.
- Questioning skills.
- Story telling across the curriculum.
- Drama across the curriculum.
- Inquiry, lecture, discussion, problem solving.
- Voice control modulation and projection.
- Teacher-pupil and pupil-pupil interaction.
- Stimulus variation and motivation in general.
• Creative Activity.

5.0 APPROACHES

5.1 Residential, vacation courses and seminars
• Lectures
• Lecturelettes
• Group discussions
• Personal reading
• Individual and group research
• Resource persons
• Films and tapes.

5.2 Distance Education and Teaching practice
• Modules
• Handouts
• Tutorial letters
• Demonstrations
• Observations
• Project work
• Seminars.

6.0 ASSESSMENT PROCEDURES

6.1 Final assessment will be based on coursework and a written examination.

6.1.1 Coursework assignments:
• One distance education
• Two assignments during final residential phase.

6.1.2 Final Examination: One three-hour paper.

6.2 Weighting:

6.2.1 Coursework 50%
   Examination 50%

6.2.2 In order to pass, candidates have to pass both coursework and the exam added in Syllabus “A” with a minimum 50% in each of the components.

6.2.3 Syllabus A and Syllabus B shall each constitute 40% of the marks in Section IV while Syllabus C constitutes 20%. Students shall pass both Syllabus A and Syllabus B and shall also pass the C.D.S. Project with a minimum 40%.
APPENDIX B

UNIVERSITY OF ZIMBABWE

DEPARTMENT OF ZIMBABWE

DIPLOMA IN EDUCATION

NYADIRE TEACHERS’ COLLEGE

SYLLABUS DOCUMENT FOR:

PROFESSIONAL STUDIES SYLLABUS “A”
(PSA)

CONTENTS

1. Preamble
2. Aims
3. Objectives
4. Approaches
5. Content
   (a) methodology
   (b) management and administration
   (c) classroom management
   (d) measurement and evaluation
   (e) Educational Media and Technology
6. Assessment
1. **PREAMBLE**

The syllabus “A” is a three year pre-service programme in professional studies which is designed to focus on and broaden the students’ theoretical background in all subject areas of the primary school. It is structured as follows; students will have residential learning for the first two terms, five terms teaching practice and the last two terms residential learning and examinations.

2. **AIMS**

The course aims to:
- Cultivate the ability to teach effectively using a variety of methods, strategies and techniques.
- Assist students to become self-sufficient and innovative in their teaching in the primary school.
- Develop the skills and knowledge that will enable students to contribute meaningfully to the development of curriculum in a dynamic education environment of Zimbabwe.
- Help students acquire skills and knowledge required to promote effective teaching and learning in the primary school.

3. **OBJECTIVES**

By the end of the course students should be able to:
- Translate the primary school syllabi into schemes of work;
- Prepare and present lessons effectively;
- Establish links between research findings and practical teaching situations;
- Present lessons effectively utilising approaches studied during the training course;
- Use a variety of instructional media and devise their own purposeful materials to promote child centred learning;
- Evaluate the whole teaching learning process;
- Develop and use sound classroom management skills to obtain pupils’ attention, effort and cooperation; and
- Identify and equip student teachers with skills to manage pupils who experience difficulties in learning.

4. **APPROACHES**

- Mass lecturers;
- Peer group teaching;
- Micro-teaching;
- Observation;
- Research;
- Seminars;
- Independent study;
- Video/films;
• Resource persons; and
• Handouts.

5. CONTENT

A) METHODOLOGY:
• Story telling;
• Illustrated tasks/lecture;
• Demonstrations;
• Experimentation;
• Drill;
• Resource persons;
• Excursions/field trips;
• Drama;
• Role play;
• Future’s wheel;
• Free activities-puzzles, quizzes, debates, games, tasks cards, etc;
• Organising effective class discussions and reports, group tutorials, buzz
groups, syndicates, skills session and the learning centre cell; and
• Pupils with special learning needs.

B) MANAGEMENT and ADMINISTRATION

(i) PLANNING and ORGANISING THE PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT
• Furniture and equipment;
• Activity centres;
• Outdoor material and equipment;
• Seating arrangements;
• Management versus instruction;
• Classroom management problems;
• Classroom instruction problems;
• Appropriate classroom instruction strategies;
• Behaviour modification;
• Socio-emotional climate; and
• Preventive management.

(ii) SCHOOL ADMINISTRATION
• Administrative structures of the education system in Zimbabwe;
• Role of the Regional Office;
• Roles of Heads, Deputy Heads and TICs;
• Role of the School Development Associations/Committees;
• School records and record-keeping;
• Discipline and forms of punishment;
• Channels of communication; and
• Introduction to public service regulations, acts of misconducts and policy circulars.

C) CLASSROOM MANAGEMENT

(i) PREPARATION FOR TEACHING:
• The curriculum;
• The syllabus;
• Schemes of work;
• Lesson preparation and planning;
• Lesson presentation;
• Types of lessons; and
• Evaluations of lesson plans.

