

**EXAMINING RELATIONS BETWEEN EDUCATIONAL
POLICY AND HIGHER EDUCATION STUDENTS' ACCESS
TO INDUSTRY IN ZIMBABWE**

Sithobile Priscilla Dube

Thesis presented for the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy (PhD)



in the

Faculty of Education

at

Stellenbosch University

Supervisor: Professor Yusef Waghid

DECEMBER 2019

Declaration

By submitting this thesis electronically, I declare that the entirety of the work contained therein is my own, original work, that I am the sole author thereof, that reproduction and publication thereof by Stellenbosch University will not infringe any third party rights and that I have not previously in its entirety or in part submitted it for obtaining any qualifications.

Signed.....Sithobile Priscilla Dube..... Date.....December 2019.....

Copyright © 2019 Stellenbosch University

All rights reserved

Plagiarism Declaration

I understand that the code of conduct against plagiarism and copyright infringement are enforced at Stellenbosch University. The severe legal and academic penalties to the breach of the code are understood. Find the signed form Stellenbosch University plagiarism form in page iii.

PLAGIARISM SUBMISSION DECLARATION FORM

UNIVERSITY OF STELLENBOSCH

DEPARTMENT OF EDUCATION POLICY STUDIES

I, Sithobile Priscilla Dube.....

Module 50261-978 (360) Education Policy Studies

I, hereby acknowledge that I understand what plagiarism entails and that I am fully aware of the University's policies regarding plagiarism. I affirm that this assignment is entirely my own work. I have acknowledged and referenced all sources, including internet websites. I agree that if plagiarism is suspected that my assignment will immediately become subject to a departmental review process. I understand that if I am found guilty of plagiarism, I am liable to face disciplinary actions as detailed in the Department of Education Policy Studies' Policy on Plagiarism and Referencing, and that if the matter goes to a University Disciplinary hearing, this will necessitate my facing other disciplinary action as governed by University rules or even lead to my expulsion from the University.

Signature: Sithobile Priscilla Dube

Date: 30 October 2018

Dedication

I dedicate this work to my loving husband, Tom and my children: Simangaliso, Sindiso and Sibusiso for it to be a source of inspiration and blessing to them.

Abstract

Zimbabwe has experienced a rise in unemployment and underemployment since 2004 as recorded in the reports of 2002-2018 (Amadeo, 2018; Luebker, 2008; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). The issue of graduate employability has been appearing high on the agenda of higher education, government, universities and industries. The employers and employees, graduates, students, parents and other stakeholders cry foul over what they see as a gap between the graduation of university students and their entry into the world of work.

The various arguments throughout this thesis and the discussions of the results obtained from the data collected seem to exert pressure not only on universities to produce employable graduates, but also on the country to have a sustainable economy that would assist the universities to run well. The arguments also pose a responsibility on employers to give their input on how to handle the complicated transitions in the journey of graduates during and after their period of study.

This research aimed to contribute to the current body of knowledge on graduate employability. The research focused on elaborating on the experiences of 20 participants including university students, graduates during their transition into employment, and managers in industries. The research was conducted using an interpretive approach. Semi-structured interviews were conducted in two separate stages of approximately 50 minutes each with all the participants. Analytic induction was used to uncover categories and themes in the data set. Three themes were used to analyse data collected during the interviews.

The first theme viewed the graduates' access into the industry. The major concern was to find out from the participants whether university programmes were tailored to produce graduates that were employable and suitable for the industry. Secondly, the issue of democracy was pursued in order to determine whether there existed democracy in the university programmes. The focus was on education, training and development in order to establish whether the curriculum was suitable to produce employable graduates or not. The issue of stakeholder involvement was considered. Thirdly, entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe was discussed with the intention of determining whether the graduates had received enough training and development to promote employability, business ventures and job creation opportunities. The findings revealed that there was a need for dialogue and collaboration amongst universities, industries and government. The three need to agree on how they can work together to produce graduates who are skilled enough to contribute to meeting the challenges of the economy and also improve universities (Vaivode, 2015). The universities are expected to provide valuable programmes that are useful to produce employable graduates. Participating managers and graduates were aware of the gap that exists between graduation and the time when underemployment

or unemployment surfaces. There exists a notion that the gap is caused by a lack of support by the universities, and industry can bridge this gap through creation of programmes to support the students' training and development up to graduation level. Training of graduates needs to be for development and support of the whole person in order to make the transition into employment possible.

Key words: (un)employability, entrepreneurship, democracy, education, training and development.

Subtheme: from graduation to industry

OPSOMMING

Zimbabwe beleef sedert 2004 'n toename in werkloosheid en onderindiensneming 2004 soos gesien in die verslae van 2002–2018 (Amadeo, 2018; Luebker, 2008; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). Die kwessie van gegradueerde indienseembaarheid is hoog op die agenda van hoër onderwys, die regering, universiteite en die nywerheid. Die werkgewers en werknemers, gegradueerdes, studente, ouers en ander belanghebbendes protesteer heftig oor wat hulle sien as 'n gaping tussen die graduering van universiteitstudente en hulle toetreding tot die wêreld van werk.

Daar ontstaan 'n groter behoefte aan 'n ondersoek na die rol van universiteite en die nywerhede, en om ooreenstemming te bereik oor hoe hulle kan saamwerk om gegradueerdes te lewer wat vaardig genoeg is om die uitdagings van die ekonomie die hoof te bied. Dit wil lyk asof die verskillende argumente deur hierdie tesis heen en die besprekings van die resultate van die ingesamelde data nie net druk uitoefen op universiteite om gegradueerdes wat vir werk geskik is, te lewer nie, maar ook op die land om 'n volhoubare ekonomie te hê wat die universiteite sou bystaan om goed te funksioneer. Die argumente hou ook 'n groot verantwoordelikheid vir die werkgewers in om insette te lewer oor hoe om die ingewikkelde oorgange in gegradueerdes se pad gedurende en ná hulle studietydperk te hanteer.

Hierdie navorsing was daarop gemik om tot die bestaande kenniskorpus oor die indienseembaarheid van gegradueerdes by te dra. Die navorsing het op uitbreiding van die ervaringe van 20 deelnemers met inbegrip van universiteitstudente, gegradueerdes gedurende hulle oorgang na indienseeming en bestuurders van nywerhede gekonsentreer. Die navorsing is onderneem met behulp van 'n interpretatiewe benadering. Ek het semi-gestruktureerde onderhoude van ongeveer 50 minute elk met al die deelnemers gevoer. Analitiese induksie is gebruik om kategorieë en temas in die datastel bloot te lê. Drie temas is gebruik om die data wat tydens die onderhoude ingesamel is, te analiseer.

Die eerste tema het gekyk na die gegradueerdes se toegang tot die nywerheid. Die belangrikste was om by die deelnemers vas te stel of universiteitsprogramme daarop toegespits is om gegradueerdes te lewer wat geskik is vir werk, goed geïdentifiseer en geskik vir die nywerheid. Tweedens is die kwessie van demokrasie nagestreef ten einde te bepaal of daar sprake van demokrasie was in die universiteitsprogramme. Die fokus was op onderwys, opleiding en ontwikkeling om vas te stel of die kurrikulum doelmatig was om gegradueerdes wat geskik is vir werk te lewer, of nie. Die kwessie van betrokkenheid van belanghebbendes is in oënskou geneem. Derdens is entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe bespreek met die bedoeling om vas te stel of die gegradueerdes genoeg opleiding ontvang het en ontwikkel is om indienseembaarheid, sakeondernemings en werkskeppingsgeleenthede te bevorder. Die bevindinge het daarop gedui dat daar behoefte was aan dialoog en samewerking met die

verskillende belanghebbendes, byvoorbeeld universiteite, die nywerheid, die regering, gegradueerdes, studente en ouers. Daar word van universiteite verwag om waardevolle programme te verskaf wat gebruik kan word om gegradueerdes wat geskik is vir werk, te lewer. Die gegradueerdes se opleidingsbehoefte moet voorsiening maak vir ontwikkeling van die hele mens en ondersteuning bied om sodoende die oorgang na indiensneming moontlik te maak. Die gegradueerdes moet voorberei word ten opsigte van loopbaansukses vir werkskeppingsgeleenthede. Bestuurders en gegradueerdes was bewus van die gaping wat bestaan tussen graduering en 'n tyd wanneer onderindiensneming of werkloosheid opduik. Daar bestaan die gedagte dat die gaping veroorsaak word deur 'n gebrek aan ondersteuning deur die universiteite, en die nywerheid kan hierdie gaping oorbrug deur die skep van programme om die studente se opleiding en ontwikkeling tot en met graduering te ondersteun.

Acknowledgements

I wish to express my sincere and deepest gratitude to the following people who assisted me in developing the thesis:

My supervisor, Professor Yusef Waghid, a distinguished professor at Stellenbosch University for his guidance and direction throughout this ‘doctoral dance’ as he calls it in his book *Dancing with Doctoral Encounters – Democratic Education in Motion*.

My husband and children, for their patience, help, moral support and helpful comments. They missed my role in the home during the times when I had to travel for my studies but their encouragement and support were second to none.

The Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development (MHESTD) and the Ministry of Industry and Commerce for clearing me to carry out the study in universities and industries as well as for spearheading the responses to my interview questions and providing relevant, helpful and top-of-the-class information.

The managers of companies and universities that warmly welcomed me and allowed me to conduct research with their students and at the research sites, thank you very much.

The students and graduates of universities, and managers of industries who responded to the interview call and provided with relevant information.

To the Almighty God, for affording me the opportunity and sufficient grace to study. I thank Him for the strength as He carried me on His wings to steadily progress in this study up to its completion. What God starts, He finishes.

Being confident of this, that he who began a good work in you will carry it on to completion until the day of Christ Jesus (Philippians 1:6).

Table of contents

Declaration	i
Plagiarism Declaration	ii
PLAGIARISM SUBMISSION DECLARATION FORM	iii
Dedication.....	iv
Abstract.....	v
OPSOMMING.....	vii
Acknowledgements	ix
Table of contents	x
List of appendices.....	xv
List of figures	xvi
List of tables	xviii
CHAPTER 1	1
Background to the study	1
1.1 Motivation for the research	1
1.2 Personal background.....	1
1.3. Purpose of story-telling about experience- a democratic activity.....	8
1.4 Definition of key words	10
1.4.1 Employment.....	10
1.4.2 Unemployment.....	10
1.4.3 Underemployment.....	11
1.4.4 Democracy	11
1.4.5 Citizenship	12
1.4.6 Education	12
1.4.7 Citizenship education.....	13
1.4.8 Education and economic growth	13
1.4.9 Universities	14
1.4.10 Industries.....	14
1.5 The economic downturn of 2005.....	15

1.6 Purpose of the study	15
1.7 Gap between curriculum designs and graduates' performance in industry	16
1.8 Statement of the problem	18
1.9 Research aims	18
1.10 Research objectives.....	19
1.11 Research question	19
1.12 Research sub-questions	19
1.13 Research methodology.....	19
1.14 Data collection and analysis	21
1.15 Conceptual and theoretical framework	21
1.15.1 Human capital model	22
1.15.2 Human capability model	28
1.16 Summary of chapters	29
 CHAPTER 2.....	 32
Literature review.....	32
2.1 Examining the relationship between education and employment in Zimbabwe.....	32
2.1.1 Review of the relationship between education and economic growth in Zimbabwe	34
2.1.2 Education and economic development in Zimbabwe.....	36
2.1.3 History of Zimbabwean education revisited	39
2.1.4 Effects of colonialism on education in Zimbabwe before 1980.....	40
2.1.5 Zimbabwean education system after independence in 1980	43
2.1.6 Public policymaking in Zimbabwe examined – societal, economic and political changes in the Zimbabwean education system	46
2.1.6.1 Educational and societal change – the first decade of independence	47
2.1.6.2 Education and economic change – the second decade of independence.....	49
2.1.6.3 Education and political change – the third decade of independence	50
2.1.6.4 The African approach to HE	51
2.1.7 Summary of 2.1	53
2.2 DCE and its effects on employability	54
2.2.1 DCE	54
2.2.2 What is democracy?.....	55
2.2.3 University education before the independence of 1980.....	56
2.2.4 University education reforms after the independence of 1980	57
2.2.5 Quality education revisited	61
2.2.6 Engagement and purpose of universities revisited	63

2.2.7 The role of HE to the society	66
2.3. University education and the development of entrepreneurship skills	68
2.3.1. The Nziramasanga commission of inquiry into education and training as a democratic activity	69
2.3.2 Nziramasanga report of 1999 in 2008	70
2.3.3 Evaluation of the Nziramasanga report of 1999 in 2014–2018.....	73
2.3.4 STEM initiative as a democratic activity	75
2.3.5 Stakeholders involvement as an effort of the government to resuscitate the economy	77
2.3.6 Challenges faced in the efforts of the government	83
CHAPTER 3	85
Research methodology	85
3.1 Qualitative interpretivist approach.....	85
3.2 Research philosophy	88
3.3 Use of a small scale interview study	90
3.4. Population	93
3.5 Sampling.....	95
3.5.1. Overview of sampling	95
3.5.2 Sample and sampling procedures.....	95
3.5.3. Purposive sampling	96
3.6 Interview.....	98
3.7 Validity, reliability and trustworthiness	103
3.7.1 Validity and reliability of qualitative approaches	104
3.7.2 Trustworthiness in qualitative approaches	106
3.8 Data collection and analysis.....	108
3.8.1 Analysis of qualitative data.....	108
3.9 Ethical consideration (risks and steps to mitigate risks)	109
3.9.1 Definition of ethics	110
3.9.2 Potential risks in data collection procedures	111
3.9.3 Steps to mitigate risks	111
CHAPTER 4.....	114
Data presentation, analysis, and interpretation of findings – semi-structured interviews stage 1.....	114
4.1 Introduction	114
4.2 Instructions to university students	114

4.3 Instructions to managers.....	115
4.4 Confidentiality and consent	115
4.5 Composition of the population in the interviews	115
4.6 Stage 1 semi-structured interviews	116
4.6.1 Presentation, analysis, and interpretation of stage 1A - Semi-structured interviews:	117
4.6.1.1 Background information for managers and university students.....	117
4.6.1.2 Challenges and barriers faced by managers and students	123
4.6.1.3 Expectations of managers and students.....	127
4.6.1.4 Education policies, industry and employability issues.....	128
4.6.2 Presentation, analysis, and interpretation of stage 1B: Semi-structured interviews.....	129
4.6.2.1 The education policies' favour for graduates	130
4.6.2.2 Role of universities to implement policies in order to realise job creators	130
4.6.2.3 The link between the transition of students and graduates to industry.....	132
4.6.2.4 The outcome of the curriculum on learners	134
4.6.2.5 Gap between education policy and industry	135
4.6.2.6 The relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance	136
4.7 Summary of Chapter 4: Stage 1 results	137
CHAPTER 5	138
Data presentation, analysis, and interpretation of findings – semi-structured interviews stage 2.....	138
5.1 Introduction	138
5.2 Semi-structured interviews: presentation, analysis, and interpretation – stage 2	138
5.2.1 Theme A – The relationship between education and employment	139
5.2.2 Theme B: DCE and its effects on employability.....	158
5.2.3 Theme C: University education and the development of entrepreneurship skills	171
CHAPTER 6.....	185
Summary of findings, conclusions, recommendations and areas for future research	185
6.1 Introduction	185
6.2 Summary of chapters	186
6.3 Summary of findings	187
6.4 Conclusion	189
6.5 Contributions of the study to the body of knowledge.....	191
6.6 Recommendations.....	193
6.7 Areas for future research.....	194

REFERENCE LIST	196
LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.....	223
APPENDICES	225
END.....	242

List of appendices

Appendix A: Interview Guide	225
Appendix B: Permission to Conduct an Educational Research.....	229
Appendix C1: Consent to Participate in Research (for Industry Managers).....	230
Appendix C2: Consent to Participate in Research (for University Registrars).....	234
Appendix D: Ethical Clearance Letter.....	238
Appendix E: Information Sheet for Participants.....	241

List of figures

Figure 1.1: Fish bone diagram: Unemployment problem.....	28
Figure 3.1: Research strategies, choices and philosophies.....	87
Figure 3.2: Research plan.....	93
Figure 3.3: Map of Zimbabwe showing the study area.....	94
Figure 4.1: Age groups.....	118
Figure 4.2: Demographics information on gender.....	119
Figure 4.3: Marital status.....	120
Figure 4.4: Highest educational qualifications.....	121
Figure 4.5: Role of respondents.....	122
Figure 4.6: Number of years as managers.....	123
Figure 4.7: I am happy with the work done in universities.....	125
Figure 4.8: There is a gap between what university offer and the expectations from industries.....	127
Figure 4.9: Who should be involved in policy planning and development?.....	128
Figure 4.10: The career choices, in my opinion, that pay better.....	129
Figure 4.11: My university offers relevant programmes to realise job creation.....	131
Figure 4.12: Students on industrial attachment are prepared enough at my university for the world of work.....	132
Figure 4.13: My university recruits students for industrial attachment.....	133
Figure 5.1a: Assessment of education policies in meeting the needs of graduates.....	139
Figure 5.1b: The extent to which education policies meet graduation needs.....	141
Figure 5.2a: Relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance.....	144
Figure 5.2b: Relationship between policy employability and graduate performance.....	146
Figure 5.3a: Extent to which university programmes are aligned to needs of industry.....	149
Figure 5.3b: Extent to which university programmes are aligned to needs of industry.....	150
Figure 5.4a: Ranking of skills in terms of their importance to the industry.....	154
Figure 5.4b: Ranking of skills in terms of their importance to the industry.....	155
Figure 5.5a: How industries engage with universities to promote employability.....	159

Figure 5.5b: How industries engage with universities to promote employability.....	160
Figure 5.6a: Role of stakeholders involved in the development of quality education.....	164
Figure 5.6b: Role of stakeholders involved in the development of quality education.....	165
Figure 5.7a: Who should be involved in the development of education policy?.....	168
Figure 5.7b: Who should be involved in the development of education policy?.....	169
Figure 5.8a: Curriculum reforms needed to produce entrepreneurial graduates.....	172
Figures 5.8b Curriculum reforms needed to produce entrepreneurial graduates that meet industry expectations.....	173

List of tables

Table 1.1 Causes and outcomes.....	21
Table 1.2 Model showing differences between traditional approach and OBE.....	23
Table 2.1 Summary of the critical skills audit.....	52
Table 3.1 Population units and cases.....	92
Table 3.2 Summary of targeted participants.....	98
Table 4.1 Composition of the population of semi-structured interviews – stage 1.....	116
Table 4.2 Composition of the population : semi- interviews – stage 2.....	116
Table 4.3 Students long-term goals.....	124
Table 4.4 Challenge and barriers.....	126
Table 5.1 Extent to which education policies meet graduate needs.....	142
Table 5.2 Relationship between policy, employability and graduates performance.....	147
Table 5.3 Extent to which university programmes are aligned to needs of industry.....	150
Table 5.4 Ranking of skills in terms of their importance to the industry.....	155
Table 5.5 How industries engage with universities to promote employability.....	160
Table 5.6 Role of stakeholders involved in the development of quality education.....	165
Table 5.7 Who should be involved in the development of education policy?.....	169
Table 5.8 Curriculum reforms needed to produce entrepreneurial graduates.....	173
Table 5.9 Capacity and willingness for business ventures.....	180

CHAPTER 1

Background to the study

1.1 Motivation for the research

This chapter focuses on giving a background to the study. The motivation for the research is highlighted, and terms are defined with reference to the economic downturn of 2005. A narrative is given based on my personal background and my work place experience, which formed a crucial background of this study. The purpose of the study is discussed, and the gap between the curriculum designs and graduates' performance in industry is discussed. The problem is clearly stated. The research aims, research objectives, research question and sub-questions, research methodology, design and data collection methods are stated. The validity, reliability and ethical considerations are presented.

1.2 Personal background

The strategy of giving an account of my experience as a student, graduate, teacher, lecturer, and administrator was key in this research. This helped to remove a bias versus other voices of democracy, and instead to learn to engage with one another responsively and appropriately, as described by Waghid & Davids (2017), Repper & Carter (2010), Creswell (2009), and Fraenkel & Wallen (2008). I used my experience and backed it up with literature, professional associations and reports that talk about issues and debates, suggestions and writings on educational policy issues. Personal experience analysis is supported by Akinsaya & Bach (2014), as a significant part of the social sciences repertoire since the mid-1950s. According to Helakoski (2017), readers expect to see research-based evidence with supporting statements from literature regarding personal experience, even if the writer has expertise in a particular field. He argues that one's knowledge is also important, and therefore suggests the use of both literature and personal experience.

I was born and bred in a rural Christian environment about 40 km out of the city of Bulawayo in Zimbabwe, 54 years ago. I did my primary and secondary education in schools a few kilometres from my home. I became inspired to be a professional person one day by my father who was a carpenter and joiner, and loved his occupation. My mother also inspired me by her dedication, multitasking work as a wife, mother of five and a peasant farmer. The inspiration I gained made me work hard at school, I dreamt of being a nurse, a profession I thought at that time was my passion and better than my parents' work. My father wanted to live his new dream through me as he encouraged me to join

the teaching profession, since he had seen his brother who was a teacher doing well in life. Being a great authoritarian, he succeeded in taking me to the then Gweru Teachers' College in 1985, where I received a Secondary Teachers' Training Certificate. At that early stage, I was flooded with questions: Who was supposed to make a career choice for me? When was career guidance to be done? Which profession was the best, and who should do what and why? I provide the answers to these questions throughout my research so that other people who might have the same questions could be assisted. The encouragement to refer to my experience was derived from Hallinger (2011), and Hallinger & Heck (2010), who spent time in their writings discussing the influence that individuals who engage in education policy and employability issues have. Hallinger's (2011) 40 years of leadership and engagement in research affected the world around him, and he contributed many recommendations to learning and school improvement.

I completed my course and I taught in different schools from 1986–1988, after which I joined the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development (MHESTD) as a lecturer to train primary school teachers. I joined the National University of Science and Technology (NUST) as an administrator in 2007 with my experience as both a teacher and lecturer as well as holding a master's degree in Educational Administration Planning and Policy studies (completed in 2002). In 2015, I enrolled as a PhD student at Stellenbosch University, South Africa. The purpose of furthering my studies was to develop myself and I hoped that one day after completing my studies, I would be promoted to a post higher than the one I have depending on the availability of posts.

Generally, graduates pursue further studies with the hope that they would be promoted or that they would get better jobs after completing their studies. Whenever an opportunity arises to promote a worker at a workplace, employers consider the employees who have advanced their qualifications. Employers perceive that new graduates can have the skills that make them employable, but skills get better when they advance themselves in their careers by enrolling in further studies. Lowden, Hall, Elliot & Lewin (2011) reveal in their research that the employers have their own perceptions of the new graduate's employability in support of the above discussion. The people stipulate that there are several reasons of going to university; this includes loving what they will be studying as they are developing skills that make them employable and also the opportunity to experience a different way of life, as education leads to a better career choice in future. Students go to university to get a good job after graduation. The graduates are encouraged to pursue further studies thereafter. Hence, it is justifiable, as suggested by Lowden et al. (2011:7), that higher education is a stepping-stone to a good job for the graduates and viewed as a production line for work-ready graduates. That is how I felt throughout my education from primary school to university until I completed my master's degree in

2002. I still felt the same as I carried out my study for the PhD programme, and I hope this will be another stepping-stone to my next job.

The process of study is a great opportunity to gather information about other researchers' findings and experiences on which to base my experiences and also to view life from a different perspective. From my own perception this means that I would not let my personal bias interfere with other people's judgements. The bias I refer to is based on my personal experience of having gone through different stages of schooling from primary school to high school. Also, I have worked all my life after high school as I did a teaching course, and then went to university. Other people with whom I can compare myself might either have graduated, or remained unemployed, or some might not have been able to further their studies. This has contributed to giving me the opportunity to learn to value other people's capacities and to live in a community. This experience later helped me to become responsible for my own development, as well as for students, graduates and lecturers around other scholars.

