THE INTERNATIONAL JOURNAL OF HUMANITIES & SOCIAL STUDIES

Factors Limiting Smooth Implementation of New Curriculum in Rural Secondary Schools of Zimbabwe: Case Study of Nyanga North Area, Zimbabwe

Charles Zhuwau
Lecturer, Department of Business Management and Marketing,
Catholic University of Zimbabwe, Zimbabwe
Milton Shumba
Lecturer, Zimbabwe Open University Harare Regional Campus, Zimbabwe

Abstract:
The purpose of this paper is to outline main hindrances facing smooth curriculum implementation in rural secondary schools of Zimbabwe, whilst identifying causes of the challenges. Solutions to address the challenges were also explored. A descriptive survey model utilising qualitative analysis method was adopted. Altogether, 59 participants drawn from three schools participated in questionnaire and personal interviews. Results showed that resource shortage, work overload and teachers lacking content knowledge hindered 2017 curriculum implementation success. These challenges were seen to result from inadequate planning, lack of stakeholder consultation, rural population lifestyle (poverty) and lack of human resource development prior to introduction of the new curriculum. However, educators reflected that successful curriculum implementation is a high possibility if proper planning is done, adequate resources are supplied to rural schools, various stakeholders are involved, and teachers are prepared to execute through training. The results imply that governments through education ministries have to consider discovered curriculum success implementation factors in this research for future curriculum changes in rural schools. New knowledge has been provided on curriculum implementation in rural setups.

Keywords: *New curriculum, rural secondary schools, smooth implementation*

1. Introduction

Zimbabwean primary and secondary education curriculum has undergone various alterations since independence in 1980. These modifications include Nziramasanga Commission of 1998 and New Curriculum (NC) of 2017 (Esau and Mpofu, 2017).Such syllabi changes came in response to societal problems believed to have resulted from education system shortcomings. Chief societal problem therein was hyper unemployment, surging above 90% (Onishi and Moyo, 2017). All the blame being put on irrelevance of education system believed to be producing job-seeking rather than enterprising graduates (Dambudzo, 2015). In that vein, 2017 Curriculum was anchored on a number of considerations including; 1) current negative phenomena; 2) government and public perception; 3) future challenges; and 4) future competences. These four views cover several aspects explicitly; failure of education to produce critically thinking graduates which has rendered many school leavers unemployable; hyper unemployment which has reduced youths to destitute; idle youths who are societal moral value devoid shown by how they normalise drug and alcohol abuse; youths who are easily manipulated into political violence; insignificant entrepreneurship in the society; emergent of informal sector economy which trivially contribute to the country's revenue; and low infrastructure development.

Education policy change efforts were meant to correct the anomaly. However, the energies of initiators seem to fall in vain as the NC faced unprecedented outcries from its implementers (teachers) across the country. Zimbabwean Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education (MPSE) administrators at district, provincial and national level have come to terms with the reality that 2017 Curriculum has experienced enormous obstacles in its implementation. Admittedly, curriculum review done in January 2017 has resulted to suspension of some of the teaching methods in question such as projects in all other subjects except practical learning areas and abolishment of continuous assessment programme. The question arising from the 2017 Curriculum is what could be failing its implementation in rural area of the country.

The main emphasis is on curriculum implementation rather than formulation as education policy literature point to majority of curriculum difficulties to be faced at implementation phase compared to formulation stage. Ogar and Awhen (2015) claimed that problems facing education policies are not with formulation rather lie with implementation. No matter how best crafted education policies are, their implementation poses a range of challenges. They include delivery time, lack of skills and knowledge, inadequacy of resources, parental expectations, lack of clarity about curriculum reforms, parental expectations, and lack of public examinations preparedness among others (Esau and Mpofu, 2017; Tikkanen, Pyhältö, Soini, and Pietarinen, 2017). Tatar, Tüysüz, Tosun and İlhan (2016) indicated that these factors are not

universal as different countries and regions have diverse cultural and educational institutions. The assumption is that Zimbabwean 2017 New Curriculum implementation faced some or all of these challenges.

It is against the above context the researcher found it paramount to determine sundry factors affecting curriculum implementation in rural secondary schools so as to contrive ways of correcting anomalies. Research results will help to effectively implement future curriculums. It will also assist educational policy-makers to proffer solutions to problems affecting curriculum implementation and inform future education curriculum researches. This paper therefore aims to identifydeterrents and solutions to new curriculum implementation in remote secondary schools of Zimbabwe.

1.1. Statement of the Problem

Zimbabwean education curriculum has undergone periodical reviews which necessitated syllabi changes. Despite exceptional policy documents crafted to guide curriculum implementation, execution seems to be failing. This has influenced decisions to either continue with old curriculums or alterations to the new curriculum. It is against this background that the research study seeks to identify potential hindrances to curriculum implementation in rural schools of Zimbabwe, their causes and solutions.