(ii) CLASS ORGANISATION FOR INSTRUCTION:
• Grouping pupils;
• Size of groups; and
• Types of groups (ability and mixed groups).

(iii) RECORD KEEPING:
• Types of records; and
• Various ways of keeping class records.

D) MEASUREMENT and EVALUATION

(i) MEASUREMENT VS EVALUATION:
• Criteria for measuring instruments;
• Types of tests;
• Item writing;
• Marking guides/schemes;
• Making use of and examination results;
• Grading pupils’ performances; and
• Writing term and end of year class reports.

(ii) MARKING PUPILS’ WORK:
• Meaning of marks;
• How do we mark?
• Teachers, comments in pupils’ exercise books; and
• Homework assignments.

E) EDUCATIONAL MEDIA AND TECHNOLOGY

(a) INTRODUCTION TO EDUCATIONAL MEDIA AND TECHNOLOGY:
• What is media?
• What is technology:
• Classification of media;
• Benefits of EMT;
• Negative aspects attached to EMT; and
• The fundamental aspects of EMT.

(b) TYPES OF MEDIA

(i) **Visual Media:**
- The chalk and chalkboard skills;
- Wall charts;
- Flash cards;
- Flip charts;
- Flannel graphs;
- The bulletin board; and
- Learning games.

(ii) **Graphic Symbols:**
- Colour;
- Lettering techniques; and
- Visual symbols.

(iii) **Three Dimensional Media:**
- Maps;
- Exhibits;
- Mobiles;
- Globe;
- Field trips;
- Dramatisation; and
- Newspapers.

(iv) **Audio Media:**
- Art and speech;
- Radio; and
- Tape recorder.

(v) **Advanced Teaching Media:**
- Projected media;
- OHP;
- Slides and film strips, TV and video; and
- Computer hardware and software.

(c) **LEARNING CENTRES:**
- Definition of learning centre;
- What is found in learning centres?
- The design of a learning centre;
• General functions of a learning centre.

(d) PERSPECTIVES IN EDUCATIONAL MEDIA AND TECHNOLOGY:
• Definitions of perspectives;
• Behaviourists perspectives;
• Cognitive perspectives;
• Constructivists perspectives; and
• Social-Psychologists perspectives..

(e) THEORIES OF MEDIA AND TECHNOLOGY:
• Hobban Hoban and Zissman’s view;
• Edgar Dale’s cone of experiences;
• Implications of the two models to classroom context;
• The ASSURE model; and
• Implications of this model to classroom context.

(f) LEARNING MEDIA AND PERCEPTION:
• What is perception?
• Experience basis of perception;
• Biological basis of perception;
• Learning media and perception; and
• Language and perception.

(g) VISUALS AND THEIR IMPACT:
• What are visuals?
• Types of visuals; and
• Impact of visuals on teaching and learning.

(h) VISUAL LITERACY AND TRAINING:
• What is visual literacy?
• Aims of visual training; and
• Visual literacy and training in the primary school.

6.0 ASSESSMENT

6.1 Assessment of students will be based on coursework and a final examination.

6.1.1 COURSEWORK:

Assignments – 2 practicals and 1 theory.

One of the assignments will be done during the last term of teaching practice and the other TWO will be done during the last residential session.
6.1.2 **EXAMINATION:**

One-three hour paper (which comprises 2 sections). Students answer one question from section A, the second from section B and the third from either section A or B.

6.1.3 **WEIGHTING:**

In order to pass, students must score a minimum of 50% both in coursework and examination component.
APPENDIX C

UNIVERSITY OF ZIMBABWE

DEPARTMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION

MORGAN ZINTEC COLLEGE

DIPLOMA IN EDUCATION (PRIMARY)

PROFESSIONAL STUDIES SYLLABUS C

1.0 PREAMBLE

Professional Studies Syllabus C consists of the preparation and presentation of a curriculum depth study (C.D.S) by students in the post “O” Level three-year course. Of the three years, two terms are residential in college, five terms devoted to distance education and attachment teaching practice and the final two terms residential in college. The intention is to lay the foundation for the development of classroom oriented research skills which can benefit the student teacher throughout a successful pedagogical career. The student teacher is expected to acquire professional skills, knowledge and values, to be vitally concerned with children and their growth, behaviour and learning problems, and be committed to solving practical classroom problems through research.

2.0 AIMS

This aims to enable student teachers to:

2.1 improve teaching skills, especially methodology and the use of learning aids;

2.2 increase capacity for creativity and originality;

2.3 develop a critical appreciation of existing teaching materials in the context of the primary school curriculum;

2.4 develop knowledge and skills in research; and

2.5 contribute to the body of educational research at both college and national levels.
3.0 OBJECTIVES

By the end of the course student teachers should be able to:

3.1 use a variety of methods in teaching various units in a selected subject area, in order to determine the merits or demerits of the methods used;

3.2 contribute to the teaching of a chosen subject area through small scale research;

3.3 identify and justify suitable research topics;

3.4 demonstrate knowledge and skills in research techniques i.e. literature review, collecting data, analysis and presenting the data, drawing conclusions; and

3.5 present the research findings in accordance with the college format.