According to Campher (2012), educated people have become aware of the need for social justice and respect of human rights, which are vital for peace and development in different areas. For example, during my experience as a student at a teacher's college, as a qualified teacher in secondary schools, and as lecturer and administrator for the past 36 years, there were three years of industrial attachment. The industrial attachment is a process of Zimbabwean schools, colleges and universities connecting with managers of companies to provide jobs for learners/students and an arrangement would be made to pay the students an allowance. Industrial attachment is a period of hands on work experience in a relevant industrial setting, and its purpose is for providing practical skills to students so that they can appreciate the work in the industry before being fully employed. My observations were that there were problems that arose between graduates and workplaces, whether one was a teacher or administrator or whether you belonged to any other profession. An opportunity finally arose for me during the writing of this thesis to do research on these problems and the gap that I saw during the transition period between graduation and entry into the industry. Zhou & Hardlife (2012), and Mawere (2013), report similar findings as they suggest that looking at the state of the economy of Zimbabwe, recommendations need to be made to close the gap between industry and education policy. The problem I noticed is that there were no clear relationships between the curriculum policy innovations that are implemented in higher education institutions (HEIs), and the student's access to industry.

Throughout my career path for the past 36 years, I have been involved with matters of curriculum policy on both implementation and decision-making levels. I have been involved in the improvement

of the strategic plan at United College of Education (UCE), Bulawayo, which is a teachers' training college, during the period 2000–2005, and the review of the strategic plan of NUST for the period 2010–2015 and also for the period 2016–2020. The plans to map a way forward for HEIs are the means of implementing recommendations of the national curriculum policy. Lowden et al. (2011:21) acknowledge in the findings of their study that there is a contrast between what some universities are promoting and what is required by industry, as evidenced by the failure of universities to implement their strategic plans. Lowden et al. (2011:36) further comment on the concerns from different academics involved in the study regarding the employability measures in their universities, diminishing the academic integrity of higher education as it has resulted in employers being unsatisfied with the courses which are studied. However, there appears to be no fundamental reason why institutions and employers cannot reach a consensus on educational approaches that promote employability (Lowden et al. 2011:23, 36). There have been improvements in government policy to inspire HEIs and employers to work together so that approaches for training and preparing students for employability are developed. However, there are still problems and barriers between employers and many of those accountable for policy, particularly in terms of differences in mind-sets, expectations and priorities (Lowden et al. 2011:36).

More so, I observed how departments at both UCE and NUST broke down curriculum policies, which could have been implemented at different levels in order to train students. The graduates have been produced every year, but the product seemed not to reflect any determination, as the majority continued to be unemployed. The interview results of the graduates indicate a high rate of unemployment for the trained graduates, as reflected by William & Turton (2014), Mansfield, Beltmen, Broadly & Weatherby-Fell (2016). From the statistics that were compiled from these studies, it has been noted that there has been a downturn in the Zimbabwean economy in 2005, caused by dependence on western powers, delayed modernisation, the population explosion and unequal distribution of wealth. The respondents lamented graduating into unemployment, underemployment, professionals having no jobs, graduates every year awakening to the harsh reality of a jobless country, and few opportunities to utilise the skills acquired in school. The respondents that Mansfield et al. (2016) used in their collection of data during their study, confirmed that postgraduates are vulnerable to labour market shocks, due to a few opportunities for work.

In addition, the employed complain of various problems ranging from underpayment to ill-treatment at their workplaces (Mansfield et al., 2016). On the other hand, industrialists complain of skills of graduates that are not matching the expectations in industries. According to Lowden et al. (2011), and Maylett & Wride (2017), most employers are looking for graduates who are able to work with

minimum supervision, use their abilities and skills to enable innovation and development in the organisation, and this make them employable. The idea of being employable in any organisation centres on the development of good communication skills, numeracy, computer literacy and being a fast learner (Cranmer, 2006:169, cited in Lowden et al., 2011). All these issues motivated me to examine the relationship between education policies and students' access to industry. Shoko (2010), and Shizha & Kariwo (2011) concede that it is important for the graduates to progress from the earliest stages of their formal schooling, as it is fundamental to closing the gap between the preparation of a learner and the production of an employable graduate.

I find it necessary to give a brief account of how an agent for change is born. For any social movement, individuals should sense that something is not right for them and for others, and that it can be made right so that people are able to discover each other in a common cause. The source of the cause can be interpreted as action where strategies and tactics are discovered in order to bring about change as observed by Cels, Jong & Nauta (2012). This desire for change motivated me to pursue the current research in order to determine what is not right in the education system and in terms of issues of employability and to see how it can be put right. Waghid (2009a) suggests that people should have academic freedom in order to correct what needs to be corrected as he is against intolerance and disrespect for other people's points of view, especially when the ills and challenges in higher education need to be addressed. The purpose is to bring change and create revived universities where cosmopolitanism is a virtue that should be taught to eradicate political dictatorship and mass enslavement, as stipulated in Waghid's study (2009b). The problem is that, although many efforts have been made to bring reform to the curriculum policies to train and prepare graduates who will fit well into the industry, the results have not been satisfactory. The graduates still struggle to fit into the industry and the key issue is that the graduates should be able to manage changes experienced in the job market. There is a need for graduates to be able to cope with problems faced, whilst avoiding resentment and confusion (Waghid, 2010c:581).

Industrialists also complain that they interview candidates based on qualification plus experience and employ graduates, but when it comes to work and performance, they seem to be starting afresh to train the new employees. The industrialists' expectations are not met. One would expect that industries would provide ideas to HEIs on how to train students. However, Mawere (2013), and Zhou & Hardlife (2012) state that there is a missing link that exists where curriculum policy innovations do not match what the industry expects of a graduate. Industrialists also complain of poor work performance by graduates as evidenced in discussions on the crisis in Zimbabwe by Chan & Primorac (2013), and Yamamoto (2017). The discussions state that there is a knowledge gap, leading to

shortcomings between graduates and the workplace. The university programmes are seen as not meeting industry expectations and also not preparing graduates for the practical work, as in their studies they focus mostly on theory. The compilation of comments from employers by Shizha & Kariwo (2011), and Chakanyuka (2015), support this by indicating that there is a need for continued research on the same complaint.

More so, the graduates' problem is that after all the preparation and training they expect to get jobs, but in most cases, they fail to get employed. Some struggle to start their own businesses, some get employed, but cannot get proper recognition at work, face poor work conditions, poor morale and poor remuneration. McQuirk (2013) states that the increase of enrolments in schools since the year 1970 has contributed to the increase of the number of unemployed and underemployed of the educated. The increase of enrolment in primary schools does not imply that children start their schooling knowing the benefits of education as a consumable and an investment (McQuirk, 2013). If the children knew, they would speak out about what they need to learn, which is of benefit to them and which would ensure that they are considered as employable in the industries. A child's early drive for education is inspired, mostly by the parent. In order to curb these problems many researchers came up with recommendations to help programme planners and educators to bring improvement (McQuirk, 2013). The problems, however, still exist, and this justifies the need for continued research in a bid to explore new interventions for minimising or eradicating the problems.

During my experience in the education field, I also noted that there are setbacks that affect the workplace. Graduate workers meet passive authorities, non-transparency, poor communication, and high levels of conviction in industry, low budget allocations for the programme for innovation, embezzlement of funds, and poor monitoring systems or a lack of such systems. After secondary education, pupils enrol at universities or colleges, or are forced to do menial jobs. Most school, college and university dropouts catch up with training and professional development later in life, because education opportunities in Zimbabwe are available at any age. Zimbabwe has lost to other countries trainees, trainers and graduate professionals at different stages and, along the way, has lost great leaders. As a result of the mushrooming of educational institutions, there also arose a great need for establishing better communication networks in order to ensure that institutions were administered accordingly. Mass production in education calls for new leadership strategies in order to encourage more leadership effectiveness and what one would describe as efficiency in terms of how universities are run.

The education system has faced disasters, which affected it negatively. Examples of these disasters include, population movements on farms, deteriorating infrastructure, economic meltdown and low public expenditure. Students in institutions of higher learning become vulnerable and performance is affected, leading to less employment opportunities. The lack of employment further strains the already overburdened graduates. All these problems seem to continue even after recommendations have been made, hence, the need to probe further to examine the relationships between curriculum policy and transition of graduates into industry. Further study will help discover new knowledge, because a knowledge gap causes a deficiency for graduates as well as the workplace (Mawere, 2013; Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). One would believe that it would be necessary to find out how training programmes contribute to meeting industry needs and their expectations, and how HEIs prepare graduates for work. From my experience as an administrator of a university, as highlighted earlier on, the tendency has been that HEIs produce large numbers of graduates. However, one would not find out what happens to them later on. I have also observed that HEIs are constrained in their operations and that would affect the implementation of changes in policy. For example, the HEIs would have large numbers, poor resources or no resources, school politics and a lack of involvement of implementers in decision-making. During my involvement for the past eighteen years of working in a HEI, I have observed that implementers of policies would be informed of changes, instead of being made part of the change process. This has been of concern to me during my work experience.

One would think that the implementers of policies such as educators and students, should be involved with decision-makers and policymakers in order to come up with decisions that would help in the training for work. I am motivated to examine the perceptions of policymakers, educators, students and industrialists in order to find out how problems amongst them can be solved. For example, the problem that is examined in this thesis, is that of the period between graduation and entry into the market place. This issue has become a topical issue, particularly currently, in most conversations, print media articles and literary publications. The justification for this claim is supported by literature, by Makoshori (2017), who also claim that the highest unemployment rate since 1980 was recorded in 2014. The government has allowed this very high unemployment rate for too long. As a result, graduates are produced annually, but they do not get any employment as there are no jobs, or they are labelled as being over qualified for the positions for which they apply (Makoshori, 2017).

One of the causes of high unemployment, as claimed by Makoshori (2017), is that there is a difference between education policy innovations and graduates gaining access to the job market. The Industrial Development Policy was meant to reduce the problem of unemployment and strategic plans were developed to create employment conditions (Ncube, 2011). There is a need to find out what can

be added to the plans that have been implemented and this will enable helpful interventions to be introduced so that the unemployment rate is reduced. The Central Intelligence Agency (CIA) (2017) and the World Factbook (2017) confirm that the unemployment rate has been approximately 95% since 2009 as compared to approximately 80% in 2005. According to Makou & Wilkinson (2018), the unemployment rate in 2018 is still 95%. These figures refer to being jobless or underemployed. However, the real unemployment number is unknown, as we are under harsh current economic conditions and most industries are closing (CIA, 2017; World Factbook, 2017). One would agree that I am justified to examine what can be viewed as a mismatch of most graduates failing to get jobs versus what the industries can offer. By interviewing educators, students, graduates and industrialists, the extent of unemployment in Zimbabwe was established and results confirmed that it was still high at the time of the current research in 2018. According to Makou & Wilkinson (2018), the unemployment rate – including underemployment – was recorded as 95% in 2018. Makou & Wilkinson (2018), also comment that Zimbabwe has the highest literacy rate in Africa at 90%. One would be led to assume that literate Zimbabweans could get employed easily. However, the rates of literacy and unemployment seems to show that for Zimbabweans it would not lead to an assumption that the more literate or educated one is, the better are the chances to get a job.

My work place experience is also based on what Kerrey (2013) and Mansfield et al. (2016) say, namely that after high school, students are enrolled at universities or colleges or are forced to do menial jobs. Most school dropouts catch up with training later in life. Graduates are lost to other countries at different stages of their lives after graduation. During the stage of searching for employment, some meet passive and non-transparent authorities. For those who get employed, they sometimes have low budget allocations for innovation programmes at their work places. In some cases, there is embezzlement of funds by authorities and poor remuneration. On the other hand, industrialists had been heard complaining that graduates do not match the industries' expectations. These limitations in employment further strain the already overburdened graduates who had difficulty learning. These issues motivated me to examine the relationship between curriculum policies and students' access to industry. More so, I have the opportunity to refer to my experience and tell stories, which Waghid (2010b:14), and Waghid & Davids (2017) see as a crucial democratic activity in the field of education and research. The next section discusses the purpose of the democratic activity of story-telling.

1.3. Purpose of story-telling about experience- a democratic activity

The narration of personal experience is defended by Waghid (2010b:14) as an experience of learning to create space for others to tell stories. It is a condition for deliberation created for others to listen to

a story and answer. Helakoski (2017), Akinsaya & Bach (2014), and Waghid (2010b:19-31) call it a process of belligerence, deliberation and belonging when one tells a life story to engage the self in space created by telling a story but also allowing others to answer. The process, according Waghid (2010a), is a promoter of democracy. As I tell a story and relate to my own experience, I aim at provoking and engaging readers to listen and hope they will answer in arguments. This prepares me to engage in argument and answer other writers. Through active consent, my pedagogical encounters and participation as a teacher and administrator helped me to engage in democracy and citizenship. I have participated willingly and freely and a sense of belonging was created. Through participation in strategic planning meetings, I had a chance to engage in relating to others in discussion. I also had a chance to be involved and committed to the task of education, and learnt to be accountable to the process. Based on a process of collective identity in designing and planning strategic plans, this participation and accountability are what Waghid (2010c) equates to democratic citizenship education (DCE). All other members of HEIs who get involved in the process of strategic planning become engaged in the process of giving other individuals space to share ideas, and live with others as well. The members of an HEI engage in dialogue until they agree or agree to disagree and accept others' points of view. What would come out at the end are strategic planning documents that have something in common and get adopted and used by institutions and organisations. Respect, forgiveness, friendship and communal engagement are thereby promoted (Waghid, 2010b:49-58). Individuals respect each other whilst ensuring human relations and come up with strategic plans that can be compared to DCE.

The process of planning and production of strategic plans in which I became involved is a democratic activity involving other people, engaging with one another responsively and in an appropriate manner, as Waghid & Davids (2017), Helakoski (2017), Akinsaya & Bach (2014) agree. The process, including my other administrative duties, involved me acting in response to others in a willing manner without being forced. Such pedagogic action is connected to democratic action since my reasons for working with others were based on my willingness and not as a result of coercion. I engaged with others with mutual respect for their contributions in order to achieve democracy. During the process of engagement in the process of strategic planning, a process of friendship in education was being revisited. In such a scenario, a practice of love in a community of teachers and students is experienced where individuals get to know who the other is. Integrity and humility are exercised towards each other. Individuals become open to the "unpredictable and unexpected" (Waghid & Davids, 2017:128). Friendship becomes an experience of freedom and equality which is an ingredient of democracy in education.

1.4 Definition of key words

This section seeks to define key words in the manner they are used in the thesis and these words are defined.

1.4.1 Employment

Employment is the state of being engaged in a job under an employer or by being self-employed. It is an activity of people working for others and being paid a wage or salary. Wage or salary employment can sometimes be confused with self-employment. Self-employment is an activity of working for oneself. The examples of self-employment occupations are doctors, architects, consultant engineers, etc. These can be done on either a permanent (right of establishment) or temporary (provision of services) basis or as a secondary activity where individuals set up an agency, branch or second office (Madziyire, 2009). According to Luebker (2008:8), the general definition of employment covers individuals who will have done some work for a short or long period of time usually for one week and sometimes for a day.

1.4.2 Unemployment

Unemployment is a state of being jobless. It is a phenomenon which occurs when someone is searching for employment, but they are unable to find any jobs. Unemployment is overt and can be more or less continuous search for paid work. Acquiring a job is used to measure the health of the economy. Amadeo (2018) suggests that the definition of unemployment does not only refer to all who are jobless, but also to involuntary idleness of workers because some people are not at work by choice. For example, in the cases where jobs are not available, individuals will not be at work by choice. The definition by the Bureau of Labour Force Statistics of unemployment by Pettinger (2010), refers to people who have actively looked for a job for over a month and who are available for work. It also refers to people who are temporarily laid off, but are still waiting to be recalled. According to the CIA (2017) and the World Factbook (2017), the unemployed could be individuals looking for jobs and will be willing to accept work, if jobs become available. In order to understand unemployment, it is essential for one to distinguish between voluntary and involuntary unemployment.

1.4.2.1 Voluntary unemployment

Voluntary unemployment means that there is a job vacant, but the employee may not accept the job because of the existing wage rate (Luebker, 2008). In some cases, individuals may choose not to work for different reasons. Based on my observations in Zimbabwe, some individuals would have saved

money to sustain themselves or they might be getting support from family or from some other sources.

1.4.2.2 Involuntary unemployment

Involuntary unemployment happens when a person is willing to accept any job at a standard wage rate. However, they are not able to find a job. Lost output and human suffering could be due to involuntary unemployment (Luebker, 2008).

1.4.3 Underemployment

Underemployment is a condition where individuals in the labour force have jobs which are not full-time or regular jobs or jobs not adequate with respect to their training (Luebker, 2008). Here the highly skilled would be paid low wages or become part-timers, working only for few hours per day or per week, but they might prefer to be full-time workers. Zimbabwe is facing both scenarios of unemployment and underemployment, showing a glaring mismatch between the graduates' aspirations and employment opportunities.

1.4.4 Democracy

Democracy is the practice involving humans engaging with one another, and may justify their reasons for acting in a particular way. Zimbabweans talk of democracy in the education system, but according to Mabhena (2018), democracy can sometimes be seen, though it is still far from being real democracy. Whenever democracy exists, it is the preservation of the majority's interest (Mabhena, 2018). The popular and unpopular, rich or poor communities get to interact and respect one another (Mabhena, 2018). The introduction of democracy has often been forced on people, and that has caused problems when the beneficiaries tend to hate it or get dehumanised by local colonisers who happen to be the masters of democracy. Mabhena (2018) likens democracy to beauty which lies in the eyes of the beholder. This means that whilst democracy can be a good thing to some because of the benefits they get, some people may hate it for problems they experience which tend to overtake what could be beneficial for them. Waghid (2010b) defines a democratic action as a process of public deliberation and bonding and having individuals responsible for the rights of others. Individuals would take collective action, tolerate each other and have dialogue in order to air their views. In order to educate students to become democratic citizens, Waghid (2010b: 26) suggests the creation of "civil spaces where they can learn to share commonalities and to respect the differences of others". HEIs are encouraged to have education that promotes democracy by taking "seriously the cultivation of

deliberatively diverse spaces” (Waghid, 2010c:492). Individuals will connect with one another and work towards having a better future in a democratic society.

1.4.5 Citizenship

Citizenship denotes the relationship between the individual and the state, or affiliation to some community and allows individuals to access certain rights, thus maintaining what one could call a social status. Philosophically, and according to Waghid & Davids (2013a), citizenship refers to what the state can anticipate from each individual and, on the other hand, anything the individual can expect from the state in a reasonable manner. It also relates to how individuals relate to one another as members of the society. The issue of rights and duties of individuals can be also considered.

1.4.6 Education

Education can be understood to be a multi-disciplinary knowledge base informing teaching and learning. It can be formal or informal. Formal education would be a social activity between a teacher and a learner, where the subject content is approached and transmitted by the teacher to the learner. As for informal education, it has usually been understood to occur from the womb to the grave. What education is often refers to what it is, what it is not and what it is meant to do or help individuals to achieve. Some people may think that education happens when students get high grades and after graduation, can look for employment. If graduates get employed, people understand. Biesta (2010:77) sees education as the multidimensional transmission of knowledge and skills, and students qualifying after being assessed. Through education, professions are developed through the process of socialisation. Biesta (2010) argues that education reproduces existing social structures, divisions and inequalities. There seems to be no equal access or treatment seen in students and considerable discrimination surfaces even after graduation in the labour market. One can be qualified to be a professional and educated, but when it comes to job opportunities, nepotism, tribalism and racism may surface. Individuals who have no connections remain unemployed or are underemployed. Students become subjects of responsibility. Thus, they become responsible for their education and employment. University education should also help students acknowledge, recognise and encourage them to have minds that produce self-creating individuals who can bear criticism during engagements whenever they get the chance for dialogue. Education should develop independent opinions and judgments. Students should engage in some meaningful activities in order to contribute to the different projects of developing the economy. For the purposes of this study, when referring to education and learning, I will use learners and students interchangeably. Learners will refer to individuals who are in primary and high schools. Students will refer to those in HEIs (universities, colleges and poly-technic colleges).

1.4.7 Citizenship education

Citizenship education is described by Waghid & Davids (2013a) as a practice of deliberation, compassion and responsibility. They describe the process as that of pedagogical encounters helping individuals to become responsible for their belonging. In such a scenario, individual learners in this kind of citizenship education have their focus on schools, colleges and universities opening up new possibilities for participation, are able to speak and see things differently without being judged. Violence and conflict are avoided and seen as destructive and unbecoming, whilst universities should be expecting from educators and students a practice of humanity and responsibility in order to promote democratic education. In support of this argument, Hulme (2009) recommends that universities need to care for the well-being of students, attend to their needs and also contribute to the successes and failures of students, thus avoiding violence and conflict. This authoritative caring where individuals are honoured and their dignity is respected, is supported by Waghid & Davids (2013a). Individuals are allowed to engage in deliberations during their learning. Here individuals will be able to listen, but can answer airing their views on whether their education contributes to employability or not. They can contribute by giving ideas that can bring improvements to the systems. Such involvement in the education system would be reflecting democratic education and the learners would be viewing education as a vehicle for change. Learners will be equipped with knowledge, skills and values in order to help them participate as citizens to bring about change and development. Citizenship education as evidenced in this discussion, enables individuals to be responsible for their own lives and other people contributing to their well-being, and to show responsibility in the society as a whole (Biesta, 2010).

1.4.8 Education and economic growth

From my experience as a student and administrator in HEIs expansion of educational opportunities in university education has been seen to be contributing to the economic growth of Zimbabwe. This creates a productive work force and provides it with increased knowledge and skills. The educational opportunities would also provide employment and income, earning the teachers more opportunities and creating a class of graduates to fill vacancies. This is also a process of provision of training and education to impart skills that would help in improving the economic growth of a country. An educated and skilled workforce is essential to ensure sustained economic growth (Hanushek & Woessmann, 2010).

1.4.9 Universities

Universities are considered as the industry-producing HEIs. Higher education is a continuation of studies from secondary or high schools to colleges, polytechnic institutions and universities. Universities represent industries and they teach a wide range of subjects, courses and programmes at different levels, ensuring that the students attain knowledge which prepares them for the work environment. Even though universities are concentrating on the output, as the number of students completing courses and graduating, they do not worry much about where graduates go after that. According to Waghid (2010c:491), universities can be referred to as HEIs that have a “responsibility to advocate for and cultivate democratic action”.

1.4.10 Industries

Industries are producers of commercial goods and services but can be extended to social services. The industries have been in existence since as far back as the 19th century (Woodhall & Blaug, 1965:3). Universities are part of industries and also prepare students through the process of training and development so that students complete their studies and graduate. Graduates can be absorbed into industries (in universities including other HEIs like colleges and polytechnics and other companies) as employees or as job creators. Industries are the production side of businesses and are related to manufacturing and processing of products (Akrani, 2011).

There are different types of industries in Zimbabwe and this includes manufacturing industries, mining, agriculture, energy, and tourism (Bada, 2019). According to the 2009 estimates of the CIA World Fact book the industry sectors in Zimbabwe employ 10% of the country’s labour force and contribute 23.9% of the GDP. Helmsing (1999) states that the industrial sector with all its diversity is relatively small as manufacturing industries produce as many as 6000 products but markets are small, and competitors few. In Zimbabwe also the mining sector underpins the growth of the economy and it contributes over 50% of the country’s exports over the past five years. It is under the control of the relevant government institutions such as the Ministry of Mines and Mining Development (Bada, 2019).

There is also agriculture which is subdivided into two broad categories which are large-scale farming and subsistence farming. Commercial farming consists of growing cotton, coffee and tobacco whilst small-scale farmers mostly grow wheat and maize. There is also energy, tourism and other services (Bada, 2019). Zimbabwe as a nation has an economy that comprises of the three main sectors of agriculture, industries and services. The industrial sector is one of the most valuable sectors in the nation after contributing about 25.1% of the total gross domestic product (GDP) of \$16.29 billion

(Bada, 2019). Some major industries include mining, cement, clothing and footwear, wood products, and others. For the purposes of the study, the term ‘industry’ will be used to refer to all forms of sectors where employment can be carried out or business ventures will be created. The term can be used interchangeably with places of work, market place, jobs and world of work.