1.2. Research Objectives

The study aims to:

- Identify hindrances to curriculum implementation in rural secondary schools of Zimbabwe.
- Investigate the main causes of the challenges facing curriculum implementation in secondary schools of Zimbabwe.
- Come up with solutions to challenges facing curriculum implementation in rural secondary schools of Zimbabwe.

1.3. Research Questions

- What obstacles face curriculum implementation in rural secondary schools of Zimbabwe?
- What are the main causes of the challenges facing curriculum implementation in rural secondary schools of Zimbabwe?
- How can challenges facing curriculum implementation in rural secondary schools of Zimbabwe areaddressed?

2. Literature Review

Strategy literature clearly demarcates stages in operationalising policies. Policies follow three phases: policy formulation, policy implementation and policy evaluation (Athapaththu, 2016; Maleka, 2014; Ritson, 2011).Similar to all other strategies, curriculum change follows all the three policy phases. The most important implementation phase connotes operationalizing a well-articulated and well intentioned ideas packed as theory (Ogar and Awhen, 2015). Esau and Mpofu (2017) referred to implementation as putting into practice a well prescribed plan. In simple terms, implementation involves processes of putting to practice ideas and theories clearly knitted together. It hinges the success of any plan and separate plans from mere intentions and wishes. Separately, Offorma (2005) conceptualised curriculum as a three component programme of; studies, activities and guidance. Rumahlatu, Huliselan, and Takaria(2016) compared curriculum to a compass which guide the ship to sail the education world. It plays a crucial role of directing and guiding the learning activities (Rumahlatu *et al.,* 2016). Thus, curriculum is a planned learners experience acquired in schools through educators (Esu, Enukoha and Umoren, 2004; Ogar and Awhen, 2015).Implying that curriculum is a predetermined mechanism in schools to mould learners to suit societal shared values.

Curriculum implementation therefore entails putting into practice the officially prescribed courses of study, syllabuses and subjects (Chaudhary, 2015; Chikumbi and Makamure, 2005 in Esau and Mpofu, 2017).Ivowi (2004) forwarded it as translating theory to practice or converting a proposal to action.Chaudhary (2015) argues that curriculum cannot be implemented without implementing agents (teachers) and people to be made to function effectively in the society (learners). The two players interact in classroom to combine efforts of all stakeholders (teachers, learners, school administrators and parents) to effect an educational programme (Ogar and Awhen, 2015). Chaudhary (2015) summed up curriculum implementation by referring to it as the translation of a planned and officially designed course of study by teachers into syllabuses, schemes of work and lessons to be delivered to students. In simple terms curriculum implementation is the process of translating a curriculum design into classroom activities orthe actual inculcating of knowledge and societal values into learners.

2.1. Intention of Curriculum Changes

Researchers are in consensus that curriculum reformationis done continuously to improve education quality (Esau and Mpofu, 2017; Ni, Li and Zou, 2015; Radhumbu, 2015; Rumahlatu, Huliselan, and Takaria, 2016).Quality education manifest itself in the form of education system meeting new needs of a changing society, developing individuals and increasing international competitiveness of a nation (Ni *et al.,* 2015). According to Esau and Mpofu (2017) curriculum change is intended to develop learners' identity, moral uprightness and equipping them with skills to sustain their livelihoods whilst effectively contributing to national development. Hence, curriculum should ensure positive development of individuals, communities and countries on the international market.

2.2. Factors Influencing Curriculum Implementation

In educational research literature, many studies previously conducted to ironout factors affecting curriculum implementation targeted individual subject areas. Some of the factors include: students self-perception (Shen and Pedulla,

2000), classroom characteristics (Yore, Anderson and Shymansky, 2002), background of students (Areepattamannil & Kaur, 2013), and self-concept (Wang, Oliver and Staver 2008). This research focusis broader, without single subject focus as almost all learning areas in the Zimbabwean 2017 Curriculum have not been implemented successfully. Factors affecting curriculum implementation are at different levels of education systems and can be complementary or contradictory (Priestley, Biesta, Philippou and Robinson, 2015; Tieso and Hutcheson, 2014). Cheung and Wong (2012); Desimone (2002); Priestley *et al.,* (2014) argue that success of curriculum reforms are depended on structures, resources, understanding and attitude of involved stakeholders, and curriculum coherence as follows:

2.2.1. Resources

Cheung and Wong (2012) attributed resources in terms of funding and political structures which design the legislation to impact curriculum implementation more at national level. In support Keesing-Styles, Nash and Ayres (2014) claim that adequate resourcing in terms of finance, human capital and time positively influence curriculum reform success. According to Esau and Mpofu (2017) school preparedness to implement curriculum is shown by availability of relevant learning media, infrastructure and funds. Conversely, resource insufficiency leads to curriculum suffering still birth (Esau and Mpofu, 2017). In that same annotation, inadequate funding and human resources in terms of number and skills exacerbate curriculum implementation failure (Cheung and Wong, 2012).