4.0 CONTEXT

4.1 EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH:

- Research methods
- Conceptual framework
- Forms of research
- Sampling procedures.

4.2 C.D.S.:

- Conceptual framework
- Rationale for C.D.S.
- Types of C.D.S.
- Identifying a specific problem area for C.D.S.
- Planning the research project.

4.3 PROJECT FORMAT:

- Preliminaries
- Introduction
  - Statement of the problem
  - Objectives
  - Hypothesis/research questions, etc.
- Review of related literature
- Research design, methods, population, sample, tools/instruments
- Data presentation and analysis
- Summary, conclusions and recommendations
- References.
5.0 APPROACHES

- Lectures
- Research
- Field work
- Tutorials
- Seminars
- Resource persons.

6.0 ASSESSMENT

6.1 The weighting for Syllabus C as specified in the Policy Document for Professional Studies constitutes 20% of Section IV.

Professional Studies A is responsible for the coordination of C.D.S. – C.D.S. supervision is the responsibility of Professional Studies Syllabus B. Subject areas are expected to follow the general format for C.D.S. supervision.
APPENDIX D

ZIMBABWE OPEN UNIVERSITY

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATIONAL MANAGEMENT

BACHELOR OF EDUCATION, EDUCATIONAL ADMINISTRATION, PLANNING AND POLICY STUDIES DEGREE PROGRAMME [B.Ed EAPPS]

THE VISION

To develop high quality leadership for the efficient and effective management of the education system in Zimbabwe and the Southern Africa Development Community through distance teaching and open learning

THE MISSION

The purpose of the programme is to enhance capacity building by equipping officers in educational administrative positions with relevant administrative and planning skills. This is a programme which also caters for clients who are in other administrative positions outside the field of education.

OBJECTIVES OF THE PROGRAMME

(i) To increase accessibility to university education by many professionals engaged in educational administration, in planning and in educational policy-making.

(ii) To improve the quality of school governance by training relevant personnel in the three areas mentioned in (i) above.

(iii) To develop an administrator who is capable of both formulating and evaluating educational policy for the betterment of the system as a whole.

(iv) To develop manpower capable of solving educational problems through systematic research.

(v) To ensure that the services offered to students are of the highest quality.

COURSE STRUCTURE

The programme is taken over a duration of four years and assessment comprises of both coursework and examinations.
## COURSES ON OFFER

### Part I

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Course Code</th>
<th>Course</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>EA3DC102</td>
<td>Managing Schools</td>
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<tr>
<td>EA3DC103</td>
<td>Leadership and Supervision</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA3DC105</td>
<td>Introduction to Policy Studies</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA3DC104</td>
<td>Educational Planning and Development</td>
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<tr>
<td>EA3DC201</td>
<td>Introduction to Educational Statistics</td>
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### Part II

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<td>EA3AD303</td>
<td>Curriculum Planning, Implementation, Change &amp; Innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA3PD302</td>
<td>Post Colonial State &amp; Educational Policy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA3DC101</td>
<td>Change Processes in Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>EA3PD101</td>
<td>Introduction to Research Methods</td>
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<tr>
<td>EA3PD201</td>
<td>Educational Project Management and Evaluation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA3PD202</td>
<td>Management of Resources in Schools</td>
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<td>EA3AD202</td>
<td>Staff Development Programmes in Education</td>
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### Part II

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<td>EA3AD203</td>
<td>Educational Business Administration</td>
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<tr>
<td>EA3PD301</td>
<td>Introduction to Economics of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>EA3DC401</td>
<td>Research Project</td>
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<tr>
<td>EA3PD203</td>
<td>Educational Policy Making Process</td>
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<tr>
<td>EA3AD301</td>
<td>Leadership and Organisational Effectiveness</td>
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### Part IV (all the courses are electives except EA3DC402, EA3DC401 and EA3PD304)

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<td>EAEDC401</td>
<td>Research Project</td>
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<tr>
<td>EA3DC402</td>
<td>Computer Application in Educational Research</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>EA3PD302</td>
<td>The Role of the Instructional Leader</td>
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<td>EA3PD304</td>
<td>Measurement and Evaluation</td>
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<td>EA3AD201</td>
<td>Classroom Management</td>
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<tr>
<td>EA3PD404</td>
<td>Collective Bargaining in Education</td>
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<td>EA3AD401</td>
<td>Modern Developments in Primary Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>EA3AD402</td>
<td>Modern Developments in Secondary Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>EA3AD403</td>
<td>Feminist Perspectives in Educational Administration</td>
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<td>EA3AD404</td>
<td>Evaluation of Educational Personnel</td>
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<td>EA3PD401</td>
<td>Introduction to Organisational Development</td>
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<td>EA3PD402</td>
<td>Politics of Education</td>
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<tr>
<td>EA3PD403</td>
<td>Qualitative Methods in Educational Planning</td>
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</table>
ENTRY REQUIREMENTS

To be admitted into the B.Ed programme, the applicants are required to have:

- At least 5 “O” level passes including English Language.
- A professional teacher’s training course approved by the university.
- Satisfactory field experience in educational administration work or in administration in the public or private sector.