1.5 The economic downturn of 2005

Both the Zimbabwean ‘education for all’ policy of 1980 (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011), and the Higher Education Policy of 2007 (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011) aimed to widen access to higher education in order to orientate the education system to national goals. These were meant to redress the colonial system that divided education along racial lines (Nziramanga, 1999; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). The economic downturn started in 2004 when the unemployment rate rose to approximately 80% (CIA, 2017; World Factbook, 2017). However, Nyazema (2010:233) states that the economy of Zimbabwe has been dwindling since 1996, thus causing an economic downturn. Low investment and the political situation in the country affected industries. The side-effects of decline of performance in the education system due to little or no resources, high unemployment and the brain drain are evident in the writing of Mansfield et al. (2016). Makou & Wilkinson (2018) show that the unemployment rate had risen alarmingly to 95% in 2018. There was still mass production of graduates as a result of the implementation of the policies mentioned above, but these graduates could not be absorbed in industry. The gap between training and the availability of jobs in industry seems to have been widened. A favourable economic environment and monitored economic pace with good national economic policies to promote employment are still far from being realised. All this is substantiated in this research report based on a small scale study of managers and university students in the results discussed in Chapters 4 and 5. The process involved establishing competent evidence using the data collected from interviewing people from the sampled universities and industries in Zimbabwe.

1.6 Purpose of the study

The challenges that the graduates face and the expectations industry has from graduates were reviewed from the responses in the interviews, as explained in detail in Chapters 4 and 5. The claim by writers Hallinger (2011), and Hallinger & Heck (2010, cited in Ndapewa, 2012) that the influence of principal officers on the performance of products of HEIs is vague and under-researched, also supported my need to pursue the study. Friendships in education where principal officers, teachers and students can get to be open to know who the other is, are encouraged by Waghid & Davids (2017). Individuals are encouraged to engage deliberately with one another and to express their thoughts freely, and it could be at this stage when one can get to understand the influence of principal officers on the performance of products (students) of HEIs (Waghid & Davids, 2018). Evidence that

was gathered through the interviews in pursuing the mismatch between graduates' performance and the expectation industry has, adds to my contributions to the research. Curriculum policy innovations in the Nziramasanga Report in Nziramasanga (1999) are yet to be implemented as recommended by Gweru (2015), Gandawa (2017) and Chakaza (2018). The recommendations are intended to match the expectations industry has from a graduate. The innovations reflected in the Nziramasanga report are as follows:

- students should receive appropriate training and support to enable them to take advantage of their full potential;
- universities should inform companies that will provide feedback on the scientific and technological requirements of industry and commerce;
- university programmes should be categorised according to critical manpower shortage areas (Chakaza, 2018; Gweru, 2015; Nziramasanga, 1999).

All the writers comment that, after all the efforts to implement the innovations, the problem of unemployed graduates with diplomas and degrees had surfaced. Some graduates eventually sought employment in jobs not commensurate with their disciplines. Some remained unemployed whilst others sought jobs in other countries. The writers recommend that government and policy makers should look back and plan for the future based on past events being guided by the commended reforms in the Nziramasanga Report of 1999. Chakanyuka (2015), Mashaya & Tafirenyika (2017), and Chakaza (2018) support this recommendation. In addition, they emphasise the importance of consultation of all stakeholders on how to implement and monitor the recommendations.

1.7 Gap between curriculum designs and graduates' performance in industry

There appears to be topical issues in Zimbabwean electronic and print media of the complaint that there is no match between that in which students are trained, and what the graduates produced. There is still "very little linkage between the university curriculum and national developmental needs, resulting in the production of graduates who have to be trained in order to be employable in industry" (Nziramasanga, 1999: 513). These and other challenges in the document motivated me to tailor my thoughts to examine the issue of the link between training and graduation and, thereafter, channelling the graduates to the world of work. A further topical issue that has been a challenge and a shock for workers, especially, was that the Supreme Court ruled that companies may lawfully terminate workers' contracts without giving them any packages provided they are given a three-month notice, is raised by Chakanyuka (2015). Up to 2017, this challenge had still been on record as confirmed by Mansfield et al. (2016), and Mashaya & Tafirenyika (2017). The writers confirm that companies would not even need to provide explanations, engage in disciplinary hearings or go through the

expensive retrenchment process. This had become a serious threat to job security in the country with large numbers of graduates who could become jobless.

I witnessed the new dispensation in Zimbabwe in November 2017 when there was a new president elected by the people to replace a 37-year rule since independence. This system of one individual being president for 37 years was waived and is not to be expected to continue. The Zimbabweans voted the incumbent during the 30 July 2018 elections; even after the court proceedings incited by the opposition party, President Mnangagwa still maintained his position. With his promises of listening to the voices of people and efforts to lead the country in a democratic way, Zimbabweans are expecting to see great changes that would promote both the employers and the employees. It may be too early to note the results, but this could be a good area of study for future researchers to evaluate the efforts of the new government from November 2017 to 30 July 2018 and thereafter, for the education, economic growth and employment situation of Zimbabwe.

The debate in the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education focuses on a proposal to change the school curriculum for the period 2015–2022 (Boylan, Brown & Anthony, 2017), in line with the Nziramasanga Report (Nziramasanga, 1999). The strategy will be to have a body of experts that will monitor and re-evaluate the implementation of recommendations. The strategy would help in coming up with a curriculum that will improve the interface between education and training, and industry. This move has come at the right time when I was researching a similar issue. As I became involved in this democratic action, I realised that this new knowledge would contribute to produce individuals showing democratic citizenship. According to Waghid (2010c), such citizens will have a sense of belonging and cultivated abilities to learn and be able to face the realities of their country in the world of work in a friendly and respectful manner.

After attaining independence in 1980, the leadership in Zimbabwe deliberately announced an ‘education for all’ policy that favoured Africans as Shizha & Kariwo (2011) argue. In the ranking of African countries by their literacy rates, the African Economist of 2015 placed Zimbabwe at high literacy levels, as has been highlighted earlier in Makou & Wilkinson (2018), who say that the Zimbabwean literacy rate is the highest in Africa at 90%. Thirty-eight years after independence policymakers seem to have failed to move with the changing environment of a globalised world of work. It seems strange to note that Zimbabwe, with its high levels of literacy, could still impede the economic growth of a country in a rapidly changing, technology-driven world. With this high level of literacy and numeracy one wonders why the economic development is still going down. I saw the need for continued study to examine why Zimbabwe should engage in such a reform effort to educate

and train many graduates. It is worth noting that the literacy rate in Zimbabwe has soared to 90% as confirmed by Makou & Wilkinson (2018), and 86.5% by the World Factbook (2018).

Although the literacy rate is high, the policy and curriculum designers seem not to have taken into consideration the transition of students to industry in tandem with the digital divide in the global village within which we find ourselves. There is an assumed missing link as the policies do not seem to favour students and seems not to prepare graduates for industry. The gap between the curricula designed for its products, and students' performance in industry remains. Continuous policy curriculum innovations and revision of strategic plans have been done to close the gap, but it still exists. The current study explored whether these expectations had been met. New knowledge on existing gaps and possible recommendations on policy were generated and possible thoughts and ideas that would influence designers of policy to be proactive will be discussed in Chapter 6.

1.8 Statement of the problem

The problem is that Zimbabwean industries are suffering from receiving graduate workers who do not display the scientific, technological, social, problem-solving and creative skills expected by the market. Maylett & Wride (2017), Gweru (2015), Shizha & Kariwo (2011), Mawere (2013), and Nziramasanga (1999) confirm that the training needs of the industries are not met by universities. The same writers recommend that the industries should be involved in assessing university programmes or courses to ensure that the required skills are being taught. The training institutions are expected to use refined curriculum policies to produce graduates for the industries. Frequent practical problems are glaring. Graduates face unemployment and various unfair labour practices at the workplaces. The problems need research-based solutions that would produce democratic individuals, hence, the current study. The need for further examination of the relationship between the curriculum policy and student entry into industry had been under the spotlight for a long time. The new knowledge generated and the recommendations could be used to transform the HEIs, individuals, industries and the whole country. The study sought to create a synergy where industries could be re-engaged in the redesigning of the curricula in order to solve problems and bring a long-term change from unrefined to refined and relevant education policies (Waghid, 2010c; 2010b).

1.9 Research aims

Whereas in the past it has been common practice for universities to churn out graduates independently without the input of industry, the modern trend requires a holistic approach. In this study, the process of implementing curriculum policy was examined and its relationship to students' access to industry was determined. These two are interrelated and part of a whole. Curriculum policy implementation

was achieved through interrelationship input from industries. The existing Zimbabwean higher education system, policies and programmes were evaluated and are described in order to generate new knowledge and determine their effectiveness. Any existing problems were identified as highlighted in the analysis and discussion in Chapters 4 and 5. The efforts of previous curriculum policy innovations to remove the struggles of the industry were studied. This was especially done where the rate of unemployment was escalating and the country still suffered and failed to satisfy the needs of both the graduates and industries. As an academic and administrator, I aimed at researching the net worth of the educational programmes and policies.

1.10 Research objectives

The study was guided by the following research objectives:

- establish the relationship between education and employment in Zimbabwe;
- to discuss the effects of DCE on employability; and
- to examine the link between university education and the development of entrepreneurship skills.

1.11 Research question

The study was also guided by a main question that is set out to be answered in the discussions. The question was as follows: How do the Zimbabwean HE programmes contribute to meeting expectations of the industries and their preparation of graduates for work?

1.12 Research sub-questions

Out of the main question that guided the study, there were three sub-questions that had to be answered. These questions are as follows:

- What is the relationship between education and employment in Zimbabwe?
- How does DCE affect employability?
- What is the link between university education and the development of entrepreneurship skills?

1.13 Research methodology

This thesis employed a qualitative interpretive study in order to bring a solution to the research problem of the gap between graduation and employability (Denscombe, 2010; Saunders, Lewis &

Thornhill, 2009). A small scale study was used and data was collected using interviews to university students and managers that formed the population. The samples of these university students and managers of industries were selected. According to Denscombe (2010), the samples represented variables that influenced and depended on each other in the field of education, training and the workplace. The interpretive qualitative inquiry involves analysing and understanding (Denscombe, 2010). This study adopted the philosophical stance of the natural scientists (Saunders et al., 2009:113), who state one “ will prefer working with an observable social reality and that the end product of such research can be law-like generalisations similar to those produced by the physical and natural scientist”. This stance suggests the existence of a position of an interpretive approach.

The qualitative interpretive approach was relevant to the thesis as there was a need (from my perspective) to understand the gap between student education and training up to graduation stage, and students’ entry into the world of work. In this study, a discussion of what individuals in universities (students and administrators) and industry managers say, and then to contextualise that within the whole field of education in Zimbabwe was the tool that could be used to collect data. The interpretation of the phenomena was then derived from the qualitative questions that were posed, during data collection, to participants. The targeted 20 participants were selected from the selected four universities: NUST in Bulawayo, Lupane State University (LSU) in Lupane, Midlands State University (MSU) in Gweru, and the Great Zimbabwe University (GZU) in Masvingo as well as industries in those cities. The cities were the most productive, major commercial and industrial centres. The major universities were the first to originate in these cities in Zimbabwe. The population constituted university students and managers of industries. The procedure that was used to sample participants was purposive sampling. The procedures are discussed in detail in Chapter 3. Purposive sampling “...means that the researcher is looking for participants who possess certain traits or qualities” (Koerber & McMichael, 2008:464). During the purposive sampling, a small number of respondents are identified (Denscombe, 2010).

This small scale study deliberately opted for semi-structured interviewing. I considered the interview strategy as the best method of creating knowledge in qualitative research, and, therefore, sought to treat each interview as a social encounter in which knowledge was constructed (Denscombe, 2010). In order to ascertain the usability of the instrument, a pretesting and verification exercise was conducted after I had designed the interview guide based on the objectives of the study. A selection of university students and managers of industries participated.

1.14 Data collection and analysis

Data collection involved taking down notes and making recordings using a smart phone, followed by data transcription. Data was analysed in order to come up with concepts and themes (Denscombe, 2010). The NVivo Version 20 (Bazeley, 2009:14), tables and graphs, Microsoft Excel and the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 20 were used (Pallant, 2011). The research methodology will be expounded in detail in Chapter 3. The next section discusses the conceptual and theoretical framework that guided the study.

1.15 Conceptual and theoretical framework

The guiding principles and reference points from which I structured my discussions and analysis were based on the following conceptual framework: political, economic, social and philosophical perspectives. The key issue was the examination of HE policies and how they related to graduate access to or entry into industry. The connection between graduation and working in industry was unveiled in order to answer questions that were stated in 1.12. The possibilities for action were based on the research objectives that were stated in 1.10. The independent variables for causes of producing graduates and independent variables for the outcomes of employment or unemployment are illustrated in Table 1.1.

Table 1.1: Causes and outcomes

Causes	Outcomes
Education policies →	Employment OR unemployment
Training →	
Development →	
Graduation →	

Source: Author's own compilation

From the analysis above, it is clear that the conceptual framework displayed was based on the research objectives and questions and this will be reflected in Chapter 2 (the literature review) of the thesis. This thesis was guided by the theoretical analysis of the human capital model, supported by Vaivode's (2015) triple helix model of university–industry–government cooperation. The human capability model by Sen (1997) is also of interest in this thesis as it focuses on the human development through education. Katusiime (2014) posits that, as a country looks for ways to improve both their social and economic development, there is need for people to accumulate human capital and expand human capability. The enlightenment is that human capital enhances human beings' resources in terms of skills and knowledge as applied in productive endeavors, while human development of capability focuses on enhancing the freedoms of people so that they can live the kinds of life they

value (Katusiime, 2014). It has become more evident that human capital as an approach to education cannot work in isolation as it needs supplements from other approaches like human capability to be able to address the needs and concerns of citizens from a wide perspective (Sen, 1997). According to Abd Razak & White (2015) the Triple Helix model emphasizes on the collaborative relationships between university, industry and government. The three groups are expected to work together in order to improve innovation and to solve the unemployment problem that is discussed in this thesis. Through the collaborations; university, industry and government can come up with solutions of how to assist the graduates to be self-reliant either workers or as job-creators (Abd Razak & White, 2015). The human capital model in line with the Vaivode's (2015) triple helix model and the human capability model will be discussed briefly in 1.15.1 and 1.15.2 respectively, however more details on these models will be expounded in Chapter 2.

1.15.1 Human capital model

The theory that guided my study was based on the human capital model and supported by the triple helix model of university–industry–government cooperation (Chakanyuka, 2015; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011; Vaivode, 2015). These models are discussed in order to demonstrate how they guided my study in the examination of the graduate-to-industry journey. My preliminary study of literature related to these models and helped me to contextualise the areas of my research. I have familiarised myself with current theories related to education policy and their effect on graduates' transition into industry. Firstly, I have been guided by speeches and announcements by policymakers in the Nziramasanga Report (Nziramasanga, 1999). The ideas of the report were integrated in my research. The document of the Nziramasanga Report also provided valuable indicators to new research, for example, the challenges of the high unemployment rate and the curriculum that does not meet the needs of the economy (Nziramasanga, 1999). Further discussion on the Nziramasanga Report follows in Chapter 2. The objectives of the revision of the Nziramasanga Report at a conference in 2004 focused on having continuous assessment of learners versus the grading system that was examination-based, as reported in the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2013). The purpose was to equip learners for self-employment in line with what Waghid (2015), and Chan & McNaught (2009) call outcomes-based education (OBE).

In my recommendations in Chapter 6, I also refer to this OBE by Chan & McNaught (2009) policy in Hong Kong to help Zimbabwean policymakers see how an educator, learner and the curriculum could be related to produce understanding and skills that are transferable. Interestingly, Chan & McNaught (2009), Shizha & Kariwo (2011) and Chakanyuka (2015) indicate that OBE has been extensively used in the education systems of countries such as the United Kingdom, the United States of America and Australia. In all these countries, OBE has been a major approach to reflect students' learning quality

and performance of institutions. In OBE, graduates should not be like those produced after using the traditional approach to learning which is mainly performance-based. This led me to adopt an OBE model versus the traditional approach in line with the human capital model as summarised in Table 1.2.

Table 1.2: Model showing differences between traditional approach and OBE

Type	Traditional approach	OBE approach
Model	Input, content and teacher-centred	Output and student-centred
Management strategy	Attendance of students, calendars and content-defined programmes are key	Student learning outcomes-defined programmes are key
Theoretical basis	Teachers are experts and norm referencing considered	Approach is behavioural and measurable through student learning outcomes and criterion referencing is considered
Curriculum content	In segments and may be handled in parts	Integrated and linked with learning objectives
Process of education	Highlight of content and teaching resources	Highlighting of learning standards and student performance
Organisational mode	Curriculum planning, teaching and assessment are handled as separate units	Curriculum planning, teaching and assessment are handled in a coherent manner and are aware of focus on alignment
Curriculum requirement	Contact time and student workload are emphasised	Student performance is emphasised and there should be clearly defined outcome indicators.

Source: Adapted from Chan & McNaught (2009)

My study adopted the model of putting emphasis on outputs in terms of what happens to graduates after education inputs have been implemented. The call should be to move away from the traditional approach where universities, industry and government interact and concentrate on inputs, but care little about what will happen to outputs (graduates) in terms of their employability. Human capital becomes significant because some level of human knowledge and skills is essential in order for an organisation or a country to accomplish anything (Becker, 2013; Grossman, 2000). In the discussions during interviews, I collected data on the interactions between universities, government and industry in order to discover the inputs and outputs. According to Table 1.1 the causes would be inputs (education policies, training, development and graduation) and the output would be outcomes of either employment or unemployment. The scenario thus shows the link between the triple helix model of university–industry–government cooperation and the human capital model, which guided my study

(Vaivode, 2015). Economic growth and the welfare of nations depend on basic innovations by humans from universities, industry and government (Atkinson, Ezell & Stewart, 2012; Vaivode, 2015).

Furthermore, human capital is against oppression of graduates which is supported by Freire's (1992) pedagogy of hope. Pedagogy of hope supports freedom of graduates' ability to cope with the world of work. Freire's (1992) ideas present some transformation in the lives of educators and learners versus the pedagogy of the oppressed syndrome (Freire, 1992). The transformation from oppression as displayed in Freire's book *Pedagogy of the oppressed* (1992), gave me a sound theoretical framework in my research (Waghid, 2015). I became deeply motivated to come up with new contributions to knowledge in order to inform policy and practice, just as Waghid (2015), and Chakanyuka (2015) advocate. In my recommendations in Chapter 6, I show how learners can be groomed into this pedagogy of hope and cope with the world of work versus the oppression that most graduates tend to display. There are a number of examples of elements of oppression in graduates. These examples range from the difficulty in coping in industry due to low salaries, shortage of resources at work to their failure to meet the expectations of industry themselves in cases where they would not have received adequate training, were noted. This was ample proof that the issue needed further research; hence, my choice of the topic. The influence of educational systems that could play a major role in developing human beings' world views and tolerance of difference is also noted in the recommendations in Chapter 6. This pedagogy of hope, which is encouraged to be instilled in graduates in order to help them cope with the world of work versus the oppression of graduates is what the human capital model advocates.

Moreover, the human capital model also promotes the inspection of the educational policy from inside and becoming an agent of critical inquiry into the problem. In line with what the human capital model promotes, Waghid's (2015) engages into an analytical philosophical inquiry into South African education systems and policies. Therefore, I adopted the approach to conduct an analytical philosophical inquiry into Zimbabwean education systems and policies, which portrayed a theoretical framework for my study. An analytical inquiry is considered as everybody's business and ought to be the point of being philosophical about education, also for providing the opportunity for thoughtful participation in education by all who care seriously about it (Waghid, 2015). The approach of conducting an analytic inquiry also helps to allow all stakeholders to have academic freedom. If stakeholders cannot freely express themselves against all forms of injustice, higher education does not stand a chance of emerging into critical and scholarly environments. The list of stakeholders in the current research comprised universities (students, educators), industries (employees, graduates, managers) and government officials (policymakers, politicians). The process related to the triple helix

model of university–industry–government cooperation (Vaivode, 2015). I chose to engage in this process of analytical inquiry in the process of examining the process of movement of graduates to industry, and to deal with issues of employability. This justified my pursuing the examination of the educational policy from inside and becoming an agent of critical inquiry into the problem, which is a process dealt with in the human capital model.

The central question of whether education frameworks are sufficient to transform the education system and whether it is worth it to examine the Nziramasanga Report to prove that education policy initiatives suggested in the report, are not sufficient. The answer to the central question is meant to bring guidance to educational transformations in universities and schools (Chakanyuka, 2015; Nziramasanga, 1999; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011; Waghid, 2015). Brilliant suggestions were made by Nziramasanga (1999) in his report on the inquiry into education, but did not bring enough transformation. As a result of insufficient transformation, there had been further inquiries into education, as discussed in Chapter 2, where the Nziramasanga Report of 1999 had been revised in 2004 (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2013), in 2010 (UNESCO, 2008) and in 2014 as recorded by Marume (2016). As highlighted earlier (see 1.2 and 1.3), it is clear that I engaged in the examination of the relationship between educational policy and students' access to Zimbabwean industries from within my environment of education and experience. The urgent need to gain understanding about current shifts in education policy transformation, started at the early stages of my career as a teacher and administrator. I felt justified and confident to engage in the process that would bring a lasting change in the market-driven concerns. This is a process whereby education institutions become subordinated to the demands of the market place. The current study also comprised an analytical inquiry into policy innovations in order to produce an employable graduate.

The human capital model focuses on the gap between educational demands and the structure of the labour market. The key policy priority of 'education for all' in 1980 led to an HE policy developed in 2007 (see Shizha & Kariwo, 2011), to widen access in HE. This created a massive expansion of educational institutions that led to a decline in public funding, hyperinflation, economic mismanagement and others, according to Shizha & Kariwo (2011), Chakanyuka (2015) and Chakaza (2018). Such enormous demands usually stem from political pressure and lead to out-of-proportion use of finances. The problem had been an imbalance between a graduate meant to be absorbed in the industry and paid well, and the industry failing to accommodate such a graduate. It would be necessary at this stage to understand that the industry failed to accommodate such graduates, or would accommodate the graduates and give them jobs but end up struggling to pay them. The expected benefits of more years of schooling continue to exceed private costs. Hence, the need to pursue the research and examine the relationships between curriculum policy and students' access to industry.

The issue of productivity trends in Zimbabwean university education is debatable. One may argue that the Zimbabwean productivity trends do not indicate increase in productivity and efficiency. In one of the productivity trends in Zimbabwe; is the issue of what education entails and reforms of policies, as opposed to favourable input–output relationships. Whilst this thesis concentrates on the journey between graduation and world of work, it is of paramount importance that there be further research in order to analyse whether the cost of education is equal to the product, and then to advise policy makers. The focus was also on examining how employment and development are affected by the type of education provided in relation to HE. (MacLeod & Urquiola, 2019) affirm that education can provide two commodities that affect the value of human capital with skills and job match quality. Education is an investment into human capital (Becker, 2013) that creates an asset human capital or skill. Munyoro's (2018) speech marks Zimbabwean President Mnangagwa's (2018) words that government has called for greater infrastructural investment at institutions of higher learning to ensure broader access to university education, and the creation of linkages and interdependent relations among relevant stakeholders. This, therefore, brings about the fact that education in Zimbabwe is an investment rather than a consumptive. President Mnangagwa (2018) asserts that, there is need to prioritize infrastructure investment at colleges and universities for future generations to produce well-rounded graduates for the global market. He further encouraged higher learning institutions in that they are essential in building a Zimbabwe where everyone can be proud. Hence, Murwira (2018) and Munyoro (2018) suggest that education in Zimbabwe is an investment for a better Zimbabwe as knowledge that cannot be transformed into goods and services is not relevant at all.

In line with the view of education as an investment, (Elbadawi & Schmidt-Hebbel, 1991:5) wrote that the pre-occupation of independent Zimbabwe was to redress accumulated historical inequalities and to improve the stock of human capital for the majority of the population by investing in education. Education is perceived as a major weapon for providing a politically conscious nation, aware of and devoted to the promotion of the welfare of citizens (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). Furthermore, Shizha & Kariwo (2011) attest that Zimbabwe has invested highly in education and that education is critical to national and economic development. Education is acknowledged as an investment in human capital, which sustains and accelerates the rate of economic growth and socio-economic development (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). Individual workers invest in technical skills and knowledge so that they can negotiate with those in control of the production process (firms and their agents) for the payment of their labor-skill as advocated by human capital theory (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). Therefore, education is an investment in hope for a better future by individuals.