2.2.2. Education Plan

Education policy is crafted to guide implementation. These knowledge artefacts (education policy document and legislation) are equally important as they regulate reform work (Cheung and Wong, 2012; Reezigt and Cheemers, 2005). Thus, education policy stability and coherence do facilitate curriculum execution (Desimone, 2002).

2.2.3. Leadership and Culture

At organisational level, success of curriculum implementation mostly depends on organisational culture and leadership (Tikkanenet al., 2017). Culture is born from leadership as leaders create or change organisational culture (Tsai, 2011). School administrators, principals and teachers provide leadership which incentivise and support education reforms (Germeten, 2011; Priestley, 2011; Thoonen, Sleegers, Oort, and Peetsma, 2012). They can create an implementation enabling culture. For instance, chief education officers having central role of bringing at local level a culture of collaboration through harmonising different departments (Barone, 2013), they would be facilitating active educators involvement and collaboration (Ho, 2010; López-Yáñez and Sánchez-Moreno,2013). Desimone (2002) associated active stakeholder involvement with curriculum execution success. Active teacher participation is also promoted at national level by consulting them for input when crafting policies. This has potential of creating a culture of trust and autonomy in teachers, which promotes agency over curriculum reform (Priestley, 2011). Ultimately, leadership involving teacher and encouraging a culture of collaboration drive teacher commitment to education reforms and realisation of objectives of these reforms (Ho, 2010; Priestley, 2011).

2.2.4. Stakeholder Competence

Success of curriculum implementation is a factor of individual attributes such as stakeholder competence and attitude. Cheung and Wong, (2012); Priestley, Minty and Eager (2014) argued that administrators' and teachers' knowledge lead to their understanding of curriculum changes. Teacher knowledge can be improved by engaging professional development which will smoothen delivery of intended changes (Salfi, 2010). Professional development workshops help to change educators' attitude towards deliverables of the curriculum. Leithwood *et al.,* (2002) in Tikkanen *et al.,* (2017) suggests that teachers' positive emotions towards curriculum reforms promote their persistence in advancing the overall change.

Fullan (2005); Hargreaves and Fink (2006) summed up adequacy of resources, time, professional support, knowledge, attitude and interest, school ethos, professional adequacy and participative leadership to be critical factors enabling curriculum implementation and management. Table 1 below describe these enablers.

Enabling Factor	Description
Adequate resources	Ample equipment, facilities and general resources needed for curriculum implementation.
Time	Adequate planning and delivering time requirements for curriculum change.
Participative leadership	Both Institutional and Departmental leadership to facilitate a collaborative approach to curriculum change is critical for successful and effective curriculum change process.
Professional support	Adequate and on-going institutional and departmental staff support crucially for effective curriculum change and implementation.
Professional adequacy	Staff competence and ability to implement curriculum change with confidence is critical for curriculum change effort success.
Professional knowledge	Understanding and knowledge educators possess with regard to curriculum change. These are different teaching ways that foster learning and are integral in successful curriculum implementation.
Professional attitude and interest	Staff interest and attitude towards change. Their keenness to implement curriculum change is key to curriculum implementation.
School ethos	This is the overall institutional philosophy towards curriculum change and how the new curriculum plays a significant role in institutional curriculum change success. An institutional philosophy that recognises curriculum change importance and seeks improvement is important for curriculum change success.

Table 1: Curriculum Change and Implementation Enablers
Source: Fullan(2005); Hargreaves and Fin(2006)

3. Methodology

The researcher adopted a descriptive survey research model in which qualitative methods were used. Qualitative research develops understanding of individuals and events in their natural state whilst taking relevant context into consideration (Marshall and Rossman, 2006). Karasar (2006) in Tatar*et al.* (2016) argued that surveys intend to describe a situation which occurred in the past or presently in reality. In order to describe hindrances to New Curriculum implementation, phenomenology research design was selected. Phenomenology thus refers to description of individual(s) element(s) cognisance and experience of an event (Johnson and Christensen, 2014).