In addition, the applicants may be required to take any special university entrance examination which may be deemed necessary by the university.

There are no age restrictions to entry onto the programme.

PRELIMINARY STUDIES

Candidates who may not have sufficient credits to be considered under normal entry may wish to enrol for a number of preliminary courses, prior to obtaining full admission into the programme. This provides an opportunity for the Department to assess the potential of the student to succeed in the B.Ed (EAPPS) programme.

DELIVERY METHODS

- Printed Modules.
- Face-to-face interaction
- Written communications with individual students on specific problems.
- Radio broadcasts.
- Tele and video conferencing.
- E-mail/Internet.

ASSESSMENT PROCEDURE

Coursework comprises 30% and the written examination 70% of the final mark in each course. Each course, with the exception of the research project, is examined by a 1½ hours written paper.

To be eligible for admission to the examination, a candidate must have satisfactorily met coursework requirements.

DEPARTMENTAL STAFF

1. Chairperson
2. One Administrative Assistant
3. Regional Full-time and Part-time staff
4. The Department Secretary.

TUITION

A payment plan can be worked out for students who cannot afford full payment at registration.

CAREER POSSIBILITIES

Primary School Head
Secondary School Head
District Education Officer
Regional Education Officer
School Principal
Training Officer
Administrative Assistant
Personnel Manager
Consultant
Programme Officer
APPENDIX E

UNIVERSITY OF ZIMBABWE

DEPARTMENT OF TEACHER EDUCATION

SEKE TEACHERS’ COLLEGE

DIPLOMA IN EDUCATION (PRIMARY)

PROFESSIONAL STUDIES ENVIRONMENTAL SCIENCE SYLLABUS ‘B’

1.0 PREAMBLE

The three-year course in Environmental Science is intended for post “O” level pre-service student teachers who will teach this subject in the primary school. The course is structured as follows: two terms initial residential phase; five terms attachment teaching practice and two terms final residential phase. The course focuses on the study of Physical Environment i.e. the biotic, abiotic and man-made environment.

2.0 AIMS

The course aims to:

2.1 enable student teachers to develop concepts, skills and scientific attitudes;

2.2 develop an understanding of the learning needs of children at various stages of their development in Environmental Science;

2.3 assist student teachers to relate classroom materials for Environmental Science lessons and classroom organisation to the children’s physical, social, emotional and intellectual development;

2.4 instil basic scientific research and experimental skills;

2.5 develop the ability to design meaningful instructional programmes;

2.6 promote positive attitudes in student teachers towards use of the environment; and

2.7 cultivate evaluation skills for effective instruction.
3.0 OBJECTIVES

During the course, student teachers will:

3.1 interpret the Environmental Science syllabus;

3.2 analyse key concepts and develop related content and resource materials for Environmental Science teaching;

3.3 identify skills and attitudes pertaining to the Environmental Science syllabus topics;

3.4 design appropriate schemes and lesson plans for the different grades;

3.5 select suitable pupil activities appropriate to the stage of development of the pupils and try them out;

3.6 demonstrate the importance of linking theory and practice by engaging in scientific gardening projects;

3.7 use the scientific approach to problem-solving in their everyday life;

3.8 employ a variety of methods in the teaching of Environmental Science;

3.9 utilise the environment as a laboratory and a resource;

3.10 acquire skills to conserve resources; and

3.11 improvise teaching/learning media.

4.0 CONTENT

4.1 Philosophy of Science Education:

- Definitions of Environmental Science;
- The Nature and Scope of Environmental Science; and
- How children learn science.

4.2 Preparation for Teaching:

- Syllabus interpretation:
  - Structure of the syllabus
  - Concept analysis
- Using the environment as a laboratory;
- Using the environment as a source of materials for making apparatus for Environmental Science learning;
- Varying pupils’ methods of recording;
• Community involvement in Environmental Science teaching;
• Integrating Environmental Science with other subjects;
• Scheming to the Environmental Science syllabus;
• Planning and preparing activity for Environmental Science lessons using a variety of techniques such as: simulations, field trips, projects, demonstrations, games and experiments;
• Questioning:
  o Why questioning?
  o Types of questions;
  o Responses to pupils’ answers.
• Assessment of pupils’ work:
  o Process assessment
  o Product assessment
• Scientific gardening:
  o Seed sowing
  o Seedling planning
  o Tree caring
  o Fruit planting and caring
  o Pest control
• Content enrichment of some problem topics: e.g. materials and technology, weather, landforms and maps;
• Population Education in Science:
  o Growth
  o Effects of Rapid Growth
• Class and classroom management
  o Classroom problems in Environmental Science teaching;
  o Organisation of individual and group work; and
  o Teaching from the environment – out door lessons.