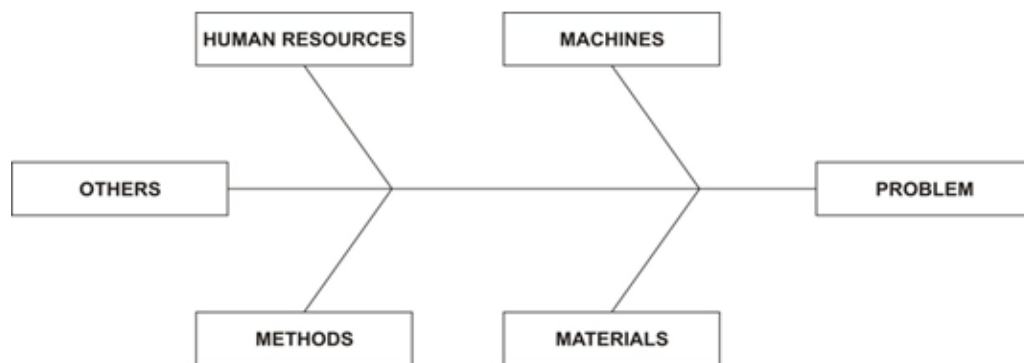
Significantly, Trust (2008), proffers that the society obtains the following benefits from higher education, namely; equity and social cohesion, democracy, economic growth as well as increased level of health in the society. With this view, education as an investment is assumed to bring about the benefits of equity and social cohesion, democracy, economic growth and increased level of health. In light of the above notion, cost of education is anticipated to be an investment with the benefits that will be acquired through human capital (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). MacLeod & Urquiola (2019) concur that, education in every sense is one of the fundamental factors of development. Enlightening further, no country can achieve sustainable economic development without substantial investment in human capital. Education enriches people's understanding of themselves and the world around them. It improves the quality of their lives and leads to broader social benefits to individuals and the society. Education raises people's productivity and creativity and promotes entrepreneurship and technological advances.

The research stimulated new thinking about development of policies in my country. In Chapter 6, policy guidelines that might attract funding for pilot projects in terms of the introduction of new methods are suggested. In the past, most researchers concentrated on the gap between the training stage and graduate level, and on the transition to industry. For further research, I, therefore, suggest that researchers dig deeper as far back as to the primary school level, because learners tend to evaluate the meaning of education early. I find it ideal to instil good reasons for getting education early, and such knowledge will help curriculum planners in terms of what people perceive as the most preferred job, which I see affect choices of most Zimbabweans. In most cases, people flood to do certain jobs and yet the unemployment rate remains high.

The approach of my study was also a critical path analysis, which is evident in both the human capital model (Grossman, 2000) and the triple helix model (Vaivode, 2015). Here a problem was identified in the Zimbabwean HE system. The central problem identified was that of the industry suffering from receiving university graduates who would be potential employees. These graduates would be interviewed because they qualify, but when they get employed, they get down to work, but cannot display the relevant skills. The workplaces would then have to start afresh to train the new employees. The assumption of industries could be that the training institutions would have trained the students well enough to face the world of work. On the other hand, graduates themselves could face unemployment or underemployment and would encounter various problems in organisations, which is likely to cause low staff morale. The problems for employers and employees seem practical and would need to be attended to, hence, my need in this study to address the problems. The topic regarding the experiences of the employers in industries and graduates has been high on the agenda of Zimbabwean media for a long time. The knowledge of recommendations to bring transformation and

development in the HEIs, industry, individuals and the country as a whole, has to be generated in the field of research. I trust that my recommendations in Chapter 6 would contribute to bringing change in the country. In the process of identifying the strengths, weaknesses, threats and opportunities of the country as a whole, a change plan should be developed. My study problem can be summarised in the form of a fish bone diagram developed from a critical path analysis as depicted in Figure 1.1.

Figure 1.1: Fish bone diagram: Unemployment problem



Source: Adapted from Vaivode (2015)

The frequency of the problems of unemployment creates fear, anxiety and a loss of confidence in HEIs among stakeholders, especially the beneficiaries of the system: parents and graduates. The diagram implies that the unemployment problem needs to be reviewed considering materials, methods, machines, human resources and other issues. Policy designers have made efforts to improve the relationships between curriculum policy makers for HEIs and industrialists in order to prepare a smooth transition of students from HEIs to industry. Feedback from the industrialists concerning the performance of workers or students on industrial attachment, makes it clear that there is a gap that needs to be filled through provisions of relevant curriculum innovations and the restructuring of HEIs. The current study sought to create a synergy where industry could be engaged in the redesigning of the curricula as a method of solving the problem and bringing a lasting change.

As mentioned earlier on in this study, there will be reference to the human capability model and, the next section will discuss this briefly.

1.15.2 Human capability model

McCowan (2011:285) puts forward that the capabilities approach ponders development through education to be understood not only as increasing income or better access to resources, but as the

enhancement of people's freedoms to do and be what they have reason to value. In addition, education plays a role of expanding people's freedom and enhancing their capabilities. People need education to be able to convert what they are able to do and be (capabilities) into better living conditions and well-being (Katusiime, 2014). Vermeulen (2012) advocates that access to education and being knowledgeable consents one to prosper. With the same notion, education functions as a foundation to other capabilities (Hoffman, 2006:2). In other words, being well educated is essential for the expansion of more capabilities (Robeyns, 2006:78-79). However, a higher level of education does not automatically permit one to obtain a better job and improve economic status although that may be attainable.

Katusiime (2014) attests that people in a society are different and are gifted with a diversity of capabilities that demand different processes of enhancing their capabilities. Moreover, it is not enough for people to have capabilities. They must also acquire an education that can enable them to convert their capabilities into their desired functions. From this perspective, policy makers need to consider what people are capable of doing and then design policies that can enhance people's capabilities to enable them to live better lives and improve their well-being. The process of enhancing people's capabilities can be through different ways such as exposing them to learning opportunities, getting them practicing certain activities, also through education and training (Katusiime, 2014). Walker, (2005:104) posits that governments and all partners in education need to find ways to inspire their learners to look forward to being successful or have a better quality of life and to work towards fulfilling that goal to have a brighter tomorrow.

People need to be future-oriented to be able to achieve what they aspire to be in life (Walker, 2007:190). In light of the view, capability theory encourages human beings to be future-oriented, in order to achieve a better tomorrow with all stakeholders involved. Katusiime (2014) submits that paying attention to the diversity of human capabilities and aspirations may assist to avoid the disadvantages of specialization. Governments and policy designers need to help young people see the bigger picture of the alternative capabilities they have at their disposal so that they are not discouraged when one choice does not work for them. It is by using the lens of the capability approach that people can know their alternative capabilities that are equally important in their life (Walker, 2008:276).

The next session is a summary of the chapters of the thesis.

1.16 Summary of chapters

I organised my thesis into six interrelated chapters.

CHAPTER 1 Background to the study

The chapter concentrated on the purpose of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study, research questions and research methodology. Key terms were defined. The conceptual and theoretical frameworks, on which the study were based, was also examined and this is reported. A summary of all the chapters was given in this chapter.

CHAPTER 2 Literature review

Chapter 2 reviewed literature that is related to the study and is composed of three sections that are based on the three objectives (1.10) that guided the study.

2.1 Examining the relationship between education and employment in Zimbabwe

The influence of university education policy innovations on graduates' access to industry, showing the connection between graduation and work, was examined. Suggestions of appropriate strategies to come up with linkages between education and employment are proffered. The factors that affect education, training, economic growth and economic development in Zimbabwe were identified. Public policy making strategies and recommendations for policy makers regarding economic growth was examined. A review of education during the colonial period, post-independence reforms and democracy in education were revisited.

2.2 DCE and its effects on employability

The effects of DCE on issues of employability were identified and discussed in order to establish a solution to what could close or minimise the gap between graduation and employment. Colonial education, educational reforms since 1980 and the post-independent period were reviewed. The topics on quality education were discussed in detail.

2.3 University education and the development of entrepreneurship skills

The efforts of the government of Zimbabwe to link university education to the development of entrepreneurship skills needed in industry, business ventures and employment creation were examined. The issues that were discussed were based on the two key issues that were high on the agenda of the Zimbabwean media. These issues were the Nziramasanga Report of 1999–(commonly known as the Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training) – which provided valuable indicators to new research, and the Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) initiative, which is a priority of the MHTESTD for students to take up STEM subjects and courses. These are believed to result in the industrialisation of the economy and creation of employment. The issues of involvement of stakeholders and government initiatives towards the development of education and economy in Zimbabwe were discussed.

CHAPTER 3 Research methodology

Chapter 3 discusses the research methodology that was used to collect data. The qualitative interpretive approach, use of a small scale study and collection of data using an interview strategy were discussed. The issues of validity, reliability and ethics in research were discussed in relation to the thesis.

CHAPTER 4 Data presentation, analysis and interpretation of findings - semi-structured interviews stage 1

The focus of Chapter 4 is on the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the findings of the data collected during stage 1: semi-structured interviews. The results of this stage reflected the backgrounds of participants, the challenges they faced, the barriers encountered, and the expectations that they had. The first stage of interviews was conducted to 10 managers and 26 university students.. The method that was used for data analysis was qualitative and is presented in graphs and tables. All the responses in this first stage of interviews were captured in an Excel template and later transcribed to an SPSS template to produce the highest frequencies of occurrences. The interpretations were based on thematic analysis, and discussions supported by literature.

CHAPTER 5 Data presentation, analysis and interpretation of findings –semi-structured interviews stage 2

Chapter 5 presents an analysis, interpretation and discussion of the results of stage 2: semi-structured interviews based on the research objectives and research questions. The respondents were 10 managers from industries and 10 university students who were the key respondents of the study. NVivo Version 20 was used to determine frequencies and show dominance of themes (Denscombe, 2010; Mason & Dale, 2010). The data was collected from the respondents with the interpretations based on thematic analysis, elements of the voices of the respondents and discussions. Graphs, pictures, pie charts and tables were used to summarise responses which were also supported by literature.

CHAPTER 6: Summary, findings, conclusions, recommendations and areas for further research

Chapter 6 focuses on a summary of findings, conclusions, recommendations and areas for future research.

CHAPTER 2

Literature review

Chapter 2 is divided into three sections that are based on the three objectives (see 1.10) that guided the study.

2.1 Examining the relationship between education and employment in Zimbabwe

The purpose of this chapter is to review the Zimbabwean higher education (HE) system using literature and to focus on examining the relationships between education and employment. The purpose is that of generating new knowledge and recommendations for education and training development. This research problem is an area of concern where there is a knowledge gap which involves the question of how university graduates can be absorbed in the industry to get jobs or to be business people. The question has not been answered or has not had adequate responses. For example, the relationship between graduation and employability has been discussed for long. The gap in the knowledge concerns issues that affect the relationship between university graduates and the process of entering into the job market (Denscombe, 2010). The issues range from socio-political, economic, and changes affecting education, training, and development in Zimbabwe. These issues will be discussed further in this chapter. The statement of a problem is the foundation of the research. The statement of the problem guides and directs the exploration of subject areas. This chapter deals with the influence of university policies affecting graduates in Zimbabwe. The strategies for links between university and industry were explored and the factors that affect education, training, and development in Zimbabwe were discussed. In order for the influence, strategies, and factors to be discussed clearly, the history of Zimbabwean education was revisited. A brief review of colonial education and post-independence education reforms are also discussed. Arguments about the political, economic, and social changes and issues affecting education, training, and development in Zimbabwe are presented.

The context and background of the current knowledge of the educational policy and the entry of graduates into the industry are made clear in this chapter. The purpose is to review literature on the perceptions of policymakers, educators, students and industrialists in order to establish how problems amongst them can be solved. Literary works of different authors are examined in this thesis, in order to show the relationship between education and work. This issue of graduate employability is also pursued in this chapter. If the graduates are ever employed, either the graduates do not match the expectations of the industries where they work, or they themselves grow dissatisfied with the way the industry treats them (Lowden et al., 2011). For instance, the graduates suffer poor working

conditions, receive low salaries or no salaries at all and some were retrenched (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011:5). Lowden et al. (2011:vi), cited in Allison, Harvey & Nixon (2002) say that the literature available on graduate employability indicates that there has been a variety of efforts by HEIs to address the issue of graduate employability. On the other hand, Lowden et al. (2011: vi) indicate that the level of developments that are happening and the extent to which they are embedded across the HE sector is unknown, but seems highly variable. Lowden et al. (2011:vi) observe that, regardless of the fact that there are essential advances in government policy, HEIs and employers have been inspired to work hand in hand in developing approaches to help achieve graduate employability.

Madziyire (2009) asserts that education is viewed as a dynamic, organic and whole system that is made up of sub-systems and if any of the subsystems malfunctions the whole education system is bound to suffer. The five key features of education systems as mentioned by Madziyire (2009) are objectives, outputs, benefits, internal process and inputs. The features will be discussed in turns so as to see how education gets linked to employability. Objectives are the system's reason for existing and this warrant for a command of a share of scarce public and private resources. The objectives range from general for the whole education system as a whole, for example, to produce good citizens, develop educated leaders and support national development to specific ones like to master addition, subtraction, and develop various skills.

According to Madziyire (2009) the objectives for education systems would depend on different kinds of groups being educated, in some cases the education systems' objectives may differ from day to day activities. For instance, the objectives can be for developing the capacity in learners to analyse problems and to devise solutions. However, in actual fact learners would spend most of their time memorizing other people's solutions. Contextually for this study the objective of learners would be to develop in learners a capacity to be employable, and to develop entrepreneurship and job-creation skills. Actually, learners could be spending most of their time mastering ideas they would fail to later apply in practice. The issue of relevance or irrelevance of objectives would be debatable especially in cases when education systems are not clear about their objectives and priorities are. The systems would lack a starting point for improving its performance, planning its future or making good use of the cost analysis for the purposes of education (Madziyire, 2009).

With reference to the outputs as another key feature for education systems, all the acquired learning, skills, insights, attitudes, styles of thinking and capabilities that students carry away from the education system are produced. These would be beyond or in addition to what the students brought to learning institutions. Outputs are the educational value added to students as they get exposed to a

particular education process. Outputs cannot be adequately assessed simply by standardized examinations given to all students at the end of a process (Madziyire, 2009). Students would have entered the process with different family and cultural backgrounds, career aspirations, motivations, etc. The purpose of any education system is to generate long term benefits as compared to simply producing immediate education outputs. The benefits take forms like economic, non-economic, individual and social. The individuals may benefit by getting employed, get better jobs, high salaries and have more satisfying family lives. The society may benefit from higher production and better living standards, from enlarged supply of effective leadership, from enrichment of its culture through the release of greater productivity in more people (Madziyire, 2009). If the society or individuals are not confident of getting the benefits, they would not spend time, effort and money on the education system. However, benefits tend to depend on how effectively the economy and society use the learning outputs and also on what the education system produces.

In formal education the future benefits, for example, after certification or graduation, one will get employed and live a better life, and the benefits can be taken for granted whether justifiable or not. Non-formal education programmes are put to a more vigorous test because learners volunteer to get involved. The learners may simply stop to learn if a program seems not worth producing a benefit. Some people may vote against it and the programme can be stopped (Madziyire, 2009). Madziyire, (2009) concurs that the internal process of education systems is marked by effective ways of working in order to produce useful outputs and long-term benefits. The process also involves a system having appropriate technologies and pedagogical methods, effective organizational structure, good management. The internal process of education systems needs to have the curriculum with content that is related to the systems' objectives and to learners' needs. Another process would mean assessing costs, results, relative merits and feasibility of learning.

2.1.1 Review of the relationship between education and economic growth in Zimbabwe

The current study was also guided by the theoretical framework of Zivengwa (2012), who investigated the relationship between education and economic growth in Zimbabwe. The theoretical framework looks at the adoption of education as a form of investment as advocated in the human capital model. The causality between education and economic growth in Zimbabwe during the period 1980 to 2008 was investigated by Zivengwa (2012). His findings confirm that education and economic growth are related and influence each other in the Zimbabwean economy. In this case, capitalising investment in education is essential for economic growth, just as economic growth contributes to education or economic growth can be influenced by education (Zivengwa 2012). Clearly, when there is an increase in human capital, there is a boost in the return on physical investments. That is why the issue of concentrating on education policies that will improve the

education system became a major concern for me in the current study, especially concentrating on how education affects the employability of university graduates. For this reason, my study was based on the human capital model.

The theoretical framework based on the human capital model, considers the adoption of education as a form of investment (Zivengwa, 2012). Education is viewed by Zivengwa (2012:1) as:

...a consumer good and also a capital good because it offers utility to its consumer and also serves as an input into the production of other goods and services, as a necessity for economic and social transformation thus leading to economic growth.

For a country to talk about production activities one is likely to believe that it is crucial to develop skills. Skills are developed through educating and training individuals with the aim of making them productive workers. Being productive workers would mean that the individuals either are employed in industries or become self-reliant and can be employers themselves by being job creators (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). Through education, there could be chances of creation, innovation, and production of knowledge, ideas, and technology. These attributes are essential to bring about economic growth and human capital development in any society.

Universities are therefore instrumental in being vehicles for this kind of education and are expected to produce self-reliant and employable graduates. The economy is expected to grow when universities have a large productive capacity of graduates and an increase in employment will be expected. An increase in employment is likely to lead to workers of business owners earning incomes. This could result in expenditure on education with people likely to continue getting access to education. As people get an education, their productive capacity could increase and thus contribute to economic growth (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). If a country has this virtuous cycle, the economy develops and this could lead to a reduction in poverty. Zimbabwe is one of the countries where the majority of people get access to education through an 'education for all' policy (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). This makes the process of investigating the causal relationship between economic growth and education unavoidable.

The human capital theoretical framework looks at the implementation of education as a form of investment (Grossman, 2000). Based upon the work of Grossman (2000), Becker (2013) and Vaiode (2015) as has been discussed earlier (see 1.15.1), human capital assumes that formal education is highly influential and essential to advance the production capacity of a population, as an educated population is a productive population (Grossman, 2000). Furthermore, Becker (2013) observes that the growth of the economy can bring about the accumulation of human capital as it is likely to increase the productivity of factors. Factors that are referred to here might include skills and qualifications, education levels, work experience, communication skills, intelligence and personality

which would show whether a worker is working hard and well with other workers in an office or not (Pettinger, 2017). In Becker's (2013) human capital model, and Vaivode's, (2015) triple helix model, the rate of growth in terms of educational institutions and a stable economy to sustain the institutions in a country is determined by the rate of accumulation of human capital. The rate of growth in human capital, which is also dependent on the amount of time assigned by individuals to obtain skills, can be critical for growth (Becker, 2013; Grossman, 2000). In their study, Hoang & Gimeno (2010) also argue that education is procured by a time series of variable tertiary education admissions. The admissions would involve enrolment for universities, teacher training colleges, agricultural training colleges and technical colleges for the period under study.

The human capability model also focuses on education as an investment. According to (Katusiime, 2014) the capability approach views education as a means for individuals in a society to expand the freedom of people so as to enjoy being and doing what they reason to value, thus expansion of people's freedom is development. Education plays a role of expanding people's freedoms and enhancing their capabilities. People need education to be able to convert what they are able to do and be (capabilities) into better living conditions and well-being (Katusiime, 2014). It is not enough for people to have capabilities. They must also acquire an education that can enable them to convert their capabilities into their desired functions. From this perspective, policy makers need to consider what people are capable of doing and being and then design policies that can enhance people's capabilities to enable them to live better lives and improve their well-being. The process of enhancing people's capabilities can be through different ways such as exposing them to learning opportunities, getting them practicing certain activities, and also through education and training.

2.1.2 Education and economic development in Zimbabwe

This section intends to show how education can be related to economic development in Zimbabwe. Shizha & Kariwo (2011) note that massive education in Zimbabwe and huge investments in education were faced with an enormous budget to meet the needs of the institutions and the students. This resulted in the failure to account for massive funding, yet society looked forward to getting good returns. This is a cause for concern, which motivated me to reflect on the Zimbabwean policy of 'education for all', a key policy priority that led to an HE policy developed in 2007 (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011) to widen access to HE. The massive expansion led to a decline in public funding, hyperinflation, economic mismanagement, and other related problems. According to Waghid (2013a), such enormous demands also usually stem from political pressure, which then leads to the out-of-proportion use of finances in a country that is already struggling. I agree with this observation, which seems to affect my country as well. The problem is an imbalance created between a graduate and all that is expected from him or her, and the industry. Moreover, the expected benefits of more years of

schooling seem to continue to exceed the cost of schooling (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). For this reason, I felt motivated to pursue the examination of the relationships between curriculum policy and students' access to the industries.

According to Chakaza (2018) and Chipunza (2017) few graduates are employed in Zimbabwe (working for others and paid a salary) or are self-employed (work for self). Many are unemployed voluntarily, involuntarily or are willing to accept any job they can get. The result is a distorted labour market of the uneducated having informal jobs and the educated that are either unemployed or underemployed. There are also workers who are highly educated and who expect good incentives, but they get frustrated if they do not get those incentives (Chakaza, 2018; Chipunza, 2017; Mawere, 2013; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). The provision of resources across diverse functional areas was significant, as it could affect the performance and quality of the education sector, (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). At least the budget was steered towards buying basic inputs for the education process, equipment, and materials. Nevertheless, an additional breakdown exposed relatively heavy expenses on salaries of non-teaching (administrative) staff relative to teaching staff. These two factors could explain why the education results are not improving, despite the improvement in the teacher-learner ratios and an increase in the number of qualified teaching staff.

All these discoveries motivated me to engage in the process of examining the relationship between educational policy and graduates' entry into industry. I got involved in the process of looking for information about the relationship between the graduates and the entry into the world of work in books, newspapers, magazines, and different reference materials and judging the writings' accuracy. Over time, the assumption that the more one gets educated and trained, the more the individual is paid, has proved not to be true in Zimbabwe. Many have lived with that assumption, and a lot of money has been invested through reforming education policies and large-scale training of graduates, yet the problems grow and industries get alarmed by their failure to absorb, serve or be served by graduates. For this reason, I was motivated to inquire into the issue to come up with recommendations that will bring a lasting change. Mawere (2013) agrees that there is a need to conduct a cost analysis in education and to use it as a tool for policy and planning. Their aim was to analyse the cost in education to see if it is equal to the product and then to give policy planners advice. I considered this practice of putting a cost to education for it to expand as crucial. I asked the question that Wike & Fraser (2009) ask, namely why institutions enrol students who are not capable of passing or finding employment when they graduate. Wike & Fraser (2009) realised that the success of institutions is generally measured by student achievement and their employment is expected. An examination of

how employment and development are affected by the type of education could stimulate new thinking about the development of policies in Zimbabwe, hence, the need to engage in the current study.

Mawere, (2013) and Shizha & Kariwo, (2011) show the effects of curriculum policies on graduates. I engaged in this study in order to join these researchers in examining the fact that there is a gap between the training stage and graduate level, and between graduation and employability (Denscombe, 2010; Mawere, 2013; Saunders, et al., 2009). There is a need to examine issues as early as possible, even during primary education, because learners tend to evaluate the meaning of education early and this marks an important guide to expectations they hold about their future roles. In the process of examining the relationships between the training of graduates and their getting to the stage of being employed or becoming business owners, such issues can be probed further. My results of interviews showed that school achievement at lower levels of education is a prediction of performance at university. Participants in interviews had always wondered why most first-year university students fail. The results of their studies reflected that the first year at university was a time of adjustment and turmoil and usually caused drop-outs. Some participants felt that the failures had to do with their previous performances, whilst others thought that the results had nothing to do with their previous performances, but success was generally determined by many factors: gender, age, culture, and many other internal and external factors. Performance in school, college or university seemed to determine employability later.