3.1. Population and Sample

All teachers from three secondary schools in Nyanga North constituted the study population. From this population, all 76 educators were drawn to make the sample. A non-probability sampling method (convenience sampling) was used to select the three participating schools. The researcher selected schools which were convenient in terms of distance to the researcher's residential site. Such a decision was taken as schools in remote areas possess homogeneous characteristics. According to Fraenkel and Wallen (2006) convenience sampling collects data from individuals who are easily available for study. Table 1 below shows the sample demographic data:

	Gender	Number
School 1	Female	12
	Male	9
Total		21
School 2	Female	15
	Male	11
Total		26
School 3	Female	17
	Male	12
Total		29

Table 2: Sample Demographic Data

3.2. Data Collection

The research study utilised personal interviews and personally distributed questionnaires to collect data from administrators and non-administrative teachers, respectively. Adoption of triangulation was done to ensure reliability of collected data (Zhuwau and Shumba, 2018). Semi-structured questionnaires were distributed by the researcher to teachers available at each station for collection after two days. This was meant to allow respondents to use their spare time to provide questionnaire answers. The method not only motivated high response rate, but permitted thoughtful responses and its flexibility avoided disruption of respondents' productive time. However, interviews were targeted to school heads and deputy-heads as they are time consuming. Interviews complemented questionnaire responses and were significant in bringing out non-verbal cues not shown in questionnaires.

3.3. Data Presentation and Analysis

Contingency tables were used to present data. Row and column array of data makes it easy to present frequency data in size and order of occurrence. Contingency tables were also crucial in aiding easy data interpretation and qualitative analysis to derive meaningful information and research conclusions.

4. Findings and Discussion

4.1. Response Rate

High response rate for both administrators' interviews and questionnaires directed to teachers are summarised in Table 3 and 4.2 below.

Target Group (School Heads and Deputy-Heads)	Targeted Respondents (TR)	Actual Respondents (AR)	Percentage Response Rate (%) = $\frac{AR}{TR}$ X 100
School 1	2	2	100
School 2	2	1	50
School 3	2	2	100
Total	6	5	83

Table 3: School Administrators Interview Response Rate

Target Group (Teachers)	Distributed Questionnaires (DQ)	Returned Questionnaires (RQ)	Percentage Response Rate (%) = $\frac{RQ}{DQ}$ X 100
School 1	19	15	79
School 2	24	18	75
School 3	27	21	78
Total	70	54	77

Table 4: Teachers Questionnaire Response Rate

As shown in Table 3 and 4 above, out of six targeted interviews, five were conducted and of the 70 distributed questionnaires to compliment and validate interview data, 54 were returned. This signifies 83% and 77% response rates for school administrators directed interviews and teachers focused questionnaires, respectively. Such high response rates were enough for the researcher to draw conclusions that results obtained were a true reflection of the entire population. Baruch in Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012) argue that a high response rate of approximately 35% ensure that the used sample is representative of the entire population. High response rates can be ascribed to the researcher guaranteeing anonymity and confidentiality of obtained responses and questionnaire data collection failing to disrupt normal learning process.

4.2. Curriculum Implementation Deterrents

In gathering hindrances to New Curriculum implementation in remote parts of the country, the following responses were obtained from educators.

4.3. Teachers Lacking Content Knowledge

Rating	Frequency	Frequency Percentage (%)
Very Familiar	0	0
Fairly familiar	4	7
Don't Know	2	4
Not Familiar	48	89
Total	54	100

Table 5: Respondents' Familiarity with Added New Curriculum Content

Unfamiliar Content	Frequency	Frequency Percentage (%)
Tasks	54	100
Projects	52	96
Entrepreneurship	3	6
ICT	5	9
Total Returns	54	

Table 6: Content Respondents Were Not Familiar With

As shown in Table 5 above, majority of teachers (89%) claimed to be unfamiliar with content knowledge introduced in various learning areas. Major strange areasto educators were newly added tasks and projects. Table 6 is depicting that 100% and 96% of respondents claimed to possess no conceptual knowledge of tasks and projects,

respectively. Interview responses from school administrators sustained these claims. Teachers failing to appreciate newly introduced content resulted to them failing to deliver desired New Curriculum expectations. Fennema and Franke (1992) suggests that teacher content knowledge crucially influence classroom instruction as well as learners' subject area experience richness. Content knowledge dictate individual attributes such as competence (Tikkanen *et al.,* 2017), expertise and understanding of reforms (Cheung and Wong, 2012; Salonen- Hakomäki, Soini, Pietarinen and Pyhältö, 2016) which regulates success of curriculum implementation. Hence, inadequacy of content knowledge in teachers failed New Curriculum implementation, which inevitably resulted to suspension of tasks after an implementation review in January 2018.

4.5. Resource Shortage

The key setback to NC implementation in remote rural schools of Zimbabwe is insufficient resources as shown in Table 7 below.

Inadequate Resource	Frequency	Frequency Percentage (%)
Time	51	94
Textbooks	54	100
ICT Gadgets	47	87
Science Laboratory Equipment	38	70
Total Returns	54	

Table 7: Respondents' Perceived Inadequate Resources

4.5.1. Time

As indicated in Table 7 above, 94% of questionnaire respondents indicated time to be one of NC implementation limiting factor. School heads confirmed this in interviews by affirming that inclusion of tasks and research projects in various learning areas did not factor in the issue of time. The same time previously allocated to subjects was maintained despite enlargement of content in them. Principals claimed that time being a limiting factor placed their subordinates under pressure to cover syllabi, which in turn compromised education quality delivery. Time factor seems to have negatively affected curriculum implementation in rural secondary schools.