5.0 APPROACHES

• Resource Persons
• Field trips
• Lectures
• Library research
• Experimentation
• Films and videos
• Micro-teaching
• Discussions
• Demonstrations
• Seminars
• Assignments
• Modules and handouts
• Problem-solving
• Simulations
• Vacation courses.
6.0 ASSESSMENT

6.1 COURSEWORK

- The coursework consists of three written assignments including a practical assignment which is community based done on teaching practice, one written and the other one is on in-depth study.

- In order to pass, the candidate should score 50% or better.
APPENDIX F

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR GRADUATES OF THE BEDEAPPS DEGREE PROGRAMME OFFERED BY THE ZIMBABWE OPEN UNIVERSITY

INTRODUCTION

This questionnaire is part of a research to determine the relevance of the BEDEAPPS degree programme offered by the Zimbabwe Open University to the professional growth of trained primary school teachers in Zimbabwe. Findings of the research will help the Zimbabwe Open University to provide a programme that will enable the intended clientele to develop professionally.

[Circle the appropriate answer and give very brief descriptions where they are required]

NB: YOUR ANSWERS WILL BE TREATED WITH THE STRICTEST CONFIDENTIALITY AND YOUR IDENTITY WILL REMAIN ANONYMOUS.

Q1. Gender: (1) Male (2) Female

Q2. Title: (1) Mr (2) Mrs (3) Miss (4) Ms (5) Dr (6) Professor

Q3. Year graduated: ………………………

Q4. What is your highest qualification? (1) First degree (2) Masters degree

Q5. Title: (1) Teacher (2) Head of Department (3) Teacher-In-Charge (4) Sports Master/Mistress (5) Headmaster (6) Other (specify): ………………………

Q6. Work experience: (1) 1-5 years (2) 6-10 years (3) 11-15 years (4) 15-20 years

Q7. The B.Ed [EAPPS] degree programme equipment you with skills and abilities listed below:

(a) Ability to develop curriculum for primary school classes:
(1) Yes (2) No

(b) Ability to organise and manage a primary class:
(1) Yes (2) No

(c) Ability to relate well with fellow teachers and parents:

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(1) Yes  (2) No  
(d) Ability to evaluate and assess pieces of work produced by primary school pupils:  
(1) Yes  (2) No  

(e) Ability to conduct lessons effectively:  
(1) Yes  (2) No  

(f) Ability to plan lessons efficiently:  
(1) Yes  (2) No  

(g) Ability to teach effectively each of the subjects on the primary school timetable:  
(1) Yes  (2) No  

(h) Ability to clearly understand each pupil as an individual:  
(1) Yes  (2) No  

(i) Deeper understanding and appreciation of subjects taught in primary schools:  
(1) Yes  (2) No  

Q8. Key:  SA: Strongly Agree  A: Agree  
N: Neutral  D: Disagree  
SD: Strongly Disagree  

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Q8</th>
<th>Statement</th>
<th>SA</th>
<th>A</th>
<th>N</th>
<th>D</th>
<th>SD</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(a)</td>
<td>The module Managing Schools makes you feel you were a manager as opposed to being a good classroom teacher.</td>
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<td>(b)</td>
<td>The module Managing Schools helps you to make sound managerial decisions during classroom sessions.</td>
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<td>(c)</td>
<td>The module Leadership and Supervision helps you to provide good leadership in classroom situations.</td>
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<td>(d)</td>
<td>The module Leadership and Supervision is only useful to a teacher who intends to assume leadership roles within the school and the community.</td>
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<td>(e)</td>
<td>The module Introduction to Policy Studies helps you to contribute positively to issues related to education policies as they affect teaching in primary schools.</td>
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<td>(f)</td>
<td>The module Introduction to Policy Studies is inappropriate for operatives like primary school teachers.</td>
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<td>(g)</td>
<td>The module Introduction to Policy Studies is inappropriate for operations like primary school teachers.</td>
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<td>(h)</td>
<td>The module Curriculum Planning, Implementation, Change and Innovation enables you to assess suitability of curricula used at various levels of primary school education.</td>
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<td>(i)</td>
<td>The module Staff Development Programmes in Educational Research enables you to be an active researcher of classroom and school based educational issues.</td>
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<td>(j)</td>
<td>The module Role of Instruction Leader improves your lesson planning and presentation skills.</td>
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<td>(k)</td>
<td>The module Introduction to Research Methods makes you aware of how research in your own classroom situation can be carried out for the benefit of your school and the whole education set up.</td>
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<td>(l)</td>
<td>The module Measurement and Evaluation makes you both an effective and objective assessor within your classroom set up.</td>
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<td>(m)</td>
<td>Tutorials and modules provided by the Zimbabwe Open University gave you adequate assistance that saw you successfully go through your BEDEAPPS programme.</td>
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<td>(n)</td>
<td>The BEDEAPPS programme requires more contact hours and facilities to enable students to get much needed attention and assistance to do well in their studies.</td>
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<td>(o)</td>
<td>The inclusion of modules on Philosophy, Sociology and Psychology and Education will make the BEDEAPPS programme more meaningful to a primary school teacher.</td>
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<td>(p)</td>
<td>Supervised classroom teaching should be added to the BEDEAPPS programme to make it more relevant to a classroom practitioner.</td>
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<td>(q)</td>
<td>Name at most 4 modules which appear irrelevant to the classroom teacher but whose content can easily be transferred to classroom teaching requirements and skills.</td>
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Q9. Have teaching standards and examination results in most primary schools in your area improved since Zimbabwe Open University graduates in the BEDEAPPS started playing their roles at class teachers?