The curriculum for tertiary institutions and the examination system are currently under review. The main drive for the curriculum is to place emphasis on science and technology, engineering and computing sciences and also financial studies. Universities use constant assessment, practicals, end of semester examinations and industrial attachments for student jobs. The processes are used to assess, examine and evaluate students in order to monitor their progress and make decisions about the students' next stages of their learning. External examining is a system used at the end of degree or diploma courses. The universities play a central role in encouraging the physical, intellectual, emotional, moral, spiritual, social and aesthetic development and well-being of young people (Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). The training in institutions does not meet the skills training and employment needs of the young people. The skills being developed through the education and training process of students, and what is needed in the labour market, do not match (Kariwo, 2011; UNDP, 2014). There is an incompatibility between the technology used in institutions of learning and industry, and the general economic weakening that seems to have affected Zimbabwe and this seems to be a great challenge. This challenge is attributed to limited opportunities for skills development programmes and institutions that could have an effect on the youth, as confirmed by Lowden et al. (2011). Lowden et al. (2011) note that the youth seem to love what they will be studying in universities as they would be

developing skills that would make them employable. Students go to university to get a good job after graduation. However, after graduation, most youths fail to get jobs and those who may get employed are affected by the employers' perception of the new graduate's employability. The employers expect graduates to perform better than they can do in the job or to do more than that for which universities have prepared them (Bhebhe, Nair, Muranda, Sifile & Chavunduka, 2015; Lowden et al., 2011; Yaounde, 2018). The identified problems justified my need to examine the education policy in order to establish that the curriculum has many ways in which it motivates the young people of Zimbabwe either positively or negatively, as revealed by Kariwo (2011), Lowden et al. (2011) and Yaounde (2018).

A good policy should provide for a content review of curricula in order to come up with relevant and coordinated curricula that would meet the needs of the country. The university education system in Zimbabwe makes an effort to design curricula in close co-operation with industry, but when it comes to the issue of the performance of workers who had been prepared to go out to the industries, a gap is still seen. There appears to be a great mismatch between the graduates and the expectations of the industries (Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). These writers express doubt that the industries are well represented, and also that the curricula used in institutions are constantly drifting away from the needs of industries. African HEIs must become more responsive to local development needs than they are currently (Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). Therefore, the role played by industries working with universities and individuals in the advancement of the skills of individuals or groups through on-the-job training, and those of the informal sector is always considered and taken as part and parcel of the national development agenda (UNDP, 2014; Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). Policies should also address the challenges of unemployment, the mismatch of skills development and the needs of the labour market. The policy framework is anticipated to lead the changes in the skills development sector necessary to make the education and training system responsive to the socio-economic development of Zimbabwe (ZimAsset, 2013; Zhou & Hardlife, 2012).

2.1.3 History of Zimbabwean education revisited

Educational reforms were made in Zimbabwe when the country obtained independence in 1980. According to Shizha & Kariwo (2011), and Dohm & Shniper (2016) there was a need for the country to build up human and physical capital infrastructure in order to produce leadership to spearhead development levels for the rapid expansion of enrolments in HEIs. Widespread employment and income-earning opportunities were created for teachers, schools, workers, builders, and others. A class of educated leaders was created to fill vacancies and they promoted numeracy, and literacy in training and education in basic skills. This resulted in the country having an educated and skilled

labour force that was not matching up with the opportunities for work, thus creating a gap (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011).

The education system seemed to increase in quality, and the income inequalities also increased. The considerable education system of Zimbabwe was influenced by the human capital model (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). Waghid (2009b) encourages the revival and renewal of HEIs, which will allow all stakeholders to express themselves freely against all forms of injustice in the education sector. This would cause institutions to have a critical and scholarly climate and challenges can be addressed so that the institutions may function efficiently. At this stage, it is critical to highlight the effects of colonialism on the Zimbabwean education system, 1980, and post-independence education reforms.

2.1.4 Effects of colonialism on education in Zimbabwe before 1980

Before 1980, colonialism had an effect on the Zimbabwean education sector. Shizha & Kariwo (2011:14) advocate that formal education in colonial Zimbabwe was a creation and product of a foreign dominant culture. Shizha & Kariwo (2011:14) say that during that time, the foreign culture had a hegemonic effect on indigenous education systems, which was turned into a master narrative that was sought by every individual. The hegemonic culture, which had been forced on Zimbabweans, disrupted their values of learning that were essential in reflecting the social and cultural needs and expectations of the community (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011:14). The arrival of European colonialism in Zimbabwe, as elsewhere in Africa, led to the imposition of a European or colonial world view, which was largely responsible for the deliberate distortion of the traditional projects of education already in place (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011:14). The indigenous and comprehensive programmes of development that were achieved and put in place over hundreds of years also became disrupted by the colonial education (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011:14).

Shizha & Kariwo (2011:14) stipulate that colonial education dehumanised and assimilated Zimbabweans into the European lifestyles and values which were themselves a threat to the identity and self-perceptions of the indigenous people. Shizha & Kariwo (2011) further note that to a greater extent, colonial education led to psycho-cultural alienation and cultural domination. Based on cultural imperialism, Kariwo (2011:14) and Gweru (2015) agree that indigenous Zimbabweans were defined and portrayed as inferior to Europeans and were deliberately taught to despise their cultural identities and to internalise the racial stereotypes of the coloniser. This led them to lose *ubuntu* (state of being who you are), which is an important aspect of the life of an African, as Tutu (2013) further describes *ubuntu*. Waghid (2010b; 2010c) states that *ubuntu* should be present in education offered to Africans where they become what they should be and each individual enjoys human decency. Education should

make one have space for freedom and criticality, and never to be dominated. When there is *ubuntu*, Waghid (2010a) says, there is DCE versus oppressive colonial education.

Indigenous knowledge and identities do not to exist in a fixed site or space that can be removed from practice, performance, power, and processes (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). By attempting to acculturate or assimilate indigenous people, the settlers believed they were annihilating a static and fixed predisposition (Chakanyuka, 2015; Ndapewa, 2012; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). Shizha & Kariwo (2011:13) postulate that actually, because indigenous knowledge and identities are resilient, they continue to exist to date and elements of colonial education tend to surface even after claims of an independent Zimbabwe. Culture may be dynamic, but only in the sense of being adaptable and a continuing record of a society's achievements and an important element in sustaining resistance to foreign domination (Shizha & Kariwo (2011:14).

Shizha & Kariwo (2011:14–15) say:

European hegemony was and still is about the ways in which cultures are represented and constituted, about dominant and marginalised cultural narratives, defining the 'us' and 'them' identities. As Africans, we need to invent ways of rewriting or changing those dominant narratives and deconstruct white superiority and the misrepresentation of indigenous people and their cultures. Analysing the idea of assimilation is important when dealing with colonial education. Assimilation forces the colonised to conform to the culture.

Gweru (2015), who highlights the effect of colonialism on education, supports these writers. All these writers agree that, in order to comprehend fully and appreciate policies and challenges educational planners and administrators face, there is need to explore the history of education and how it shapes much of the post-colonial education system in Zimbabwe. Shizha & Kariwo (2011:13) argue that the problems that Zimbabwe faces in restructuring its education system are partly embedded in the colonial legacy. Shizha & Kariwo (2011:13) further acknowledge:

For nearly a century, when Zimbabwe was under colonial rule (1897-1980), the majority of indigenous people had no say in or influence on government policies and political decisions that affected the education system. Since indigenous people were oppressed and not politically empowered to make fundamental decisions affecting their education, it was easy to blame racism and imperialism as the main cause of the indigenous people's problems. Racial discrimination in colonial Zimbabwe was so ubiquitous that no African was allowed to enrol in whites-only schools.

Throughout colonial Zimbabwe, the education system was racially segregated and disproportionately funded (Pacho, 2017). For many years, the colonial government paid attention mainly to funding European education, while African education survived on grants-in-aid that were allocated to missionaries. African schools served the colonial system by providing a pool of cheap labour. Tirivangana (2014) cites Rodney (1982) stipulating that the educated Africans were the most alienated on the continent. Shizha & Kariwo (2011) indicate that:

At each further stage of education, they were battered and succumbed to the White capitalist, and after being given salaries, they could then afford (if ever they did) to sustain a style of life

imported from outside and that further transformed their mentality. The education system neither prepared indigenous Africans to take control of their social, cultural, and economic lives but did more than corrupt their thinking and sensibilities as Africans. In designing the school curriculum, the colonial policymakers did not make any effort to design an education system that harmonised the needs of different racial and ethnic groups in Zimbabwe.

According to Shizha & Kariwo (2011), Gweru (2015) and Sande (2018), the assumptions of the principle of African education were misleading. A large number of African people were not being schooled to contribute effectively to community development, but to serve colonial masters on their farms and in their factories, hence the emphasis on agricultural and industrial skills (Shizha & Kariwo 2011:18). The indigenous people who achieved minimal formal education were forced to leave their communities to go and labour for the colonial administrators, farmers, factory owners and on mines. Shizha & Kariwo (2011:19) argue that indigenous people resented strongly industrial training of a simplified kind intended to promote traditional African craftsmanship instead of concentrating on the acquisition of technical skills of a western industrialised nature. The policy was to deny the indigenous peoples' advancement into the modern industrial economy. Shizha & Kariwo (2011) advance that, consequently, Africans were denied advanced skills for self-sufficiency and self-determination in the new socio-economic order. Individuals who attended colonial schools were not exposed to practical knowledge that was appropriate for their community realities.

Shizha & Kariwo (2011:20) cite Zvobgo (1996) advocating that educating and training Africans for employment was not for the benefit of Africans in itself, but was to assist in the development of the economy that protected the European investments. On the other hand, all white students who were qualified to enter university could easily do so. The highly limited access to higher education was consistent with the colonial government's disinterest in African education and its fear of promoting competition for jobs between racial groups (Shizha & Kariwo 2011:21). Very few Africans who did their secondary education were given places for university education, thereby denying African students skills that would have led them to demand well-paying jobs. The so-called new education plan was meant to screen and limit the number of indigenous students who could get access to secondary education (Gweru, 2015; Shizha, 2006). There were bottlenecks throughout the education system, the most serious of which was the transition rate from primary to secondary education, which was fixed (Shizha & Kariwo 2011:22). The quality of education provided to black students, who were pushed towards vocational education, dampened their educational aspirations and restricted access to higher education.

Even at independence in 1980, there were biased practices that were inherent in the colonial education system before the independence of Zimbabwe. Many white people in colonial Zimbabwe believed that black people were intellectually inferior and that they were only suitable to carry out manual,

repetitive labour tasks, thus increasing the polarisation between racial groups. The politics of exclusion which was the philosophy behind colonial education, was the basis for educational reforms after political independence. It is therefore hardly surprising that colonial inequalities in educational provision among the different racial groups in colonial Zimbabwe influenced educational policies established by the new government from 1980. The need to address these imbalances in the education system formed the basis for the post-independence policies (Gweru, 2015; Sande, 2018; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011).

The government, as Shizha & Kariwo (2011), and Chipunza (2017) state, acknowledged that education was pivotal in bringing about economic, social and political change in Zimbabwe. According to Shizha & Kariwo (2011), education is believed to be a basic human right and fights ills in the society, for example, poverty. As will be shown in 2.1.5, the education reforms implemented after independence in Zimbabwe were meant to continue the fight against poverty. The main orientations of the reforms have been guided by the following policy principles: decolonisation of the system, abolition of the social structures, democratisation of access to education, localisation of the curricula and examinations, vocationalisation of the secondary school curriculum, promotion of socialism, and promotion of social transformation (Baylis, Smith, & Owens 2011).

2.1.5 Zimbabwean education system after independence in 1980

Zimbabwe is an African country that suffered a lot of pressure under colonialism for a long time and this affected its education system greatly (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011; Yaounde, 2018). At attaining independence in 1980, the country deliberately announced a policy of ‘education for all’ to solve the problem of the segregation of Africans in the colonised Zimbabwe. Presently, the ranking of African countries by the literacy rate, places Zimbabweans at number 1, because of the ‘education for all’ policy. According to the United Nations Development Programme, the latest literacy rate is 90-92%, as confirmed by World Factbook (2018) and Makou & Wilkinson (2018). Thirty-eight years down the line since the independence of 1980, the policymakers seem to have failed to move with the changing environment of the world of work. It sounds logical that low levels of literacy can impede the economic development of a country in the current rapidly changing technology-driven world. With this high level of literacy and numeracy, one wonders why the economic development in Zimbabwe is still going down. For me, it was a cause for concern; hence, the need to examine the relationship between education policy and student access to industry. Continued study is justified in order to find a match between graduates and the industry expectations.

The policy and curriculum designers seem not to have taken into consideration the transition of students to industry in tandem with the digital divide in the global village where we find ourselves (Chakaza, 2018; Mawere, 2013; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). There is an assumed missing link as the policies do not seem to favour students, but creates employees only, instead of also employers. Quality outcomes cannot be reaped from poor quality inputs. The poor policies that do not seem to favour students, therefore, cannot be expected to produce the results that the institutions intend to produce. Ultimately, the goal is to examine the gap between the curriculum designed for its products and the graduates' performance in industry. The link of transition from graduates to industry has been controlled through continuous policy and curriculum innovations and revision of strategic plans, but the gap still exists. Hence, the need for continued research. Most of the certificates, diploma and degree programmes have a component of industrial attachment designed to meet the industrialists' expectations (Chakaza, 2018; Mawere, 2013; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). During industrial attachment university students look for jobs in order to have a hands on experience for a particular period. The current study explored whether these expectations are being met. Possible thoughts and ideas that will influence policy designers to be proactive are generated in Chapter 6 of this study.

Since independence, the education system has faced challenges regarding knowledge of technology and information. This has posed challenges too in the training fields. The advancement in technology and organisational changes in workplaces demand higher level skills in information technology, problem solving and communication as viewed by Ndapewa (2012) in his theses on the Namibian system. According to my observations in Zimbabwe, there are the same problems as in Namibia, which are revealed in the lives of most graduates as confirmed by Guha (2018). The writers agree that graduates have no proper skills matching the demands of industry, especially after going through thorough preparations under the innovations of the curricula. Using a critical path analysis, a problem is identified in the current situation in the Zimbabwean HE system, where industry continues to receive mere graduated workers. In most cases, when the graduates qualify and find employment they do not display the skills as expected. The workplaces start to train the graduates from scratch. The assumption is that the training institutions as guided by curriculum policies (refined or renewed) should have trained the students enough to face the world of work. The graduates usually face unemployment or underemployment problems. Other problems that the graduates encounter in organisations range from shortage of resources, to unfair treatment by bosses, low salaries, and mismatch in job expectations, unemployment or underemployment and other problems in organisations. All the above sentiments are echoed by Shizha & Kariwo (2011), Mawere (2013) and Chakaza (2018). The problems become practical and urgently need to be addressed. Hence, my need to search for answers.

The study sought to add to the existing body of knowledge or proffer new knowledge. The effect on individual learners and graduates on how to prepare for education and training, gives insight into career development. The effect would be added at organisational level, to inform management of industries regarding the expectations and feelings of graduates concerning their careers, and at the societal level to support the development of all active partners. My objective in the current study was to partner with all stakeholders: parents, teachers, principals, civic educators, community advocates, business leaders, community agencies and general citizens. According to Shizha & Kariwo (2011), and Garwe (2014), transformation in higher education involves a process of new knowledge production, and reflexive action. This means new problems can be seen and new ways of approaching old problems imagined. The process is that of establishing the required and balanced change in the educational arena, establishing alternative solutions and implementing them, and evaluating the effectiveness and efficiency of solutions. The process I engaged in during this current study is also for bringing lasting change and is an administrative evaluation intended to address the broad policy concerns and then influence the policy development.

The problem of unemployment is the concern for policymakers knowing what policies should be put in place in the education and training process. The policies should aim at producing graduates that can satisfy the demands of industry. The recommendations should keep the government and other stakeholders thinking and making decisions on such matters for information and for influencing policy development. Consequently, the aim of the research examines the relationship between education policy and students' access to industry. The existing Zimbabwean HE system, policies, and programmes are described and evaluated for knowledge production in order to determine their effectiveness and any existing problems are identified. The processing issue is the problem of the failure of the efforts of previous education policy innovations to remove the struggles of industry, especially where the rate of unemployment is escalating and the country is still suffering and failing to satisfy both the graduates and industry's needs (Mawere, 2013; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011; UNDP, 2014; Zhou & Hardlife, 2012).

The unemployment of the educated leads to migration of the prospective workers who could work for their country with the skills attained after graduating from the various universities. It reduces the supply of vital professionals, and causes urgent domestic problems in families. This means that the curriculum for training graduates is transferred to prepare the other nationals in other countries. This means that even if a Zimbabwean graduates, get educated and trained in different professions, and go on to fail and get jobs in their own country, other countries stand to benefit as they may migrate to other countries. Zimbabwe will continue to export labour that benefits other countries through skills

gained from our universities. This leads to professionals in technical and education fields migrating internationally. Trained teachers, doctors, scientists, academics and engineers leave Zimbabwe and move to other countries, which end up reaping benefits from these educated professionals (Mawere, 2013; Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). This scenario can be considered as international migration.

Authors such as Zhou & Hardlife (2012), and Mawere (2013) have been involved in the research field that is based on two suggested solutions. Firstly, there is the expansion of formal systems with minor modifications in the curriculum, teaching methods and examinations while retaining some labour markets structures and education costing policies. Secondly, there is the reformation of the overall education system to modify conditions of demand for and supply of education chances as per real resource needs of the nation. The problem with the first solution, according to Guha (2018) and McGill (2018), is that there was an increasing rate of unemployment, poverty, inequality and international intellectual dominance. Whilst the second solution of reforming the overall education system might produce positive results, the process might not be possible for the country due to scarce resources and the economic meltdown (Guha, 2018; McGill, 2018). Zimbabwe is currently going through a difficult time trying to recover from these shortages of financial, physical and human resources and this has affected growth in the economy of the country. The scholars Mawere (2013) and Musingafi (2007) highlight that the government formulates education policies with the main objective to promote sustainable, productive and totally freely chosen decent employment for all. Providing 'Education for' all became a public policy in Zimbabwe and was deemed necessary for the improvement of human lives. The next stage would be looking at public policymaking in Zimbabwe, which is the second factor affecting education, training, and development.

2.1.6 Public policymaking in Zimbabwe examined – societal, economic and political changes in the Zimbabwean education system

The respondents during interviews also aired their concerns about Zimbabwean societal, economic and political instabilities. There seem to have arisen many changes in the political arena which has led to fears of people losing their jobs and uncertain work conditions. For this reason, I found it necessary to examine the issue of public policy. According to Zhou & Hardlife (2012), public policy can be defined using a three-decade perspective of societal, economic and political changes in Zimbabwe.

Public policy rests with government and is legally binding, results-driven and universal in its applications, as opposed to private policy. This means that a policy does not become a public policy until it is adopted by some government institution. The definitions imply that public policies are actions of a government in response to a known problem or set of problems that have arisen. Clearly,

public policies and government institutions are related and the political authorities make choices, communicate with and respond to citizen demands, and allocate and distribute resources in order to address problems. When policy problems arise in a particular system of a country, Mashaya & Tafirenyika (2017) see the need for examining situations that produce dissatisfaction with a wide spectrum of people and for which government redress is sought.

In order to solve these policy problems, public policies are designed as actions of a government and, of course, in response to a known problem, and the purpose will be to bring recommendations. The source of such problems can be at domestic/local or at an international level. At the domestic level, public policies help in the management of conflicts in order to meet different, and in most cases conflicting, interests of people. The conflicts that are likely to arise at domestic level are policies regarding land reform, defence, tax, labour, and investment. According to Zhou & Hardlife (2012), Shizha & Kariwo (2011) and Richardson, (2013), the spirit of policy decisions reflect the kind of socio-economic dynamics of the society. The writers use a three-decade perspective, and these three perspectives will be discussed in the following sections.

2.1.6.1 Educational and societal change – the first decade of independence

During the first decade of independence, policy decisions in the sectors of the economy were based on nation building (Richardson, 2013). This meant that the policies were intended to favour all the people (Richardson, 2013). The interventions were also for social welfare (Gibson, Thomson, Banas, Lutje, McKee, Martin, Fenton, Bamba & Bond, 2018). The process of policy formulation was centralised and decisions were made in a top-down approach instead of the government allowing the people to give input. According to Waghid (2010b:20) individuals at the implementation level desire to be free and equal moral beings with a sense of belonging meaning that they are committed to the task of education through accountability to the process. As democratic citizens their identity can be realised when their ideas and opinions where their ideas, opinions and inputs can be considered. The top-down approach hinders a free flow of ideas as it tends to cut out the bottom-up flow of ideas. Such thinking is reinforced by (Zhou & Hardlife, 2012) who argue that policy formulation and decision making it would also help to consider the ideas of the people that will be at the implementing levels. According to Richardson (2013), the policymaking experiences in Africa during the first stages of independence were largely influenced by the nationalist agendas of nation-building and economic growth. The first policy was that of reconciliation after the 1980 independence in order to build peace and equality among races. Then Prime Minister Mugabe in 1980 agreed to this plan with his government announcing that there was a need for space for everyone, a sense of security for both the winners and the losers thus encouraging forgiveness and forgetting of the suffering that Africans

experienced during the colonial period (Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). According to Machakanja (2010); Goredema (2014) and Murambadoro (2015) the policy of National Healing and Reconciliation helped to restore a good relationship between black people and former Rhodesian white people, and between the political groups, Zimbabwe African National Union Patriotic Front (ZANU PF) and Zimbabwe African People's Union Patriotic Front (ZAPU PF). This was followed by the signing of the December 1987 unity accord between ZAPU PF and ZANU PF in order to reconcile the different groups. The agenda of the policy was to bring healing to Zimbabweans and also to enable Zimbabweans to take actions that will bring a break from hurts in the past. For example, the introduction of 'education for all' policy helped to provide opportunities for all Zimbabweans to go to school irrespective of age (Machakanja, 2010; Zhou & Hardlife, 2012).

According to Zhou & Hardlife (2012), the reconciliation process was not complete, since the policy did not seem to cover some minority groups like the Tonga in Kariba, some of the Ndebele around Matabeleland, and the Ndaus in south-eastern Zimbabwe. These groups still seem to be forgotten in the national unity agenda, because of a lack of consultation in the process (Murambadoro, 2015; Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). Secondly, a 'growth with equity' policy was formed to achieve sustainable development as reported in Millennium Development Goal 2 (2009) (Mapuva, 2015) through the expansion of rural infrastructure in order to redress the social and economic inequalities by means of the land resettlement programme (Matondi, 2012). The positive returns of this policy were seen clearly in the education and health sectors, where access to public services, resource allocation, and distribution was made available to all races as a result of the reconciliation policy (Gweru, 2015; Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). Third, was the introduction of the education policy (commonly referred to as the 'education for all' policy). The new education policy was based on the 1980 election manifesto of the ruling party, ZANU PF and the policy was formed in 1980 (Zhou & Hardlife, 2012).

The major focus was on education having an important role in transforming society. Education became a basic human right and every child was given an opportunity to develop mentally, physically and emotionally as expressed in the ZANU PF Election Manifesto of 1980 (Mwanaka, 2015). Although this was a good policy, the country was faced with a financial, human and material burden. The state was financially not yet ready for the massive, and ambitious, but unrealistic, project of free 'education for all' primary and secondary children, since it was just at the early stages of independence. The government had many priorities that were competing with education. For example, people had to resettle as a result of the war. Agriculture, health, defence, telecommunications, and many issues needed attention. The effect of the 'education for all' policy resulted in a massive

expansion of the educational institutions and this had both positive and negative effects, as evidenced in the writings of Mawere (2013), Gweru (2015) and Guha (2018).

The health for all policy in 1980 was introduced alongside the ‘education for all’ policy after independence (Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). When it came to health issues and resources, during the colonial period, the allocations and distributions were not fair to black people than to white settlers (Gweru, 2015; Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). For the reason of unfairness, when independence was obtained in 1980, most black people had little access to health resources. Gweru (2015) and Zhou & Hardlife (2012) confirm that during the colonial period, good urban hospitals served more white people than black people and rural primary and secondary schools had less publicly funded health services, compared to urban areas with many white people. Africans in both rural and urban areas did not have medical aid. In order to redress this problem, the Ministry of Health adopted a policy of equity in health (Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). Health centres, such as clinics, and hospitals across the country, in both rural and urban areas, were established. Whilst this was a good move, resources were scarce, and the country could not achieve the expected results as it was still struggling with nation-building and education issues. The struggles with the health issues affected the education sector. The healthier a child is, the better he/she can perform at school. The results are shown by Van der Noordt, et al., (2014) in their study, which reveals that employment is beneficial for health, especially for preventing depression and for maintaining general good mental health. The high rate of unemployment has great effects on the health sector. In order to fill the knowledge gap, there is a need for further research on the effects of employment on specific physical health effects and mortality. Therefore, health issues should not be divorced from the education sector.