4.5.2. Lack of Instructional Material

Other than attaining an overwhelming response rate from both teachers and principals, a question probing adequacy of teaching material got similar responses from all schools under study. Almost all of the respondents claimed shortage of textbooks, Information Communication Technology (ICT) gadgets and Science Laboratory equipment to be stumbling blocks in smooth implementation of the NC. Signifying how important instructional material resources are for curriculum implementation success. According to Mkapa in Esau and Mpofu (2017) curriculum is bound to suffer a still birth if insufficient resources to implement it are supplied. Congruency between Mkapa's contention and research results signify how learning material shortage contributed to New Curriculum failure in remote parts of Zimbabwe.

4.6. Work Overload

Respondents mutually agreed that there is a general shortage of human resource to deliver NC in almost all schools in rural areas. School heads attributed teacher shortage to government failure to avail new teachers to teach newly introduced learning areas such as Heritage studies, Physical Education, Guidance and Counselling, and replacing staff on sick and maternity leave. Hence, teachers remaining in each station were forced to absorb subjects of those on leave and new learning areas. The dilemma has resulted to educators delivering content they were not trained to teach at college and subsequently increased their workload. Consequently, a compromised NC implementation became certain.

4.7. Bases of Curriculum Implementation Deterrents

Further scrutiny of above mentioned pragmatic factors affecting curriculum implementation brought copious causes of them to light. As presented in Table 8 below, all of the causes are pointing to top ministry authorities failing to consider paramount aspects that matter prior to curriculum implementation.

Causes of Impediments	Frequency	Frequency Percentage (%)
Inadequate planning	29	54
Lack of consultation	51	94
Poverty	37	66
Lack of training	46	85
Total Returns	54	

Table 8: Curriculum Implementation Impediments Root Causes

4.7.1. Inadequate Planning

Just above half of the questionnaire respondents indicated that rushing to implement curriculum without adequate resources such as textbooks, ICT gadgets and science laboratory equipment is a sign of not enough planning. Equally, all of the five interviewees claimed that government introducing new learning area content and making it compulsory for

schools to teach ICT skills and Combined Science without requisite resources to facilitate the same learning shows how planning was not done properly. The result will be failure of remote school students to appreciate some of the jargon and material they were going to face for the first time in examination. Hence attaining desired results will remain a dream in the pipeline. Contrary, proper planning could have established the need for necessary resources before curriculum execution and aid proper attainment of set goals.

4.7.2. Lack of Consultation

About 94% of teachers and above half the school heads pointed out that various stakeholders had no input in the newly introduced curriculum. Stakeholders in question included educators, learners and parents. Thus the policy lacked support from teachers and parents who felt eccentric on it as they did not own it. They rather resisted it as they assumed they were victims of a curriculum imposed on them.

4.7.3. Poverty

Approximately two thirds of the respondents were of the view that new curriculum demands failed to suit living standards of a poverty stricken Zimbabwean rural populace. School principals claimed that it was unrealistic to ask rural parents (struggling to pay $15 school levy) to purchase a laptop computer worth $400 for a child to bring to school. Henceforth, the researcher deduced from educators' responses that rural lifestyle (poverty) stood as a great cause of the challenges facing NC implementation. Poverty shaped parental attitudes (commitment) towards the introduced curriculum. Stakeholders' attitudes towards reforms, such as commitment to change influence the desired change (Guhn, 2009; Mendenhall, Iachini and Anderson-Butcher, 2013; Salfi, 2010).

4.7.4. Lack of Training

About 85% of returned questionnaires indicated that no training was done to familiarize or equip teachers with newly added learning area content. This clearly show how teachers were deprived indispensable competence to successfully implement newly introduced curriculum. Thus lack of skills training contributed to 2017 Curriculum implementation failure. Tikkanen *et al.,* (2017) argue that individual attributes, such as stakeholders' competences, regulate curriculum reform success.

4.8. Solutions to Challenges Facing Curriculum Implementation

The researcher probed respondents to give their recommendations which guarantee successful curriculum implementation in rural schools. Responses obtained were as in Table 9 below:

Solutions	Frequency	Frequency Percentage (%)
Proper planning	29	54
Supply adequate resources	52	96
Consult stakeholders	40	74
Train educators	49	91
Total Returns	54	

Table 9: Solutions to Challenges Facing Curriculum Implementation

4.8.1. Proper Planning

About 54% of the respondents suggested that there is need for government to properly plan before launching new curriculum. Head teachers reinforced by claiming the planning phase should consider time adjustments therein, training needs of educators and strategies to gather and distribute resources such as textbooks before the actual implementation. Planning which can be trusted to aid policy implementation success should take into consideration all strategy fundamentals.