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Q10. Briefly describe areas of your professional life as a teacher that were not adequately addressed by the BEDEAPPS programme you studied for.

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APPENDIX G

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR BEDEAPPS STUDENTS IN THEIR FIRST SEMESTER OF THE PROGRAMME

Q1. Gender: (1) Male (2) Female

Q2. Highest qualification: .................................................................

Q3. Region: ...........................................................................

Q4. List three important skills you as a primary school teacher hope to acquire by studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme:
   (a) ........................................................................
   (b) ........................................................................
   (c) ........................................................................

Q5. Which three subjects offered by the Zimbabwe Open University do you think will enable you to acquire those skills?
   (a) ........................................................................
   (b) ........................................................................
   (c) ........................................................................

Q6. Did you enrol for the BEDEAPPS degree to further your teaching capabilities?
   (1) Yes (2) No

   Explain your response: ..............................................................
   ........................................................................

Q7. Did you consider yourself less qualified as a teacher than your colleagues who hold BEDEAPPS degree certificates?
   (1) Yes (2) No

   Explain your response: ..............................................................
   ........................................................................
Q8. Do BEDEAPPS graduates produce better examination results than college trained teachers?  (1) Yes  (2) No

Q9. After attaining a BEDEAPPS degree certificate, which areas do you believe you can teach your colleagues who do not have this qualification? List 3 major areas.
(a)  
(b)  
(c)  

Q10. After attending first semester lectures, do you realise any change in your attitude towards your work as a class teacher?  (1) Yes  (2) No

Q11. If you were asked to assess the effect of BEDEAPPS degree programme on your performance as a teacher so far, would you say?
(1) A useless programme  (2) a fairly useful programme  
(3) The effect is yet to be realised  (4) Any other, explain  

Q12. Are you looking forward to the next semester or you would wish this first semester was your final one?  (1) Yes  (2) No

Q13. If you do not do well in your examinations, is there any urge that will push you to continue with your studies?  (1) Yes  (2) No

Q14. Are you proud to be a student of the ZOU studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme?  (1) Yes  (2) No
Q15. Do you consider distance education as an effective way of offering a degree like the BEDEAPPS degree programme? Explain your answer.

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Q16. Do you think distance education in general can be used to train effective teachers? Explain your answer.

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Q17. After acquiring a BEDEAPPS degree certificate, do you intend to continue teaching or you would want a change of jobs? (1) Yes (2) No

Q18. Describe in a sentence or two the changes you hope to effect in your class when the school term begins in January.

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APPENDIX H

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR EDUCATION OFFICERS WHO SUPERVISE PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

NB: YOUR ANSWERS WILL BE TREATED WITH THE STRICTEST CONFIDENTIALITY AND YOUR IDENTITY WILL REMAIN ANONYMOUS

Q1. Gender: (1) Male  (2) Female

Q2. Title: (1) Mr  (2) Mrs  (3) Miss  (4) Ms  (5) Dr  (6) Professor

Q3. Work experience: (1) 1-5 years  (2) 6-10 years  (3) 11-15 years  (4) 16 – 20 years

Q4. Using your Ministry’s assessment criteria, list desirable qualities possessed by primary school teachers who hold the BEDEAPPS degree certificate offered by the Zimbabwe Open University.

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Q5. Describe skills areas that still require attention even though these teachers are BEDEAPPS graduates.

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APPENDIX I

WRITE UP FOR HEADS OF SCHOOLS WHICH HAVE BEDEAPPS GRADUATES

Briefly describe the skills that BEDEAPPS graduates on your staff have.

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Briefly describe what you consider to be their areas of competence advantage over their colleagues who are not BEDEAPPS graduates.

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List areas that require to be improved in order to make the BEDEAPPS degree programme an effective further teacher education programme for primary school class teachers in Zimbabwe

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APPENDIX J

WRITE UP FOR BEDEAPPS PROGRAMME LECTURERS

Give a brief description of the kind of empowerment that the BEDEAPPS degree programme gives to the primary school teacher.