2.1.6.2 Education and economic change – the second decade of independence

In the second decade during the economic crisis, policy interventions were based on local ownership and social acceptance (Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). Economic Structural Adjustment Programmes (ESAPs) were implemented in order to solve the economic crises of 1980 (Zhou & Hardlife 2012). There was policy implementation under protest (Murambadoro, 2015). The programmes involved reducing government expenditure by retrenching civil servants and withdrawing some subsidies. However, Zimbabwe still experienced side effects that had negative effects on the country and the education sector was affected. The side effects were a high budget deficit, high inflation levels, and a failure to meet set targets for the economy (Mawere, 2013; Richardson, 2013; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011).

In order to overcome the weaknesses and shortcomings of ESAP, the Zimbabwean programme for economic and social transformation (ZIMPREST) was launched in 1998 (Zhou & Hardlife 2012). The purpose was to stabilise the economy, alleviate poverty, encourage public and private savings and investment, eradicate poverty and create employment and entrepreneurship opportunities. Like ESAP, ZIMPREST also had side effects. The programme was implemented at the wrong time, as there were shortages of resources (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). This affected the industries as they could not pay their workers well, the budget deficit was low and the inflation was high and as result the unemployment rate rapidly increased (Millennium Development Goals (MDGs) 2009 in Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). The export sector was collapsing. There was a lack of international financial support to fund the too ambitious programmes that were to be implemented. The goals were unrealistic, and therefore, could not be achieved easily. These goals were not clearly budgeted for (Guha, 2018; Kariwo, 2011; Richardson, 2013).

2.1.6.3 Education and political change – the third decade of independence

The third-decade policies were mainly based on social, political, and economic conditions with decisions made hurriedly and for short-term purposes. The new party, Movement for Democratic Change (MDC) emerged and threatened the ruling party, ZANU PF, politically in the elections at the local, parliamentary and presidential levels for the first time since independence. The land reform of the government was fast-tracked and the comments from within and outside the country meant that the processes were driven by political motives of expediency and survival (Kanyenze, Kondo, Chitambara & Martensno, 2011; Makoshori, 2017; Raftopoulos & Savage, 2009). In 2005, the government embarked on the controversial *murambatsvina* ('cleaning programme') in order to destroy all unregistered residential settlements in urban areas (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). There was a tense and emotional political climate and it resulted in regressive policies and the accompanying restrictive legislation that the nation had to date under the Public Order and Security Act (POSA) and Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act (AIPPA) (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). Economically, the country faced an acute shortage of basic commodities like maize, drugs, fuel, electricity and foreign currency. There was constant hyperinflation year after year, with the rate of 7 982% in September, 2007 (Millennium Development Goal 2 2009 in Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). There were new education policies that were formulated during this period with the aim of redressing the challenges.

There was a plan to put into place a policy that empowers the black people and to afford them a chance to be involved in the national economy by owning businesses and involvement in the corporate sector (Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). The indigenous Zimbabweans were empowered to acquire shares in businesses and have business partnerships. Zimbabweans, nevertheless, resisted this policy,

as they wondered how money for the funding was going to be mobilised, what the criteria for assessing these funds were, and how it would be implemented in order to benefit people (Chakaza, 2018; Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). The information that has been highlighted above on public policymaking in Zimbabwe gives background information to help readers understand how the key policy in the discussion, ‘education for all’, was made and how it relates to other policies.

2.1.6.4 The African approach to HE

Muriisa (2014:71) asserts that universities are at the heart and stand at the apex of higher education; they are rightly regarded as drivers of development. Universities were established in essence to aid the African countries to build up their capacity to develop and manage their resources, alleviate the poverty of the majority of the people and close the gap between them and the developed world (Sawyer, 2004: 2). Sharma (2014) concurs that, around the world the number of graduates is increasing, yet the ‘skills mismatch’ is also rising. A degree is no longer a guarantee for a good job, and fingers are being pointed at universities for failing to better prepare students for the real world and the expectations of employers (Sharma, 2014). African countries emerging out of colonialism were faced with the reality that Africa could not afford lower standards in a competitive world environment if it wanted to create employment and improve the quality of life of the African people. African nations have used education to inculcate knowledge, skills and attitudes considered useful and desirable into citizens with the view to reducing poverty through economic mobility (Asabere-Ameyow et al., 2014:81). Majoni (2014:20) affirms that HE in Zimbabwe faces challenges which include dropouts, high tuition and accommodation fees, under funding, staff shortages and economic decline, foreign currency shortages, hyper- inflation, and large public debt.

Statistics on education over the years have become a requisite tool of measuring human and societal development in relation to the different aspects of a nation’s well-being. It is, therefore, important to produce timely and reliable statistics on education in order to evaluate the impact of investment put into the development of education, both by the government and other stakeholders (Dzinotizei, 2013). The phenomenon of unemployment and/or underemployment of university graduates, secondary school and tertiary education graduates is a clear sign that education system in Zimbabwe has expanded ahead of the economy. This reflects a huge cost to society from inefficient investments in education. However, attempts seem to have been made since 1999 to produce employable graduates by shifting the budget towards tertiary education, which focuses on developing skills in key sectors and equip the population to generate own employment through income generating projects (Masuko, 2003:22). Another achievement was the separation of the ministry responsible for education into two with one dealing with higher education and the other focusing on primary and secondary education

(Riside, 2019). The approach of separating the education ministries into two (for schools and for HEIs) helps in auditing the national skills and it builds and points out what skills to impart at what level in the students' quest for skills training. The process of critical skills audit has helped in identifying skills, gaps, shortages and emerging technological trends. At the end of the audit process the recommendations on critical skills that are required seemed to require a new focus on training and research and planning for the future (NCSA, 2018). The focus is to have Zimbabwe being a middle income country by 2030. The skills audit process was based on critical skills required by the economy as grouped into six skills clusters (NCSA, 2018:8). The assessment revealed critical skills deficits as in the Table 2.1 below:

Table 2.1 Summary of the critical skills audit

Number	Sector	Availability	Surplus/deficit
1.	Engineering and Technology	6.43%	-93.57%
2.	Natural and Applied Sciences	3.09%	-96.91%
3.	Business and Commerce	121%	21%
4.	Agriculture	12%	-88%
5.	Medical and Health Sciences	5%	-95%
6.	Applied Arts and Humanities	82%	-18%

Adopted from NCSA (2018:9)

According to Table 2.1 skills 1-2 and 4-6 are STEM skills (Engineering and Technology, Natural and Applied Sciences, Agriculture, Medical and Health Sciences, and Applied Arts and Humanities) and have the highest deficit. That is why there is need for more education and training in these skills in order to overcome the deficit. However, Business and Commerce skills have available skills of 121% recording a surplus of 21%. The Applied Arts and Humanities have a modest deficit 18%. These results imply that if Zimbabwe has to have a middle income economy by 2030, the focus has to be on skills training that are required which is what I also recommend in my study. The focus should be on the development of curriculum reforms and education programmes that balance teaching and learning, research and community service and development of critical skills. The focus should be anchored on achieving the vision of industrialization and modernization which is the agenda of the country (NCSA, 2018:9).

The review of the Nziramasanga Presidential Commission of Enquiry into Education and Training (1999) created a shift in the national skills complement, therefore, creating greater need for the audit

of the skills. It is important to audit skills in the country in order to catch up with knowledge economy. Wilson (2006) defines skills audit as a process of measuring and recording the skills of individuals or groups of employees as well as the skills needed by an organization, both at the present time and in the future. The process of skills audit is recommended to continue since skills are crucial for economic growth, achieve the vision of industrialization and modernization which is the agenda of the country. For education to be relevant to national development, it should be supported by available skills. Zimbabwe needs to develop crucial skills through the reformation of the curriculum in HEIs (NCSA, 2018). Zimbabwe is facing serious economic challenges, for example, economic sanctions, corruption, brain drain, retrenchments, etc. And this results in decline of formal employment, hence, the need for a continuous national audit of skills (NCSA, 2018). The main skills challenge in Zimbabwe is related to the gap between what the HEIs produce and what the industry needs in terms of the technical and soft skills (NCSA, 2018:84).

Universities are complex HE spaces that are mandated to build around them industrial and innovation hubs where multiple knowledge is cultivated and multiple disciplines are allowed to thrive. The government of Zimbabwe is promising to be responsible for providing the machinery and finances in order to assist the universities to be industrial and innovation hubs (university towns/cities). According to Mashininga (2018) the call for university towns follows a national budgetary allocation for the construction amounting to US\$ 21 million. University of Zimbabwe (UZ) has already announced plans to construct a “Uni-City” — a university town that will be dominated by its university population (Zimbabwe Situation, 2019). The industrial hub will be first of its kind in Zimbabwe. This ambitious plan has been approved by authorities to allow development to take place and take advantage of the open space and recreational activities. The Uni-City will be large with several smaller institutions clustered, for example, residential apartments, shopping malls and many businesses designed to cater primarily for the university’s student population. to build a shopping mall. The approach is to be innovative and to industrialise in order to deliver relevant goods and services in the country (Mashininga, 2018). This is a call for all stakeholders to be relevant in the new education dispensation.

2.1.7 Summary of 2.1

In this section, the factors that affect education, training, and development in Zimbabwe have been discussed. The other issues had to do with a review of the Zimbabwean education system during the colonial period and after the independence of 1980. The public policymaking issue was also discussed in detail. According to the discussions, there is a positive association between policy, graduate performance, employability, and industry, whilst also suggesting that academic performance is a good

indicator of the likelihood of employment. The next section discusses the effects of democracy in university education in Zimbabwe on employability.

2.2 DCE and its effects on employability

This section outlines some of the insights of researchers regarding the connection between graduation and work in an industry. The focus is on reviewing democratic activities in university education before and after independence, and the effects on employment issues. Several changes have transpired in the country since independence. The education reforms that continued since independence in 1980 up to the present are further discussed, emphasising how they can bring about economic change. Much emphasis is put on the function of universities and their involvement as stakeholders. This is considered a democratic activity in education, expected to bring about lasting change in the economy of the country. This section seeks to determine whether the introduction of democracy in Zimbabwean education has caused a positive or negative relationship between graduation and employment.

2.2.1 DCE

In DCE students have the freedom and disposition and skill to engage in free deliberations and criticisms (Waghid, 2011:17). Waghid (2014:1) sees the intelligence in students and encourages teachers to initiate activities on account of their authority but also to assist students to mutually engage with each other and their teachers. DCE is deliberate engagement, compassionate imagining and connection with others through ubuntu (human decency and collective engagement) (Waghid, 2010b:14). Forgiveness and respect are pre-conditions of DCE (Waghid, 2010b:14). People need to respect each other so as to engage with one another. They need to forgive each other in order to be able to engage in deliberations with each other and be compassionate as friends. The respect and forgiveness would open up for DCE and this would give no room for violence. Even conflicting groups would begin to be peaceful and united in DCE (Waghid, 2010b).

In DCE there is active participation and belonging in order to form engagements with one another. Here people are free as equal beings in dialogue and can influence each other. They belong and are committed to the task of education. DCE is a process of education where people become democratic citizens with a collective identity where spaces are created (Waghid, 2010b:21). These spaces are for sharing, learning to live with each other, for dialogue and having things in common. In cases where there are disagreements, the spaces help individuals to respect their differences. Quinn (2010:34) confirms that the creation of spaces for forgiveness, healing and fellowship provide a curriculum of refuge through peace. Where there are spaces for the refuge and peace, individuals get saved from violence and are able to forgive the unforgivable (Quinn, 2010). The atmosphere for educating people

to become democratic citizens is created and people become aware of their political participation. People are educated to accept that they cannot be excluded from certain positions and have the right to be heard and can participate in their society (Quinn, 2010).

Zimbabwe made great efforts to attain DCE since independence of 1980 by affording all citizens to have access to education at all levels; primary, secondary and HE. However, in all efforts of attaining democracy with the intentions to combat social ills and injustices, Zimbabwe has since been facing great challenges. The challenges have been amongst all, poverty and inequalities of opportunity in the society. Inequality is shown through lack of access of resources. There has been great expenditure on education and massive graduates have been produced but would not be absorbed in the industry. Generally people need education that includes all sections of people enabling students, parents, teachers and workers to participate in the formulation of a new education system that can help produce democratic individuals and can participate actively in solving the challenges faced (Waghid, 2010b). Hess (2010) also agrees that the role of universities is for creating spaces for individuals to engage and connect with each other. The individuals will learn to take risks and offer chances for a better future and develop a democratic society versus the creation of inequalities of opportunity amongst the students. Hess (2010) recommends that public education should continue to provide opportunity for both the privileged and less privileged to avoid the creation of inequalities.

2.2.2 What is democracy?

Democracy is a system, sphere for debates and a set of general principles. Democracy is a representative system of political decision-making and a sphere for social and political life in which people enjoy equal opportunities and are engaged in self-development, self-fulfilment and self-determination (Waghid, 2014). The process of democracy involves collective deliberations that concern the whole of the community that are taken not directly by its members, but by people elected for a purpose (Waghid, 2014). Democracy can be a representative form of government whereby decision-making is restricted to elected representatives and electors having voted without participating any further. Democracy is also seen as a representative system of government involved in political decision-making that affects sectors of the country including the education sector. It is also described as a sphere of social relationships, undermines class distinctions and advocates equality of opportunity and intelligence for all citizens (Waghid, 2014). The aim will be to ensure that citizens participate on the grounds of equality and liberty and have the right to control their own lives, are competent people directly participating in economic, political and social life and no one remains unheard (Waghid, 2014:15). All individuals are given a chance to participate and can learn to make

informed choices. Individuals in society can maximise their participation. Strong democracy as an instance where people pool their resources and find the common will to undertake common tasks can be observed. Space needs to be created in order for strong democracy to be created (Waghid, 2010c). In a democratic society individuals can have freedom to act, speak, think, deliberate, vote and criticise.

2.2.3. University education before the independence of 1980

According to many writers, there seems to be not much to say about democratic university education during the colonial period, as study reveals that there were many discrepancies in education (Garwe, 2014). Education before independence was only for the white minority, whilst the black majority had to work on farms and in mines. According to Garwe (2014), the complexity of the education system, which was run on a racial basis with a colonial system that divided education along racial lines (Maylette & Wride, 2017; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). Waghid & Davids (2013a) feel that the Zimbabwean traditional knowledge and educational goals should be concerned with the development of the whole person. However, when looking at the educational goals before independence, these goals were only focused on the white minority, and in the process affected the black majority. Shizha & Kariwo (2011) and Zhou & Hardlife (2012) claim that in order to control the locals, the colonial government limited education and censored knowledge in schools.

According to Shizha & Kariwo (2011:19), the policy was to deny the indigenous peoples' advancement into the modern industrial economy, which was the domain of the European settlers. Therefore, Africans were denied advanced skills for self-sufficiency and self-determination in the new socio-economic order (Mapako & Mareva, 2013). Individuals who attended colonial schools were not exposed to practical knowledge that was appropriate for their community realities (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). According to Mapako & Mareva (2013), the Eurocentric education system was a structural institution that reinforced the superiority of white settlers, even though they were the minority. For example, missionary schools perpetuated social and economic repression of the indigenous population by reducing their chances of getting well-paying jobs or positions of power through offering limited education and basic skills to exploit labour (Shizha & Kariwo 2011). Europeans were offered disproportionately more educational resources than the majority black population, because the colonial government controlled entry to quality schools based on race and socio-economic status (Shizha & Kariwo 2011).

In his article, Msila (2013) investigates the struggle for democratic education in South Africa and provides a review of relevant literature that unveils how democracy in education serves the majority

of (black) South Africans. This study presented a great opportunity to scrutinise the matters that had an effect on the education status of the black Africans. Msila (2013) explores a few aspects, namely post-apartheid educational opportunities, views of other authors on post-independence politics, as well as issues of power before the conclusion which links these to poverty in South Africa. In his research, Msila (2013) continues to allude to the fact that black Africans became inferior and poorer and looked upon the coloniser as their providers. All these ills reveal the disadvantages of the democratic laws of the white minority on the black majority. From the discussion above, it is clear that under the apartheid education system, learners' challenges had to do with inequality regarding access to education. Learners were also deprived of the provision to resources of most learners (Msila, 2013).

2.2.4. University education reforms after the independence of 1980

Changes in education started to take place after independence. During the period of 1980 to the 1990s changes were experienced both in education and the employment sector. UsapGlobal (2008) narrates the education history of Zimbabwe, putting forward that:

Zimbabwe gained its independence from colonial rule in April 1980, a great number of her people were deprived of opportunities and facilities for quality secondary schooling, only a few managed to finish primary schooling whilst some attained a few years for the primary. ... Zimbabwe ... has witnessed incredible strides in school expansion, teacher training, and resource improvement. As a result, Zimbabwe continues to boast the highest literacy rate in sub-Saharan Africa and sends the fourth-largest number of students from Africa to the United States. There remain, however, significant discrepancies between educational opportunities for Zimbabwe's rural majority and for those who live in the main urban centres...

Machanyuka (2016) quotes Makumbe (2009), affirming that it is commonly agreed in Zimbabwe that the nation has moved several steps backward since 2000 in terms of the democratisation process, as Makumbe (2009) declares. In his paper, he provides light on some of the actions that were driving forces towards this state, and tells of the events that led to the present socio-economic condition in the country. This study reveals a massive decline in industries, factories, and farms. Education, therefore, became a source of distrust and risk, versus expected democracy and trust. Individuals would wonder if they should risk getting to university. Most individuals would prefer to risk growing backyard markets and/or leave the country (Guha, 2018; Mashaya & Tafirenyika, 2017). They would consequently be prepared to face risks of encountering dangers and consequences associated with brain drain. Clearly, the two sets of risks would be: firstly, the country having individuals that are produced by industry in conjunction with science. Secondly, it would be individuals affected by poverty and living in underdeveloped circumstances. After the independence of 1980 in Zimbabwe, it is, however, clear that new policies were introduced to redress the past. Chikoko (2008) reveals that in 1980, education was declared a basic human right by the government under Mugabe, the then leader of the ZANU PF party, which changed the constitution to recognise primary and secondary public

education as free and compulsory. This was aimed at benefiting the black majority, looking at the laws that governed education in the times before independence. After independence, a lot changed in the education system when black people took over the reins. There were new laws that governed education and these allowed free 'education for all' (Zhou & Hardlife, 2012).

In 1980, according to Matereke (2012) and Makoshori (2017) ZANU PF, took power from the minority whites, colonial government through the national election. Mpondi (2004) propounds that ZANU PF democratised education by promising free and compulsory primary and secondary education to all children in Zimbabwe, because the government recognised education as a basic human right. According to the research of Goronga (2014), teachers were in high demand following the independence of Zimbabwe. Many children attended public schools and many teachers were a necessity. The mandate of schools was to make sure education was for all, although the infrastructure could not accommodate everyone. In order to alleviate this arisen challenge, double-session schooling was implemented, which meant the school had to offer a group of morning classes and another group of afternoon lessons. Yet, it was not enough for the school system. Therefore, the Ministry of Education expanded teacher education colleges rapidly, by providing on-the-spot teacher training. Following the exponentially increased number of students attending school, there arose a great need for more infrastructure and teachers in order to ensure that democratic education was structured. It could have taken some time for reforms to improve the situation (Pacho, 2017).

Regardless of the process to increase education opportunities, Goronga (2014) and Guha (2018) indicate that the demand for education was still greater than the supply. Inequalities in education, unavailability of teachers, and infrastructural pressure became the order of the day. The current education system still faces capacity challenges, such as double session schooling, shared and overcrowded classrooms which permit many learners to be present at school, but learners are given less attention and time to learn. These measures reduce the amount of time each learner is in the classroom, affecting their overall access to education and development. One can conclude that the quality of education is affected by the absence of qualified teachers in secondary schools Goronga (2014). Access to education in rural areas becomes worrisome considering the shortage of teachers due to unfavourable working conditions and low compensation (Guha, 2018). From my experience as a teacher, I noticed that many teachers in rural areas lack training due to the high demand for labour and little concern for quality (Guha, 2018). Teaching materials are also being allocated less than one percent of the federal budget for education (Guha, 2018). The lack of trained teachers and other personnel had a great impact on the quality of education. This also affected the employment sector

since skills are important (Sande, 2018). The effect of the crisis includes the brain drain of human resources.

One remembers that in 2009, the establishment of the Government of National Unity (GNU) was fully engaged and it endorsed the dollarisation of the national economy which curbed the effects of hyperinflation and the informal economy (Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). Civil servants, including teachers, were paid in some United States dollars. Teachers who had relocated to other countries were encouraged to re-enter the profession and move back to Zimbabwe. However, thousands of Zimbabweans never returned to the country and found higher paying positions elsewhere (UNICEF, Zimbabwe, 2011). Moyo (2014) says that education in Zimbabwe improved since 1980, and had ambitions to provide free and universal education to all children through the Zimbabwean Education Act. However, tuition fees and education costs had accumulated over time (Moyo, 2014). As a result, the number of people who were able to graduate was reduced. In addition, the accumulation of costs of tertiary education could reduce the number of people who were able to graduate, as well as those who could be employed. It is also evident that most of the black population ended up being employed on farms and in mines as opposed to being employed in other industries where white people mostly worked as before independence. Many families could not afford tuition fees, despite education subsidies (Makoshori, 2017, Mapako & Mareva, 2013), since additional payment was required for transportation, buildings, uniforms, exam fees, levies and stationery for children. With this being the case in Zimbabwe, education cannot be free as government expenditures focused on infrastructure for education and the effect of the global economic crisis (Zhou & Hardlife, 2012).

Garwe (2014) says that tertiary education was first introduced to Zimbabwe in 1957 by the University College of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, now known as the University of Zimbabwe. Records reveal that enrolments in the University of Zimbabwe increased as years went by. One of the MDGs of Zimbabwe, was to achieve universal 'education for all' students (Wenceslas, 2016). However, the goal was not achieved by 2015, due to a public health crisis, the economic downturn and inability to afford costs associated with education (Burke, 2018). The country is currently working towards the Sustainable Development Goal of providing universal and free education to all students by 2030 (SDG [Sustainable Development Goals], 2015). Due to large investments in education (Shizha & Kariwo 2011), Zimbabwe still has the highest literacy rate in Africa and according to Makou & Wilkinson (2018) as mentioned in 1.2 the literacy rate is 90%.

The Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education (ZIMCHE) was formed in 2006 as a measure to guarantee quality and accreditation for university education. In 2012, there were fifteen registered

universities (nine public and five private), fifteen teachers' colleges, eight polytechnics, and two industrial training colleges (Garwe 2014). At the time of this study, there were twenty universities in Zimbabwe (Pindula, 2018). Bentley (2018) explains the exploration of ideas for reforming higher education in Australia, and reveals that the ministry for education and training tries to boost the employment prospects of graduates and offer high value for taxpayers. It is quite difficult to boost the employment prospects of graduates because accelerating digital change is a major challenge (Together we thrive, 2018). Half of the current work activities are automated using existing technology (Together we thrive, 2018). Jobs may increase, but the workers need new skills. Universities can change their curricula, but if businesses are not keeping up with the technology, graduates will be prepared for jobs of the future, not the jobs on offer currently (Bentley, 2018). The same scenario as in Australia is what can be currently observed in Zimbabwe. This poses a threat to DCE in university education.

Zimbabwean university education has been for a long time expected to have a better skilled and competitive labour force which would give the country competitive opportunities for the globalised market economy. University education has become an expensive and marketable commodity which mostly the economically privileged can access (Krugell, 2014). The disadvantaged have difficulty in attaining higher qualifications. Tuition becomes unaffordable and there is a reduction of state financial aid for students leading to the government encouraging borrowing more than ever before to pay for university education (Krugell, 2014). The increase in tuition fees has been imposed during the times of harsh economic conditions. For those who have managed to get university education and graduate, the majority have not managed to get jobs. This has led to a rise in unemployment, leading to an increase in poverty and human suffering (Dube, 2018). The main benefits of university education have become private since levying of fees is on an individual. The universities seem to have become business enterprises. Universities compete with one another in producing and marketing their courses to students, who are seen as customers that engage with the HE market (Dube, 2018).