4.8.2. Supply Adequate Resources

As shown in Table 9 above, out of 54 returned questionnaires, 96% of teachers submitted that availing sufficient resources in terms of textbooks and other learning materials in schools contribute to successful curriculum implementation. This resonates with interview responses obtained from school administrators revealing the need to establish a strong resource base as a precondition for curriculum execution success. Germeten, (2011); Keesing-Styles *et al.* (2014) argues that availability of instructional materials, human and financial resources are related to curriculum reform success. Instructional and human resources are dependent on availability of funds to purchase and hire them, respectively. Thus, funding has an impact on curriculum reform implementation (Cheung and Wong, 2012; Reezigt and Cheemers, 2005).

4.8.3. Consult Involved Stakeholders

Around three quarters of the respondents proposed stakeholder consultation as a prerequisite for curriculum implementation success as depicted by Table 9 above. Schools heads and deputy-heads chipped in supporting the need for consultation in coming up with realistic time allocation, expectations, objectives and stakeholder buy-in. Teachers as implementers are supposed to have input in setting objectives and subject time allocation. Stakeholder involvement motivates participants to work towards fulfilling set goals as they feel ownership of the curriculum.

4.8.4. Train Educators

More than 90% of the teachers indicated that there was need for them to be trained to familiarise with new content they were going to teach prior to introduction of NC as shown in Table 9 above. In support of this, school heads brought in the need for government to hire specialists in newly introduced content areas so that they can train teachers through workshops. This improves educators' competences which regulate curriculum implementation success (Tikkanen *et al.,* 2017). Training has a net effect of readying implementers. According to Febriya and Nuryono (2014) in Rumahlatu, Huliselan and Takaria (2016) success of curriculum implementation is not in goodness of the curriculum itself, but it depends on readiness of teachers to implement it. Thus a training program for educators should be in accordance with implementation model therein (Rumahlatu *et al.,* 2016).

5. Conclusion

The research aimed to identify various factors inhibiting New Curriculum implementation in rural secondary schools of Zimbabwe and to establish possible solutions to those challenges. Outcome of the study point to educators' lack of newly introduced content knowledge, resource shortage in terms of time, human capital and materials, as well as work overload as key curriculum implementation deterrents. All these were being driven by inadequate planning, lack of stakeholder consultation and involvement, poor living standards of rural population and lack of educators' training. To counter these challenges and ensure successful curriculum implementation the following raft measures should be performed:

- Comprehensive planning taking into consideration time adjustments to accommodate newly added content, training needs of educators, and how the policy will be resourced.
- Supply adequate resources (human capital, learning material and finance).
- Consult and or encompass involved stakeholders as a way of cultivating their buy-in.
- Prepare educators to implement the planned curriculum through training.

6. Recommendations

Based on results of this study, the researcher recommends the following:

- There is need to comprehensively plan before embarking on the actual curriculum implementation. During the planning phase, no stone should be left unturned. Broad considerations in terms of textbooks and instructional material requirements, time adjustments, and learning content-human resource fit which bring to surface training requirements should be done prior to execution. Vigilant forecasting should lead to scenario building and put in place contingent measures to deal with divergent circumstances.
- This research study call for stakeholder consultation. Educators, learners and parents input aid planners to come up with realistic timelines and expectations. Consultation also deals with stakeholder resistance to change by instilling a sense of policy ownership in them.
- It is also recommended in this research that sufficient resources in terms of human capital, learning material, infrastructure and funding should be supplied to rural schools in order to successfully execute curriculum changes. Adequate resources should be in place prior to and during curriculum implementation to meet execution needs.
- Educators must be afforded training to equip them with necessary skills to implement the intended curriculum. Thus training ensures teacher readiness to implement the new curriculum. It can be done through carrying out cluster in-house learning area workshops and sending educators to external specialised subject area training.

Having ironed out challenges facing New Curriculum implementation in rural areas and their solutions, the researcher recommend future researches to focus on strategies which can be adopted to fund and or resource rural schools to ensure smooth curriculum implementation.