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Describe what you consider to be the shortcomings of the programme in as far as it attempts to provide further teacher education to primary school teachers.

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Briefly describe the effect of the non-availability of technology based teaching strategies within the Zimbabwe Open University on the quality of interactions between BEDEAPPS students and their lecturers.

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List recommendations that can help to improve the value of the BEDEAPPS degree programme as a further teacher education programme.
APPENDIX K

WRITE UP FOR BEDEAPPS GRADUATES

Briefly describe the kind of skills and capabilities you attained by studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme:

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Suggest ways of improving the BEDEAPPS programme to make it suitable/appropriate for primary school teachers whose responsibility is to assist children to learn.

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APPENDIX L

RESEARCH INSTRUMENT FOR BEDEAPPS ZOU GRADUATES

SECTION ONE

INFORMATION ON PROFESSIONAL BACKGROUND PRIOR TO ATTAINING THE BEDEAPPS DEGREE

- Where they trained and for how long. Why they became teachers and whether they are realising this aim.
- Skills they acquired when they underwent their training.
- How well these skills were dealt with by their training institution.
- The most valuable skills they acquired and why they consider them important. Their input into the teaching profession.
- Their level of readiness to teach after their initial training.
- The most important professional achievement made since training as a teacher.
- Successes and failures as a primary school teacher and causes for successes or failure – problems encountered during execution of duties as a primary school teacher and causes. (Prior to attaining the BEDEAPPS). Did they have anything to do with their training level as teachers’ college graduates?
- How well prepared professionally were they to deal with challenges of the teaching profession after initial training.

SECTION TWO

INFORMATION RELATING TO THEIR ENROLLING FOR THE BEDEAPPS DEGREE PROGRAMME

- Any relationship between introduction of distance learning and the new era – independence.
- Attraction on enrolling for the BEDEAPPS degree programme. Was it for personal image or professional growth?
- Areas that they felt needed professional updating which prompted them to enrol for the BEDEAPPS degree programme.
The most valuable professional skills they attained during their studies.

The most enjoyable areas of study and why they found them to be enjoyable.

Was it then worthwhile studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme as primary school teacher?

Any specific changes that have occurred to the way they teach and handle their classes since attaining the new qualification.

Would they be any different if they had not studied for the BEDEAPPS degree
realisable.

Any link then between their initial training and the BEDEAPPS degree programme? Outstanding link areas and their importance to the teaching profession.

Nature of problem encountered during the period of study:
- related to resources
- related to meeting deadlines
- related to preparation for examinations.

Impression of the whole distance and open learning process – does it benefit students much? Given the chance, would you opt for conventional or distance and open learning?

Any comment on the entry requirements and the selection process.

The quality of exchanges between tutors and students and between students that occurred during tutorials. Any suggestion on improving the way tutorials are handled.

**Rating of the Link**

- Remote
- Fairly remote
- Close
- Very close

Can the BEDEAPPS degree programme be rated as a further training programme for primary school teachers? Are they better informed professionally than they were before acquiring the BEDEAPPS degree?

Any outstanding features that can be picked and their importance to the professional being of a teacher.
• Any roles of teachers that were enhanced by the BEDEAPPS programme.

• Should the programme be recommended for all primary school teachers and why. Is it, a good idea having this teacher’s programme.

SECTION THREE

INFORMATION ON AREAS REQUIRING IMPROVEMENT

• Any omissions that weakened the professional value of the programme.

• Any effect on the relevance of the programme to a teacher’s professional growth caused by the title of the programme BEDEAPPS.

• Any possible name replacement and its effect on the nature of the programme. Any problems caused by the current title of the programme?

• Any extra supervision required to enhance the professional value of the programme?

• Any training biased strategies required to create a stronger link between it and initial training.

• Any subjects to be added to make the programme more relevant to teacher education.

• Any assessment of shortcomings that require revisiting.

SECTION FOUR

COMMENTS ON THE PROGRAMME AND ADVICE TO FELLOW TEACHERS

• Any comment on the suggestion to make it a compulsory qualification for all trained primary school teachers?

• Any regrets about having spent four years studying for the BEDEAPPS degree programme and why?

• Any skills that you consider require further sharpening even after attaining the BEDEAPPS degree.

• Any advice to those teachers who are yet to enrol for the BEDEAPPS degree programme.
APPENDIX M

AN INTERVIEW SCHEDULE FOR HEADS OF SCHOOLS WITH BEDEAPPS GRADUATES

SECTION ONE

INFORMATION ON EXPECTED COMPETENCIES OF TRAINED PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

- The competences that are rated to be the highest and the most appropriate.
- Evaluation of the manner these competences are dealt with by training institutions.
- General evaluation of the readiness of teachers’ training graduates to effectively undertake the business of the teaching primary classes.
- Any in-house programmes meant to gap fill these inadequacies?