University education in Zimbabwe has a responsibility to advocate for and cultivate democratic action, as observed by Waghid (2010b) for South African education. Effort of Zimbabwe was recognised through the introduction of education policies as from 1980 independence (Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). These policies were intended to redress the inequalities and imbalances in education. The policies were intended to introduce democratic education as opposed to the experiences during the colonial period. 'Education for all' was a major policy that was introduced, and it has been functional in the Zimbabwean education system until now, where all individuals have access to education at all levels, from infancy to university education. The democratic aspect promoted here is

one of equality of opportunity in education. Other aspects of democratic universal education in Zimbabwe are quality, equity, access and relevance as highlighted by (Waghid & Davids, 2018).

During the colonial period, Africans had unequal opportunities, compared to their white counterparts. Education was racial at all levels and favoured the white race, and this affected the access, equity and relevance issues. Africans had no access to quality education whilst white people benefited by receiving a quality education as they attended superior, schools and colleges (Kariwo, 2011). Post-colonial efforts to bring education to all Africans made education become a basic right. Kariwo (2011) and Gweru (2015) describe this as democratic education where unequal opportunities were removed. In support of the efforts to redress colonial education problems, there existed the redress of the situation as the provision of equality of opportunity and quality of education was finally provided to Africans, which is an improvement and development of the process of change. The process of becoming an education that involves the issue of caring, being critical in reasoning and deliberation was the core for Waghid (2014). He emphasises that students and teachers, or educators, learn from each other in order to become stronger without being threatened. The students and educators end up disrupting the usual distrust and criticism of the education system which learners see as not relevant enough to make them employable graduates or job creators. This view is supported by Peters & Roberts (2012), who indicate that it is important to have education that produces democratic individuals who are friendly, open and free to participate in the affairs of their country, those who are transparent, social and able to tackle issues amicably. The democratic individuals would be involved in what Waghid (2014) calls friendship politics in agreement with Peters & Roberts' (2012) view of friendship. In order to maintain this friendship, quality education should be maintained as will be discussed in the next section. This discussion in 2.2.3 called for a re-visitation of the concept of whether the education offered was quality education or not. The next topic is, therefore, an examination of quality education.

2.2.5. Quality education revisited

The term 'quality' can be elusive and subjective. It is difficult to achieve since it is based on personal feelings, tastes, or opinions. The definition, according to Mawere (2013) is controversial, but, there is no one absolute meaning for the term. Some take it to mean high achievement in standard tests, completion of learning programmes, low dropout, and repetition rates. Other scholars, like Campher (2012), Courtney (2008) and Lowden et al. (2011), state that quality points toward meeting set standards and indicators, namely adequate inputs, the process, outputs, and outcomes. In schools, quality is measured in terms of achievement that is a distinctive output or scores in standard tests, completion of the learning programme, low dropout and repetition rates. These are only measurable

outputs of other indicators determining quality in the learning and teaching process. According to Mazise (2011), factors determining quality are supporting inputs from parents, communities and the education system, the school climate, and teaching and learning processes which involve learning and teaching time, and the student outcomes. However, higher education can produce both public and private benefits. The private benefits include better employment prospects, higher salaries, and a greater ability to save and invest than without such an education. The benefits may also result in better health and improved quality of life. Public benefits may promote technological and economic growth and the improvement of a country (Lowden et al., 2011; Mawere, 2013; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011).

Zimbabwe, as one of the African countries, may hasten technological diffusion, which would decrease knowledge gaps and help reduce poverty in the region. Zimbabwe has put in place advanced policies to support tertiary education systems. Nevertheless, the development is incomplete compared to the development other regions of the world. This being the case, inadequate understanding of the positive effects that higher education can have on economic development, could be the cause. The quality of education is measured and determined by students' satisfaction, continued improvements in existing standards and through this, the students can be retained in education institutions. When institutions offer quality service in educating the students, in turn, the students can choose their courses freely and the course providers will not have to struggle to market their courses. The universities do not communicate to graduates about what would happen to them concerning the issue of employment. As posited by Gupta & Verhoeven (2001) and Hodge (2009) Zimbabwe, like South Africa, shares the same experience of high levels of unemployment. The universities and other educational institutions have made an effort to produce what can be viewed as quality education in terms of content.

According to Slamati (2012), service quality is determined by the extent to which students' needs and expectations are satisfied. The students, however, expect from the services more than what the services can offer (Mazise, 2011; Amadeo, 2018). There is a strong need for educational planning starting with a consultation at the recipients of the service. Although Zimbabwe is known for achieving universal education within the first decade of its independence, the quality of education declined since the 1990s alongside the expansion of education. For instance, during the expansion period, Zimbabwe churned between 280 000 and 300 000 secondary school pupils where some would be absorbed in colleges and others in tertiary institutions (Mazambani, 2016; Narman, 2003). Many in this category dropped out, increasing the un-employability levels. This approach demanded a slowing pace in enrolments, re-planning and reviewing the policy for universal 'education for all' (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011).

However, the policy of universal primary education remains invaluable, but the problem is to find the

means to overcome the challenges regarding the decline of quality. The implication is that quality education is not discriminatory, it is democratic by opening up to public debate for people's contribution to policy formulation and that results in people-oriented curricula. This boils down to say that the quality of education refers to fitness for purpose, defined by the customers of the service and the providers in a given context, time and space (Shoko, 2010). This is alluded to by Courtney (2008), Shoko (2010), and Mazise (2011) in their studies. Although the provision of education to all people was a global notion, the decline of quality manifested in low pass rates, high dropout rates, and underdeveloped skills (Wenceslas, 2016). The learners would leave schools still unable to read and write and not ready for self-employment or being employed (Shoko, 2010 cited in Wenceslas, 2016). The fall of quality in education turns out to be a worldwide problem, working against the United Nations movement for universal primary education, aimed at achieving 'education for all', according to Shoko (2010) cited in Wenceslas (2016). All stakeholders in higher education, in particular universities, should engage in reasoning together to become contributors, to consider policies that redress issues of employability. As the stake holders are reasoning together, production of quality education can be an achievable goal (Waghid & Davids, 2018:199-220).

2.2.6. Engagement and purpose of universities revisited

Universities are viewed as centres of critical learning. Murwira (2018) advocates for the training of science teachers in colleges and at universities for students. He emphasised this in his speech at a press conference for the chancellor of all state universities and president of Zimbabwe with the universities' senior leadership and students. During the same conference, Mnangagwa (2018) said that universities must be torchbearers for the industrialised growing economy. He encouraged universities to be establishers of academic synergies with industries in order to accelerate economic revival. Universities should act as technology incubation centres where innovation is the key activity. The question that can be raised here is whether the education system of Zimbabwe has done enough to provide solutions and whether universities have pursued industrialisation and economic growth. A concerted effort is called for. The students should be protected, promoted and helped to preserve societal values. Innovation and acceptance of change are key, and citizens should be open to new ideas in order to bring improvement in the education area to produce employable individuals. Partners are invited into the country in order to blend wisdom of the academic and common people through the 'Zimbabwe is open for business' policy (Mnangagwa, 2018). Individuals will be encouraged to be innovative, bring knowledge and expertise to the universities and thus produce a skilled workforce.

All HE stakeholders need to redress the issue of policy as important on their agendas. It should be a priority to talk about policies. What would matter most in this policy agenda, would be to consider

issues of economic stability, empowerment and reviews of democracy in these policies. There is a need for discussion of education policies which view education as a process of socialisation and individualisation. In socialisation, issues such as a lack of honesty of individuals, mutual respect and tolerance are seen in the education practice. In such a scenario, democracy gets doubted. At the end of the education process, individual students need to see the results of being employed as expected. On the other hand, in the process of individuation, learners in the education process participate democratically. Individuals get involved in critical, intellectual engagements and develop into citizens of their country and become responsible and competent. The discussion would also involve the educators: whether they are capable enough to develop in the students the abilities required for democratic citizenship. Educators are required to train and educate students and be ready to produce graduates ready to be absorbed by industry as employees, employers or job creators and entrepreneurs.

Whilst universities are expected to be the means of instilling democracy in students who in the end become graduates, these graduates are meant to be prepared to enter industry, well prepared and become democratic citizens. There are challenges in universities ranging from a shortage of resources and the unstable political and economic situation of a country like Zimbabwe, as has been disclosed in the earlier sections of the current study. The challenges make it difficult for universities to produce fully democratic citizens (Murwira, 2018:1). Waghid & Davids, (2017) concur with the recent observations in the Zimbabwean context of Murwira (2018:1). This observation of challenges of universities does not negate the fact that universities can still produce democratic citizens, hence the need for stakeholders to get involved in the agenda of discussion of education and its policies, especially universities looking at both positive and negative sides. The university can be seen as an institution where democracy can be implemented during the education, training and involvement in research of university students. One wonders whether what educators teach in universities provides democracy in terms of content taught and the manner by which it is taught or disseminated. Educators teach and students are taught, then write examinations, get certificates and graduate. However, very few or nobody in universities seem to care about what happens to graduates after graduation, as far as their entry into industry is concerned. In such a scenario, one can be justified to question the production of democratic citizens in universities.

The difference between Zimbabwe's high literacy and its economic performance has led to queries about the merit of literacy in economic performance (Bere, 2018). The fact that Zimbabwe's current state of economy seems to be the fruit of the high literacy rate, then this may deem the country's high literacy rate not worth mentioning. The system of education is for mass production of graduates for the sake of producing educated people. Many students get recruited as long as institutions can

accommodate them. The students are taught, tested, certified then they find themselves onto the streets, jobless or find occupations that do not require their academic qualifications. The universities do not seem to have any interest into what happens to the students after they leave their universities. It will be unfair to blame the universities since they are also caught up in bigger challenges of more companies closing than new companies emerging to absorb graduates. Bere (2018) identifies the challenges of Zimbabwe's universities being thrown into two competing mandates of creating employable graduates and of developing thinkers expected to explore the future and its challenges and also expected to find solutions for current problems. The challenge is to produce graduates who can create employment and can be absorbed by industry. It seems universities are concentrating more in churning out graduates without critical review of the contributions of their research to the Zimbabwean industry. Makaniwa (2018) also agrees that Zimbabwe needs education that can produce graduates that can match today's digital age needs and the curriculum that can match the nation's needs and aspirations. Universities should desist from producing graduates with the only intention of getting good jobs and satisfying the academic requirements of employers. Instead universities should be tailor made to provide both academic and skills needs so that the graduates can be equipped with skills to ensure that the economy of the country gets developed (Makaniwa, 2018).

According to Garwe (2014) the challenges in Zimbabwe have affected the functions and operations of universities in Zimbabwe. For example, the drastic decline in the allocation of budget by the government, reduced state funding, brain drain, quality assurance, dropouts, high tuition and accommodation fees, large public debt, staff shortages, economic decline, foreign currency shortages and hyper-inflation are some of the challenges faced by universities (Garwe, 2014). The massive expansions of primary and secondary education after the 1980 independence also caused the expansion of universities in Zimbabwe. Other HEIs like, Polytechnic Colleges, Vocational Training Centres, primary and secondary school training colleges also faced the same challenge of massive expansion but the resources for learning would not increase. The number of graduates in turn would not match with the economic development of the country and as a result there existed less or no jobs for the graduates. Graduates also face the problem of unemployment since employers feel universities are offering courses that are not in line with their requirements and graduates are ill equipped for the jobs available. Zimbabwean universities should be able to generate income and realize profit where possible to avoid heavily relying on government funding. Universities need to generate income and become self-sufficient and are encouraged to find alternative ways of funding themselves (Garwe, 2014).

Universities are supposed to produce employable graduates yet Zimbabwe's industry says graduates are not employable. Industry may complain that university graduates are unemployable but also rarely contribute meaningfully to the development of an education system that can create employable graduates (Bere, 2018). The linking of universities and industry would assist universities to rapidly adapt and redesign courses to match the rapid changing environments and the demands of a diverse world. The role of creating employable graduates is placed too heavily on universities. It should be the role for industries and other stakeholders involved in the education of students. Universities are centres of higher learning, whose core business is promoting research, theory, enquiry and philosophy and the development of researchers, thinkers and philosophers in the various disciplines of learning. The role of universities must be to promote intellectual freedom, independent thinking, and also make individuals self-reliant job creators thus contributing to the economic recovery of the country (Bere, 2018). The universities should prepare students and equip them with innovation and creativity skills so that they can create work for themselves and others and not complain about being employed by someone. Students need to be trained so that they can employ themselves and not be job seekers.

2.2.7 The role of HE to the society

The meaning of education depends on the expectation of learners and what they hold about their future roles as educated citizens. The definition can be understood in two different ways; firstly as instrumental and secondary as consummatory for both personal and for social benefits (Madziyire, 2009). Generally, education can be useful and instrumental as a means to gaining employment, for example, post-school aspirations and behaviour determined. The role that education plays is for personal achievements economically, socially, politically and to have a good job, have more money, be employed in a good office, gain political influence and for personal success in getting employment. Education is for the benefit of the society as a means to helping others, for example, when one works as a teacher, or nurse, he or she parents or relatives and teaches those who have not gone to school (Madziyire, 2009).

In consummatory (personal and social) view, education is also viewed as an end in itself to make a person a better citizen or human being for the country. The scope of education, therefore, refers to the object of its benefits and can personally relate to its effects on an individual's life or social related to groups or other individuals. For personal reasons, knowledge is good for education's own sake as a basic condition of being a good man or woman and participates in the world. Socially, an individual's education is for the improvement of the nation. A society of educated people is a good society. Individuals see the acquisition of education as a beneficial to one's country, for example, the use of responses of individuals can make the country improve, make rulers rule and individuals can have

freedom to develop the country (Madziyire, 2009). The meanings of education depend on priorities of individuals. One may value education in terms of the instrumental and consummatory (personal and social) views whilst the other may see it in terms of either the instrumental or the consummatory views (Madziyire, 2009). Therefore, education seems to play a crucial role in learners' long term personal aspirations, links an expectation of employment, prestige and ability to fulfil obligations to parents and relatives.

Madziyire, (2009) attests that a man without education has negative mobility facing unemployment, poverty and low status and the man also faces negative knowledge being illiterate and ignorant. When it comes to assistance a man without education cannot help parents and may be a criminal and in relation to citizenship, the man does not help the country. However, this maybe debatable, one may acknowledge that some uneducated people may be of assistance because they are able to work and be of assistance to their families and society at large. In support of this argument Madziyire, (2009) enlightens that some students with fair examination results may have gained more than where they started as compared to students with higher grades. It is not always how much students learnt as revealed by examination results but it can be how well their learning matched the systems' objectives or how well objectives matched the real learning needs of students and their society. The increased expectations are generated by widespread education and create a demand for wage paid employment thus manifesting as an unemployed fast growing labour force.

Waghid (2003:59) sees a great demand for HEIs especially universities to be socially relevant, responsive, accountable to the society and its needs. A shift from the role of HE had been for production of knowledge and research. Africa like other countries encounter "moral, economic and social problems" and this increases "pressure on universities to bridge the gap between HE and society" (Waghid, 2003:59). The call would, therefore, be for parents, teachers, heads of schools, colleges and universities, community leaders, agencies, business managers and all citizens to be active. On a positive note more universities seem to excel in community service by providing "integrated teaching and research-based services grounded in knowledge production. Universities not only concentrate on academic research and teaching (Waghid, 2003:60). Universities are challenged to supplement teaching and research with community service, that is, applied knowledge to help the society solve social problems. Universities and communities then should be responsible for social change.

HEI's duty is to support and cultivate democratic action. Universities help students to have minds that are shaped enough to be responsible citizens in a democratic society (Waghid, 2010c). If universities

do not play that role well the universities would not serve the interests of the public good and they get disconnected from the real issues of a democratic society (Waghid, 2010c). The universities should not only certify students but should allow students to be democratically oriented to be part of the agents of change in their society. McLeod & Gartner (2010) encourage that HE should teach a politics to help recognition and teach students to be citizens and belong to their society. However, Assie-Lumumba (2006:79) sees the lack of communication between services and students as a problem in universities which is marked by poor, inefficient services and too much involvement of government in university affairs. Assie-Lumumba (2006) also indicates that the lack of communication alienates students from decision-making and that can cause tension and instability and universities can become breeding grounds for physical violence.

In conclusion, it can be noted that the issue of graduate employability of democratic citizens becomes a matter of concern. On the one hand, graduates will be expected to have sustained participation and engagement in industry as employees or as entrepreneurs and job creators. While on the other hand, the demand for universities and educators to provide democratic citizens ready to meet the demands of the market creates a competition among universities and the marketplace. This puts a lot of pressure on universities. Problems emerge, resulting in pressure to conform and a lack of creativity in basic research. Competition is encouraged between universities and industry. Skilled and competitive manpower would be expected from graduates. However, universities experience challenges of shortages of manpower, materials, and finances and face challenges in their education and training. Universities are expected to produce graduates that are well equipped with skills and qualities needed for them to participate in their communities as democratic citizens, who would contribute and work as professionals for economic and personal development.

2.3. University education and the development of entrepreneurship skills

The government of Zimbabwe tries to link education to industry in order to develop innovation through individuals' job-creation and entrepreneurship skills so that they match the needs of industries. These efforts are explained in detail in 2.3.1 – 2.3.6. The government of Zimbabwe has made attempts to link the university education to the development of entrepreneurship skills. The Nziramasanga report of 1999, commonly known as the commission of inquiry into education and training provides valuable indicators for new research. The STEM initiative, which is a priority for the Zimbabwean Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, is presented as a government effort, among others, to bring about economic recovery.

2.3.1. The Nziramasanga commission of inquiry into education and training as a democratic activity

I have been guided by the speeches and pronouncements by policymakers in the Nziramasanga commission of inquiry into education and training, commonly known as the Nziramasanga report (Mawere, 2013; Nziramasanga, 1999; Zhou & Hardlife, 2012; Richardson, 2013). In the discussion, I integrated the ideas of the report, and will later suggest new strategies that one can use to implement the plan.

The introduction of the Nziramasanga commission was an effort to lay down principles for achieving democratic education. The Nziramasanga report also provides valuable indicators for new research. For example, the challenges that the report indicates also necessitate further research. The process will be a collaborative effort. Numerous efforts had been made, but a gap still exists, where problems are not yet solved. For example, there is the challenge of the unemployment of graduates after many curriculum innovations to prepare them for a world of work. My great motivator was the established presidential commission of inquiry into education and training whose major focus was to make an in-depth analysis of the current education and training situation through consultations with various stakeholders, and then recommend necessary changes to the government (Zhou & Hardlife, 2012; Mawere, 2013; Nziramasanga, 1999). I pursued the same route of examining the current education and training situation in Zimbabwe and had consultations with the various stakeholders in order to come up with recommendations.

Research on assessment and evaluation of effective and efficient learning and university education systems has been a concern for education policy. The issue, as observed by Shizha & Kariwo (2011), Mawere (2013) and Maylette & Wride (2017), of the curriculum policy not matching with the graduates produced to suit the needs of industry, has also been a topical issue in Zimbabwean media in newspapers, magazines, television, and radio. The media articles justify the urgency for the need for an intervention. The complaints have been that there is no match between what students are trained in during the implementation process of the curriculum policy, and the graduates produced at the end for industry. There has been an article regarding the proposal of the Ministry of Primary and Secondary Education to change the school curriculum. The ministry in Zimbabwe has come up with a draft curriculum framework to propose changes, like the introduction of an industrial attachment for 'O' level learners after completing their examinations (Gweru, 2015; Marume, 2017). The draft curriculum framework is for guiding teaching and learning for the period 2015-2022 in line with the Nziramasanga report (Mawere, 2013; Nziramasanga, 1999), in order to come up with fresh recommendations.

The process of consultation of stakeholders started in October 2014 and the reason for the move was that policy innovators and analysts had noticed a gap between graduation and the period of employment after graduation since 1999 (World Factbook, 2018). This is the problem that I am pursuing in this study: to examine the relationship between education and employment to see if there is a match or mismatch between graduates' skills and the demands of industry. I took a great leap by submitting my topic to the permanent secretary of the ministry. A positive response was received, authorising me to get as much information as I needed. The ministry also asked me to submit my recommendations on completion of my study. My research was done to find problem-solving ideas for the challenges in the HE system, and which can bring a lasting change. My research was timed well, as I will share my ideas with other researchers during the process of revising issues regarding the national policy as per the initiative of the ministry.

The relationship between the education policy and students' entry into industry has been in the spotlight for a long time (Guha, 2018; Mawere, 2013; McGill, 2018). New knowledge will be generated in the research field, and recommendations, as Dube (2018) states, will be used to bring transformation and development in HEIs, industry, individuals and the country as a whole. In the process the strengths and weaknesses of the educational situation will be identified, and then a plan for change will be developed. The problem of unemployment creates fear, anxiety and a loss of confidence in the HEIs among stakeholders, especially for the beneficiaries of the system: the parents and graduates. The policy designers tried to improve the relationship of curriculum policies, in order to prepare a smooth transition for students into industry by way of feedback from the industry. It is clear that there is a gap that needs to be filled through relevant curriculum innovations and restructuring. The current study tried to create a synergy, where industry could be engaged or re-engaged in the redesigning of the curricula as a method of solving the problem and bringing a lasting change (Zhou & Hardlife, 2012; Mawere, 2013; Nziramasanga, 1999). It is an important process to look at public policymaking in Zimbabwe since all the efforts in the Nziramasanga report were a means of evaluating the public policymaking process. The purpose of the report was mainly to address the issue of whether Zimbabwe was implementing quality education or not, in order to produce employable citizens.

2.3.2 Nziramasanga report of 1999 in 2008

A national report on the status of education in Zimbabwe for 2008 was issued after a United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organisation (UNESCO) International Conference held in Geneva during 25–28 November 2008. The Nziramasanga report of 1999 had last been revised in

2004 (UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2013). There were education policy objectives set for institutions to provide relevant curricula, including two pathways of technical/vocational, business and commercial courses and academic courses. The teaching of Mathematics, Science and vocational subjects was strengthened in order to prepare learners for the world of work. The Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education sector witnessed the adoption and introduction of reforms and innovations based on the changes that were suggested in 2004. The policy framework upon which reforms were based, was in line with the strategic plan of the Ministry of 2006–2010 for activities in university education. The reforms regarding university education were aimed at improving the employment conditions of graduates and emphasis was on quality assurance, improved access, co-operation with stakeholders, integrated skills, outreach and strengthening of the two pathway education. These reforms will be discussed further in the following sections (Chakaza, 2018).

2.3.2.1 Quality assurance

Quality assurance was safeguarded by replacing the National Council for Higher Education (NCHE) with ZIMCHE in 2006 (Garwe, 2014). ZIMCHE is very active in the Zimbabwean education system and the government uses the group a lot to monitor colleges and universities' operations. The mandate for ZIMCHE according to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2013) and Chakaza (2018), is to promote and coordinate education for institutions. The purpose was to maintain standards of teaching, examinations, academic qualifications, and research.

2.3.2.2 Improved access

The number of public universities between 2006 and 2010 increased from 8 to 9, and there were universities in every province. Five polytechnics were upgraded to degree-awarding institutions. By 2018 the number of universities has increased to 20 (Sande, 2018).

2.3.2.3 Co-operation with stakeholders

A National Manpower Advisory Council, made up of members from industry, commerce and public sector, was resuscitated in order to address the issue of co-operation with stakeholders. According to Chakaza (2018), the Council advised the Minister for Higher Education regarding the training needs and relevant training programmes in the country. The Council also reopened channels of communication and feedback between industry and the Ministry, and ensured that the universities' curricula were aligned with the needs of industry.

2.3.2.4 Integrated skills outreach

The Integrated Skills Outreach programme according to the UNESCO Institute for Statistics (2013) and Chakaza (2018), was launched in 2006 when the Ministry of Higher Education provided trainers. The Ministry of Small and Medium Enterprise Development provided start-up assistance, the Ministry of Youth Development and Employment Creation identified youths, especially those out of school [whom normally have been referred to as school leavers] with training facilities according to training needs have been identified. The purpose was to create employment, alleviate poverty and help the youth to engage income-generation projects. The schools, colleges, and universities were also encouraged to train the students in both academic and practical subjects in order to strengthen the 'Two Pathway Education'. All these efforts were meant to curb the unemployment problem and contribute to economic recovery. There were marked successes as most people were literate and obtained professional qualifications and degrees. However, the country still faces challenges.