7. References

i. Areepattamannil, S. and Kaur, B. (2013). Factors predicting science achievement of immigrant and non-immigrant students: A multilevel analysis. International Journal of Science and Mathematics Education, Vol. 11, No. 5, pp.1183 –1207.
ii. Athapaththu, H.K.S.H. (2016). An Overview of Strategic Management: An Analysis of the Concepts and the Importance of Strategic Management. International Journal of Scientific and Research Publications, Vo. 6, No. 2.
iii. Barone, D. (2013). Important revelations about school reform: looking at and beyond reading first, School Effectiveness and School Improvement, Vol. 24 No. 4, pp. 392-416.
iv. Chaudhary, G.K. (2015). Factors affecting curriculum implementation for students. International Journal of Applied Research, Vol. 1, No. 12, pp. 984-986.
v. Cheung, A.C.K. and Wong, P.M. (2012). Factors affecting the implementation of curriculum reform in Hong Kong, International Journal of Educational Management, Vol. 26 No. 1, pp. 39-54.
vi. Dambudzo, I.I. (2015). Curriculum Issues: Teaching and Learning for Sustainable Development in Developing Countries: Zimbabwe Case Study. Journal of Education and Learning, Vol. 4, No. 1.
vii. Desimone, L. (2002). How can comprehensive school reform models be successfully implemented? Review of Educational Research, Vol. 72 No. 3, pp. 433-479.

viii. Esau, H. and Mpofu, J. (2017). The Preparedness of Primary Schools to implement the Grade 3 New Curriculum in Zimbabwe: Case Study of Bulawayo Metropolitan Primary Schools. European Journal of Social Sciences Studies, Vol. 2, No. 4.

ix. Esu, A.E.O., Enukoha, O.I. and Umoren, G.U. (2004). Curriculum Development in Nigeria for Colleges and Universities. Owerri Whyte and Whyte.

x. Fennema, E. and Franke, M.L. (1992). Teachers' knowledge and its impact. In D. A. Grouws (Ed.), Handbook of research on mathematics teaching and learning (pp. 147- 164). New York: Macmillan.

xi. Fraenkel, J.R. and Wallen, N.E. (2006). How to design and evaluate research in education (6th Ed.). Boston: McGraw Hill Higher Education.

xii. Fullan, M. (ed) (2005). Fundamental Change, International Handbook of Educational Change. Dordrecht: Springer.

xiii. Germeten, S. (2011). The national curriculum in Norway: a change in the role of the principals? Australian Journal of Education, Vol. 55 No. 1, pp. 14-23.

xiv. Guhn, M. (2009). Insights from successful and unsuccessful implementations of school reform programs. Journal of Educational Change, Vol. 10 No. 4, pp. 337-363.

xv. Hargreaves, A. and Fink, D. (2006). Sustainable Leadership, San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass. Harris, A. et al (2000). Leading Schools in Times of Change, London, Open University Press.

xvi. Ho, D.C.W. (2010). Teacher participation in curriculum and pedagogical decisions: insights into curriculum leadership, Educational Management Administration & Leadership, Vol. 38 No. 5, pp. 613-624.

xvii. Ivowi, U.M.O. (2004). Curriculum implementation: implication for school administration in Noah, A.O. K, Shonibare, D. O, Ojo, A. A and Olujuwon, T. (eds) Curriculum implementation and professionalizing teaching in Nigeria. Lagos: Untral Educational Services.

xviii. Johnson, B. and Christensen, L. (2014). Educational Research: Quantitative, Qualitative and Mixed Approaches. Fifth Edition, SAGE Publications Inc, California.

xix. Keesing-Styles, L., Nash, S. and Ayres, R. (2014). Managing curriculum change and 'ontological uncertainty' in tertiary education. Higher Education Research & Development, Vol. 33 No. 3, pp. 496-509.

xx. López-Yáñez, J. and Sánchez-Moreno, M. (2013). Levers of sustainable improvement of Spanish schools in challenging contexts, Journal of Educational Change, Vol. 14 No. 2, pp. 203-232.

xxi. Maleka, S. (2014). Strategic Management and Strategic Planning Process. DTPS Strategic Planning and Monitoring, Conference Paper, Pretoria, Vol. 1.

xxii. Marshall, C. and Rossman, G.B. (2006). Designing Qualitative Research. Thousand Oaks, SAGE Publications Inc, CA.

xxiii. Mendenhall, A.N., Iachini, A. and Anderson-Butcher, D. (2013). Exploring stakeholder perceptions of facilitators and barriers to implementation of an expanded school improvement model. Children and Schools, Vol. 35 No. 4, pp. 225-234.

xxiv. Ni, Y., Li, Q. and Zou, X. (2015). China's New Millennium Curriculum Reform in Mathematics and its Impact on Classroom Teaching and Learning. In the Impact and Transformation of Education Policy in China. Available at: https://doi.org/10.1108/S1479-3679(2011)0000015008.

xxv. Offorma, G. C. (2005). Curriculum for health creation. WCCI 3rd Biennial Seminar Lecturer, held in FCE. Kano, on 25th October 2005.

xxvi. Ogar, O.E. and Awhen, O.F. (2015). Teachers perceived problems of Curriculum implementation in Tertiary Institutions in Cross River State of Nigeria. Journal of Education and Practice, Vol.6, No.19.