SECTION TWO

INFORMATION ON FURTHER TRAINING REQUIREMENTS FOR TRAINED PRIMARY SCHOOL TEACHERS

- The nature of skills problems that are faced by many trained primary school teachers.
- Competences that mandatorily require further training for primary school teaching to have meaning and purpose.
- The kind of change that will occur by providing further training. Why such change is required among primary school teachers?
- Any information on colleges offering this required further training and the kind of programmes they offer?
- Any clues or information on the BEDEAPPS degree programme offered by ZOU and what impression they have about it. Any comments on the general picture people have of the BEDEAPPS degree programme.
SECTION THREE

INFORMATION ON BEDEAPPS GRADUATES THEY SUPERVISE

- Number of ZOU BEDEAPPS graduates on their staff.
- Are these graduates any different from the college trained graduates?
- Any one or two specific characteristics they can fully describe – competence?
- Areas of competence that are outstanding among these graduates.
- What improvements do these competences bring to the learning situations in primary schools? Any specific gains on the part of students taught?
- Is class allocation being determined by one’s relationship with ZOU? Are ZOU graduates in upper classes or lower classes and why? Reaction of other teachers to this.
- Nature of their children’s performance compared with children taught by teachers’ college graduates.

SECTION FOUR

INFORMATION ON THE VALUE OR THE BEDEAPPS DEGREE PROGRAMME

- Is the BEDEAPPS programme offering further training for primary school teachers – comment giving specific examples.
- Which are the most critical further training skills being imparted to graduates? What level of success is ZOU achieving? Give an assessment description.
- Any effect on the performance of children they teach? Any difference in performance between their children and those taught by non-BEDEAPPS graduates?
- Any effect on the general school results? Any traces of a rise in the quality or otherwise?
- Level of confidence heads of schools have in BEDEAPPS graduates – any reasons for this confidence or lack of it. Well placed confidence or misplaced confidence.
• Contribution of BEDEAPPS graduates to the professional growth of other teachers. The nature of programmes they spearhead. Positions they hold in study circles or cluster programmes.

• Are they promotion material and why? The trend in promotion since the introduction of the BEDEAPPS graduate. Any regulations showing recognition of the importance of this programme in the professional development of primary school teachers.

• Comments on the BEDEAPPS programme as an answer to further training requirements of trained primary school teachers.

SECTION FIVE

INFORMATION ON THE DESIRED ADDITIONS TO THE BEDEAPPS DEGREE PROGRAMME

• Further competences to be incorporated by the BEDEAPPS degree programme to make it more relevant to primary school teachers’ training.

• Competences that do not enhance desired professional roles of primary school teachers.

• Any changes to the title to make the BEDEAPPS degree programme reflective of its role in the professional development of primary school teachers.

• Any comments that can help providers of the BEDEAPPS degree programme to make it a more effective programme for primary school teachers.
Research summary

The Research entitled “Teacher Education within the context of Open and Distance Learning: A Case Study,” was carried out to determine the professional value to practising primary school teachers in Zimbabwe of the Bachelor of Education in Administration, Planning and Policy studies (BEDEAPPS) offered by the Zimbabwe Open University (Z.O.U).

The target population of the research were 1997 to 2001 graduates of the programme who numbered four thousand (4000).

The research mainly utilized the Case Study design and used interview schedules and write-ups as the main data collecting instruments besides two questionnaires which were also used to compliment them. This necessitated the use of qualitative and quantitative data analysis methods. Random and non-random sampling methods were used to come up with research samples eventually used.

The findings of the research reflected that the BEDEAPPS degree programme had more to offer in the area of further teacher education of an in-service nature than had been envisaged by those who originated it. The programme, though having more emphasis on management and supervision, was found to contain instructional material useful to classroom practitioners. Findings also revealed a traceable link between Zimbabwean Pre-service Teachers Colleges syllabi and the form and content of the BEDEAPPS programme thereby revealing the diversity of further teacher education.

Findings further revealed that Open and Distance Learning was a suitable and effective means of delivering a further teacher education programme provided relevant supporting technology could be easily accessed.

The research, also had, among its findings, a grounded research theory which was embedded in the data collected.

The research had time related and operational constraints and limitations whose impact was repulsed by measures and controls effected by the researcher which included high work rate on the part of the researcher, diversity and a relatively high number of data collecting instruments.

Qualitative and quantitative data analysis methods used helped to improve the quality and authenticity of the whole research and related processes. (321)
TITLE OF THESIS
TEACHER EDUCATION WITHIN THE CONTEXT OF OPEN AND DISTANCE
LEARNING IN ZIMBABWE: A CASE STUDY

Key Terms:
Teacher Education; Zimbabwe; Roles and duties; Classroom Practitioners;
BEDEAPPS; Pre-service training; In-service training; Further Teacher Education;
Open and Distance Learning; Zimbabwe Open University graduates; Technology;
Professional value; Relevance; Linkages; Teachers Colleges Syllabi; Grounded
Theory; Evaluation; Case Study; Non-degreed Primary School Teachers;