xxvii. Onishi, N. and Moyo, J. (2017). Trade on the Streets, and Off the Books, Keeps Zimbabwe Afloat. Urban Law Lab, The New York Times.

xxviii. Priestley, M. (2011). Schools, teachers, and curriculum change: a balancing act? Journal of Educational Change, Vol. 12 No. 1, pp. 1-23.

xxix. Priestley, M., Biesta, G.J.J., Philippou, S. and Robinson, S. (2015). The teacher and the curriculum: exploring teacher agency, in Wyse, D., Hayward, L. and Pandya, J. (Eds), The SAGE Handbook of Curriculum, Pedagogy and Assessment, Sage Publications, London, pp. 187-201.

xxx. Priestley, M., Minty, S. and Eager, M. (2014). School-based curriculum development in Scotland: curriculum policy and enactment, Pedagogy, Culture & Society, Vol. 22 No. 2, pp. 189-211.

xxxi. Reezigt, G.J. and Cheemers, B.P. (2005). A comprehensive framework for effective school improvement, School Effectiveness and School Improvement, Vol. 16 No. 4, pp. 407-424.

xxxii. Ritson, N. (2011). Strategic Management. Neil Ritson and Ventus Publishing ApS. Available at: https://www.kau.edu.sa/Files/0057862/Subjects/Strategic%20Management%20Book.pdf

xxxiii. Rudhumbu, N. (2015). Enablers of and barriers to successful curriculum in Higher Education: A literature Review, International Journal of education Learning and Development, Vol. 3, No. 1, pp. 12-26.

xxxiv. Rumahlatu, D., Huliselan, E.K. and Takaria, J. (2016). An Analysis of the Readiness and Implementation of 2013 Curriculum in The West Part of Seram District, Maluku Province, Indonesia. International Journal of Environmental and Science Education, Vol. 11, No. 12, pp. 5662-5675.

xxxv. Salfi, N.A. (2010). Successful leadership practices of head teachers for school improvement: some evidence from Pakistan, Journal of Educational Management, Vol. 49 No. 4, pp. 414-432.

xxxvi. Salonen-Hakomäki, S.M., Soini, T., Pietarinen, J. and Pyhältö, K. (2016), The way ahead for Finnish comprehensive school? Examining state-level school administrators' theory of change. Journal of Curriculum Studies, Vol. 48 No. 5, pp. 671-691.

xxxvii. Saunders, M., Lewis, P. and Thornhill, A. (2012). Research Methods for Business Students. 6th Edition, Harlow, England, FT Prentice Hall, Person Education.

xxxviii. Shen, C. and Pedulla, J.J. (2000). The relationship between students' achievement and their self- perception of competence and rigour of mathematics and science: A cross-national analysis. Assessment in Education, Vol. 7, No. 2, pp.237-253.

xxxix. Tatar, E., Tüysüz, C., Tosun, C. and İlhan, N. (2016). Investigation of factors affecting students' Science achievement according to student Science Teachers, International Journal of Instruction, Vol. 9, No. 2.

xl. Thoonen, E.E.J., Sleegers, P.J.C., Oort, F.J. and Peetsma, T.T.D. (2012). Building school-wide capacity for improvement: the role of leadership, school organizational conditions and, teacher factors, School Effectiveness and School Improvement, Vol. 23 No. 4, pp. 441-460.

xli. Tieso, C.L. and Hutcheson, V.H. (2014). Validating aspire: an instrument for gauging the probability that reform efforts will succeed, Planning and Changing, Vol. 45 Nos 1/2, pp. 138-163.

xlii. Tikkanen, L., Pyhältö, K., Soini, T. and Pietarinen, J. (2017). Primary determinants of a large-scale curriculum reform: National board administrators' perspectives. Journal of Educational Administration, Vol. 55 Issue: 6, pp.702-716.

xliii. Tsai, Y (2011). Relationship between Organisational Culture, Leadership Behaviour and Job Satisfaction. BMC Health Services Research, Vol. 11.

xliv. Wang, J. J., Oliver, J. S. and Staver, J. R. (2008). Self-concept and science achievement: Investigating a reciprocal relation model across tine gender classification in a cross cultural context. Journal of Research in Science Teaching, Vol. 45, No. 6, pp.711–725.

xlv. Yore, L. D., Anderson, J. O. and Shymansky, J. A. (2002). Modelling the relationships of classroom characteristics and student attributes to students' science achievement. Annual Meeting of the National Association for Research in Science Teaching, (New Orleans, LA).

xlvi. Zhuwau, C. and Shumba, M. (2018). Influence of Auditing on Financial Performance of Secondary Schools: A Case Study of Goromonzi District; Zimbabwe. International Journal of Contemporary Research and Review, Vol. 9, No. 6.