2.3.2.5 Education and migration or the 'brain drain'

There was a massive brain drain where the graduate professionals would go to neighbouring countries and overseas to look for jobs or to start businesses as the economic situation deteriorated. This led to low morale for those who were at work, due to low salaries (Mashaya & Tafirenyika, 2017). Authors discuss the issue of the brain drain and its effects on the economy of the country and on the individuals and their families, (Goldberg & Kats, 2011; Guha, 2018). These writers discuss on education and international migration when highly educated manpower move from poor to rich countries. This talk about experts who had been trained in their home countries at considerable social costs, only to benefit other countries. It reduces the supply of necessary professionals in underdeveloped countries. It diverts the attention of experts, scientists, doctors, and engineers away from domestic problems. For example, the development of appropriate technology, the promotion of low-cost housing, the design of functional but cheap roads, bridges and machinery and the development of relevant university teaching materials. Instead of paying attention to low-cost housing, schools, and clinics/hospitals, architects design modern public buildings and monuments. Scientists and engineers could design simple machine tools, basic sanitation and water systems. Economists and educationists could focus on poverty, unemployment, and development issues to meet the needs of students and graduates.

Goldberg & Kats (2011) and Guha (2018) concentrate on dealing with a brain drain and refer to educated and skilled manpower leaving their countries for greener pastures in other countries. The emphasis in Guha's writing (2018) is that there are many unskilled migrants and he emphasises that these blue-collared employees also need to be included in the statistics of a brain drain. The argument

is that as long as the non-professional people or workers in blue-collar jobs leave for better jobs in other countries, their countries are still deprived of the opportunity to train professionals even at a later stage, in order to develop their countries economically. Zimbabwe is faced with a massive brain drain and it has reached unacceptable levels (Kariwo, 2014; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). The large numbers of immigrants become a function of sustainable development for other countries as workers emigrate (Dinkovski & Markovska-Simoska, 2018).

This effect of a brain drain remains an issue for further research (McGill, 2018) when researchers would have a chance to recommend major policy options that Zimbabwean policymakers could adopt in order to curb or minimise the brain drain issue. According to McGill (2018) the notable imbalances in incomes and wages and so many incentive distortions would need to be minimised by encouraging policies that tend to remedy these imbalances. Such a remedy could increase job opportunities and facilitate development in educational systems (Dinkovski & Markovska-Simoska, 2018, McGill, 2018). Policies that require employers to seek realistic qualifications are encouraged in order to break the vicious circle of overstating job specifications. The demand for qualifications in order to get employed has resulted in a high demand for education and education has been considered a necessity for employment policies (McGill, 2018). The suggestion is to eliminate school certificates for many jobs, especially in the public sector, for example, messengers, janitors, etc. This tends to set a pattern for the private sector. Zimbabwe could introduce measures to curb the brain drain, for example, by introducing policies that control or tax the international migration of highly trained professionals (McGill, 2018). However, this could be a sensitive issue, infringing on basic human rights and freedom of one's choice of work location. A country which would have invested a lot of resources to train and educate individuals and forgoing social returns would be an issue to consider. The implementation of this would also require co-operation of countries to which individuals migrate (UNESCO, 2015).

2.3.3 Evaluation of the Nziramasanga report of 1999 in 2014–2018

Following a national report on the status of education in Zimbabwe, as reported by UNESCO (2008), an analysis of the curriculum needs of the country was compiled by the National Education Advisory Board in 2010. This compiled analysis was used to evaluate the 1999 Nziramasanga report of inquiry into education in Zimbabwe in 2014 (Marume, 2016). In this analysis, a proposal was made to carry out a more comprehensive review of the curriculum. The major objective was to include stakeholder contribution to the curriculum for all schools. The thrust was to engage stakeholders regarding implementation strategies in order to match the new curriculum with the development needs of the country. Consultations began in November 2014 in schools, colleges, universities, and industries. The

agreement was that the curriculum should prepare students for life and work with skills, knowledge, national identity, values, attitudes, and dispositions to produce learners that are able to create employment, as opposed to education merely to be employed. The curriculum was to be based on STEM subjects Chakaza (2018).

While there were these efforts to improve on the curriculum, the stakeholders still complained that there was no adequate consultation and there were no resources, since qualitative reforms required huge budgets. The suggestion was that the government should consider partnerships with the donor community, the private sector and interested individuals to invest in the education sector (Gweru, 2015). It is quite interesting to note that the issue of stakeholder involvement four years later, in the new dispensation in Zimbabwe, is being taken up by Mnangagwa (2018). There have been great efforts to involve the stakeholders practically in the advancement of education in universities and with the great aim of improving the education system of Zimbabwe. However, there is need for respect and desire to implement the ideas that get raised by the stakeholders during the consultation period (Waghid, 2010b). The education system has negatively affected the economy. Burke (2018) assesses the Zimbabwean situation as an economic crisis such that if international lenders would not provide aid to the heavily indebted country, Zimbabwe could be in a worse situation. Burke (2018) observes that commodities have become scarce and whenever they become available in shops, they would either be rationed and/or expensive. This results in long fuel queues, people spending a night in their cars in queues outside petrol stations, supermarkets rationing purchases or shutting entirely, and chemists being unable to provide basic medicines. The issue of stakeholder involvement is to find ways of solving issues, openness and co-belonging has been a key issue for Waghid & Davids (2018:24).

The open-door policy for other countries to invest in Zimbabwe has also been a big thrust for Zimbabwe, with a focus on improving the economy. The invitations are for Zimbabwe to become a destination of choice, which is open for business. Universities are encouraged to do more to revive industries (Dlodlo, 2018). The encouragement is that institutions should do more to contribute to the revival of industries. Universities should be at the forefront to provide answers to real-life problems and contribute meaningfully to economic development. Research on practical life situations should be carried out as an intellectual liberation of university educators in order to be involved in the development of the country. Stakeholders such as industries, the private and public sectors and civil society should come together and identify common problems and solutions affecting the economy and thereby assist the universities to foster industrial growth.

The students should be capacitated to become job creators that grow into big businesses to help in industrial development. According to Dlodlo (2018) and Sande (2018), universities should be business and industrial hubs and develop special exporting zones. Universities should compete to solve life problems and help students do business plans and engage in small-scale businesses. These writers say that colonisation brought a dependence on money for spending versus it being seeded for self-actualisation and bringing fluidity to one's plans. The universities, as Dlodlo (2018) says, have plans to develop factory shells, and industrial and business parks in order to resuscitate industries. Local resources should be used for community development and for their economic benefit.

2.3.4 STEM initiative as a democratic activity

As said earlier in this study, there has been a topical issue of the mismatch of graduates and industry in the Zimbabwean media, for example, in *The Daily* and *Sunday News*, *The Chronicle*, *The Herald* and *The Standard* (for the period January to March 2016 and in 2017). In order to curb the problem, the recommendation has been to introduce STEM subjects, which have strategic economic importance and are a priority for the ZMHTE. The move was a result of the recorded data of the 26% pass rate in Mathematics for students in schools, colleges and universities that sat for the examinations in 2015 (Moyo, 2016). Moyo (2016) also recorded that few students took up key STEM subjects such as Physics, Chemistry, Biology, Geography, and others and sat for the examinations in 2015. In contrast, the majority of the students sat for art and commercial subjects like History, Religious Studies, Literature, Accounts and Commerce (Moyo, 2016).

Dube (2018) states that the results provide information that helps one to see where more effort is necessary to ensure that Zimbabwe produces more STEM graduates at college and university level than is currently the case. The goal is to instil an interest in or adjust the number of people that take up STEM careers. In his speech, Charamba (2017) mentioned that there was a need for educators to equip learners with knowledge, skills, and values in order to promote economic growth and increase opportunities for employment creation. The experts maintain that the fastest growing and highest earning careers in the future will be in STEM fields, hence, the need to encourage schools, colleges, and universities to introduce STEM subjects and courses. The study of STEM subjects is believed to result in the industrialisation of the economy and the creation of employment (Moyo, 2016). STEM careers will be promoted in response to Zimbabwe Asset's human capital objectives, and STEM skills that are critically needed for the new industrialisation thrust in the country will be created (Dube, 2018:3).

The STEM programme is hoped to address the issues of unemployment and will also empower young people through the promotion of science and innovation (Dube, 2018). The STEM is an education grouping used throughout the world. In as much as the STEM programme is a good initiative, some stakeholders in the education sector have expressed mixed feelings about the programme. An education expert, Shizha & Kariwo (2011) says that the programme is very noble and is a step in the right direction, but emphasises that the programme must contribute meaningfully to the current situation, be relevant to current circumstances and must be viewed as an initiative that seeks to emphasise the importance of practical subjects. The programme came at a time when the nation is on a mission to achieve economic recovery. I feel privileged to be researching a similar topic in order to make contributions to the development of my country.

The president of the Progressive Teachers Union of Zimbabwe, Zhou (2016), does not share the same sentiments, he says theoretically, the idea is a good one but it may have limitations when it comes to practice. Zhou (2016) argues that the responsible authorities did not consult enough with the stakeholders, for example, students, parents, and teachers. The stakeholders just heard of the announcement that STEM subjects were to be introduced and taught in schools, colleges and universities and were instructed to oblige. This gap between the researcher, stakeholders, and the government needs to be dealt with. In my research, I made an effort to close the gap by consulting and involving as many stakeholders as possible. The move of the government to introduce STEM subjects to be taught in schools, colleges and universities as according to Zhou & Hardlife (2012), Mawere (2013) cited in Dube (2018:4) was to enhance the quality and number of skilled personnel in STEM.

If the policymakers value in employable skills, it could help industries as the STEM skills are important for the modern economy. Some graduates and their employers say more could be done to develop students' skills and attributes, including team-working, communication, leadership, critical thinking, and problem-solving (Dube, 2018:4). In line with the above view, Lowden et al. (2011:25) state that developing graduate employability skills and attributes should be included in the strategic and faculty/departmental level planning of HEIs. Universities need to promote employability skills and attributes in their mission statements, learning and teaching strategies, course framework, strategic documents, and practical guidance. The STEM skills are known collectively as employability skills. It is a recommendation for action to place employability at the centre of the organisations' strategic planning; widening access to work placements, and promoting real and equal partnerships between employers and HEIs. There have been various attempts by higher education funding policymakers to address the issue of graduate employability (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). The call to do STEM subjects clearly is a key development in government policy. Dube (2018:5) in her

conclusion encourages educational institutions and employers to work together to develop approaches that contribute to graduate employability, which, should start early by inviting students to enrol in STEM subjects, courses, and programmes. In order for the system to become efficient and respond to market needs, the government, employers, and individuals must all engage in skills development (Dube, 2018:5).

This STEM educational reform was a new initiative and approach of the Zimbabwean government to reform the curriculum by introducing or strengthening the teaching and training of STEM subjects in schools, colleges, and universities (Dube, 2018). Since 2015, the curriculum review was targeted at ensuring that students and graduates do not only become job seekers, but would become employers and entrepreneurs (Dube, 2018). The hope is that the industrialisation of the economy and creation of employment would be made possible in years to come (Dube, 2018). The call to STEM-itis clearly is a key development in government policy to encourage educational institutions and employers to work together to develop approaches that contribute to graduate employability (Dube, 2018). I engaged in this collaborative research in agreement with the active participation of researchers, teachers, principals, parents, community advocates, business leaders, community agencies and general citizens through their responses to my interview questions. There is a great need for everyone's contribution, because in policy issues this collaboration is important in that it brings transformation in education. In Chapter 6 more recommendations will be highlighted with the intention of getting my readers, and mainly the policymakers, to consider implementing the recommendations alongside the STEM initiative. Also, decisions could be reached on how the recommendations could be implemented or incorporated into university education programmes.

2.3.5 Stakeholders involvement as an effort of the government to resuscitate the economy

One of the greatest efforts since the inception of the new government on 21 November 2017 has been to involve the stakeholders, in order to promote education that creates employability and also to resuscitate the economy. The purpose of this section is to present arguments in defence of DCE, which has the aim to promote stakeholder involvement in education and employability issues. I chose to adopt Waghid's approach to DCE (2010b) and will show how the government efforts of involving stakeholders are linked to the approach. Waghid describes DCE as a process of belligerence, deliberation, belonging, feelings of compassion in considering education issues, friendships, respect and forgiveness, justice, avoidance of violence and extremism, *ubuntu*, education transformation/change and an encounter with self (Waghid, 2010b; 2010a). The efforts of the

government in holding an education conference in 2018 demonstrate a democratic effort towards stakeholder consultation and this is discussed in the following paragraphs.

A spontaneous reaction of the people of Zimbabwe was reported by the Minister of Higher and Tertiary Education, Murwira (2018). Government efforts were to do the following: promote external trade and engage the Zimbabwean diaspora, which was a new regime thrust. This new era of diplomatic re-engagement was envisaged to make Zimbabwe a potentially new and indigenous business destination. The country would become a destination for investors and tourists. The international portfolio comprises a new mandate to attract foreign investors and revisit previous engagements. New business projects were being introduced with the intention of creating jobs using diaspora strategies where the diaspora members were encouraged to invest in their country. The government tried to attract the diaspora members to come and invest in their country, since being part of the diaspora meant they were ambassadors in those countries where they live. The intention was to improve employability through job creation, thus improve the economy by rejoining the commonwealth. These government efforts were in line with earlier recommendations by Mlambo (2008), who encouraged privatisation and engagement of foreign countries in order to engage in efforts to revive the economy. According to Nyazema (2010:233), the dwindling economy was noticed since 1996 and became worse in 2005, causing unemployment rates to soar, while the country had heavy debts. This downturn in the economy caused the poverty rate to soar, which ended up affecting the funding of education. This called for cost recovery measures and the attraction of foreign investment became one of the current government efforts.

Stakeholder involvement was seen when the government met with different groups to discuss how to improve the economy, education facilities and of employability. Such meetings were held with university leaders, students, and local and foreign funders from November 2017 to March 2018. These consultations with stakeholders, according to Davids & Waghid (2018) are a way of helping individuals to act democratically and to encourage people to, engage deliberately with each other. Openness to deliberation is encouraged and individuals have an equal chance to speak and develop a sense of belonging. The aspects of “co-belonging” and “internal inclusion” emphasised by Davids & Waghid (2018:224) helps individuals not to be internally excluded but they are allowed to engage in deliberate arguments freely expressing their thoughts. This co-belonging does not only allow for expressions of problems, but it could mean allowing people to choose self-exclusion to allow them to heal from hatred and traumatic experiences (Waghid, 2010b). They might have gone through the traumas until they can reconcile (Davids & Waghid (2018). This is a process of allowing people to

disclose and lay bare their feelings of anger and resentment and in the long run can contribute towards eradication or minimisation of perpetual problems at home, work or in the community.

In his introduction message to the first ever conference in Zimbabwe on 10 March 2018 in Harare, the Minister of Higher Education, Murwira (2018), mentioned that university students were expected to produce goods and services in the end. The target of the universities was to train students adequately so that they become specialists, just as the curriculum had intended to produce economists, politicians, scientists, mathematicians, and engineers. The graduates would be expected to set up spin-off industries. The government was planning to build university towns where industries would be constructed around the universities and jobs would be readily available for students and graduates, thus solving the employability issue. The Minister was promising engagement into education transformation and change by the universities, which Waghid (2010b; 2013b) confirms is a contribution to DCE. This is the process when one begins to see and allows individuals to be open-minded and connect with others. In this case, the government and universities connect with students for peace building against conflicts. Connections between the government and universities also help in the creation of jobs in order to reduce the high unemployment rate. The university student representatives were present at the first ever investment conference and they expressed their gratitude for being given an opportunity to air their views in the presence of the head of the state (Murwira, 2018). The students also viewed education as capital and, therefore, pleaded with the government to assist in completing to build infrastructure for their lecture rooms, laboratories, and sporting facilities. A plea for special facilities to be provided for the physically challenged was made. More important was the university student representatives' request to the Minister of Higher Education and the President to be able to hold further and continuous meetings with the largest population of students. The university student representatives were assured that the meetings would be held in due course.

In such an instance where the students were engaged in the deliberations, DCE is possible as seen by Waghid (2010c; 2010a) who confirms that through *ubuntu*, some form of communal engagement was fulfilled. This promotion of *ubuntu* allowed space for all stakeholders, including students themselves, who would be able to articulate themselves and were being freed from domination. The human relations were ensured to flourish and respect for each other became evident. The government and universities were willing to work with students irrespective of their vulnerabilities. The purpose of the meeting, giving room for deliberations and taking time to hear from each other of what would be good for them became a democratic way of working to change their situations. The purpose would be to help universities to assist students to be prepared enough to face the world of work. Students feel treated as free and equal citizens to the politicians and university administration. Injustice and

inhumanity become the story of the past. DCE involves individuals to know that they have civil, political and social rights, including the freedom of speech. They can also give an account of their reasons in order to support or disagree with any point of view, or can merely listen to other points of view. According to Waghid (2010b), such an opportunity given to people in a conference of this nature with students, government officials and universities provides education that allows people to see life that promotes democracy and citizenship to be more explicit. In order to be more explicit than it is currently, Waghid (2010c) sees such an experience as compassionate imagining which involves treating, justly and humanely, students and graduates who are faced with matters of concern, for example job discrimination, unemployment, abuse of women, poverty, political alienation, absence of good prospects and promotion, underemployment and other issues. The list can be endless.

The judgment of the situation is based on graduates and students' distress undeserved misfortune, suffering, and injustice. Compassion is called for among the other members of the stakeholders' meeting and it encourages them to be aware of the misfortunes of the vulnerable students and graduates who have been victims of unemployment. The other stakeholders can see that it is never the fault of the government or universities. The students, graduates, and universities should be full of compassion and be aware that Zimbabwe did not deserve to suffer from the high rate of unemployment recorded by Makou & Wilkinson, 2018 to be 95%. The call by Waghid (2010c) is to engage in compassionate imagining and discussion and have a hope of suggesting improvements. All should see the need to find creative ways of helping with empathy, thus engaging in the delivery of arguments involving compassion.

On the same education conference, in his speech and response to the student body, Mnangagwa (2018) displayed the democratic qualities of compassion, friendship, respect and forgiveness as alluded to by Waghid (2010c). The universities were working towards producing well-rounded, employable college graduates for the global market. This was a process to realise sustainable development goal number 4, with the initiative to support university institutions in order to make them successful (UNDP, 2015). The objective is also to call for foreign investors to be involved through private-public partnerships. The investors are welcome in the country to boost universities through the open policy for business. The institutions have been growing. The stagnant development has been due to few or no resources for a long time. Mnangagwa (2018) mentioned that the models in the banks have been put in place to promote education through loans that are made available for students.

There have also been government calls for scholarships for university and college students. The effort has been to serve 151 380 students from colleges, universities, and other institutions. During Mnangagwa's (2018) meeting with captains of industry (mostly university graduates), the discussion was based on the skills gap which the participants promised to address by short courses and engaging university students for industrial attachments. The small and medium enterprises were encouraged to follow business regulations and be properly registered. The issue of developing university towns would improve the economic mobility base and services will be developed to increase employment opportunities. By 2020, Zimbabwe is envisaged by Zimbabweans as having decent jobs, and individuals will be self-reliant (Mnangagwa (2018). Furthermore, by 2030, Zimbabwe is expected to be a middle class economy (Mnangagwa, 2018). The universities were tasked to be vehicles of this development. The members of the diaspora were expected to come back and invest in Zimbabwe, and then partner with government ministries. The government has already ventured into making the country open for business for both locals and members of the diaspora. Talent is being rewarded and the atmosphere was being created for investments and economic development.

Firstly, President Mnangagwa (2018) had shown compassion in the education conference by allowing people with different positions to have the right to speak and air their views, and perform tasks and speak so as to be heard. They were given the right to contribute their ideas and actively participated with freedom of speech regarding education issues (Waghid, 2010b). The spaces in the conference were created for individuals to voice their ideas and all were mutually attuned to one another. Government representatives and universities had an opportunity to listen to students' ideas, problems, and compliments. Even if the students were critical of the system of education as they summarised their problems, their views were respected and were heard and promises were made to solve their problems. However, the universities and students were encouraged to connect with each other as they engaged through argument, and to talk about outcomes to bring about new initiatives. When love for education is displayed it promotes critical learning and cultivates sharing of knowledge and respect for each other's views which Waghid (2010c; 2010b) calls DCE. In this kind of education learners and educators, and all other stakeholders in education, engage in friendship creation and individuals can risk together and explore to enter into seeming impossible ventures. The stakeholders, which include government, universities, industry, students, and graduates would work at avoiding injustice, violence and extremism. These stakeholders would avoid fighting against one another concerning the struggles they have faced over the years which has led to the high rate of unemployment of graduates. Instead the stakeholders should choose to deliberate with tolerance, friendliness, compassion, respect and forgiveness for each other in order to promote DCE in universities.

The environment created in the education conference helped all individuals to express themselves freely about how they feel about an education that does not earn them jobs. Critical thinking through the speeches gets cultivated. Surely they would not be critical thinkers if their learning did not contribute to their advocating for a just world with reduced or no poverty, no dictatorship, and no corruption. The participants needed to champion their right to employment and the employed needed to be responsible for meeting the needs of the jobless. All should treat each other as friends who respect and also feel respected whether they are employed or unemployed. This cultivates individuals' need to discuss and query one another's experiences critically by asking how and why one is either employed, unemployed or underemployed. This kind of friendship would be developed over time as friends learn to take risks, engage in debates, respect and forgive one another. The individuals would realise they are different in their thinking and perceptions when they become aware of the risks involved in business ventures. Others become vulnerable to circumstances and situations beyond their control, encounter problems in the process for compassion to be practical to develop and create friendships. The steps to these are respect and forgiveness and individuals learn to engage with one another. As a result, DCE gets realised.

This promotion of stakeholder involvement helps to enhance democracy, since people want to be seen as participants in dialogue (Waghid 2010b). The issue here is that people are encouraged to be willing to listen to what others say. In turn, the stakeholders learn to respect their own worth, even if the stakeholders do not agree with decision-makers. People learn to forgive, respect and trust and can have meaningful contributions as rational beings and sources of value. The lesson is that people should avoid ripping each other's ideas into pieces, never to bribe or manipulate, but only criticise when necessary. The people, government, and universities in their respect should respectfully appreciate different values found in others. People should avoid excluding other systems, universities, and industry, but should learn to forgive even if they disagree, should agree to disagree, but engage with tolerance and constructive interaction and deliberation. For example, the gap between graduates and industry requires universities, government, and industrialists to forgive one another and show respect. All need to respect the demands each has. The gap between graduates and industry is an irresolvable conflict and thus needs further research. All key players and stakeholders in education and industry need to forgive one another, honour one another, but should be free to challenge one another with respect to handling criticism of policy initiatives with due care. Educators would need to do self-reflection in implementing policy and should have the freedom to say yes or no to issues, and yet have respect for their choices.

2.3.6 Challenges faced in the efforts of the government

Whilst it can be appreciated that the government efforts were intended to bring a change in the education system in order to promote employability and also create self-reliant individuals, it is crucial to note the challenges faced. The change was necessary and useful in the implementation of education policies and curricula. However, there seems to be a trace of stress experienced by individuals who fail to manage change at the individual level, who does not know how to change. Some might desire to change, but do not know how to change. Too many changes in the education system led some to a state of confusion and uncertainty. There were too many political changes and this led to some wondering if they should stay in the country or emigrate. A feeling of despair was evident when there seemed to be no jobs created and many left the country. Some left their jobs because the political climate was unstable. This caused a brain drain both internally and externally. Resentment could be sensed, as confirmed by Matoti, Janqueira & James (2013) and Makou & Wilkinson (2018). The writers agree that there are a number of problems concerning the planning and coordination of change activities in the education system, which in most cases results in a lack of employment for many. The problems noted were a lack proper planning, and no planning at all in some activities. The people were feeling that there were too many demands placed on them with little or no support given by the government to assist in the implementation of what has been planned for them.

In all the feelings of stress and failure to manage change, confusion and uncertainty of too many changes cause despair and resentment, Waghid (2010c), Mawere (2014), and Maylette & Wride (2017) encourage individuals to encounter with themselves. This is a process where individuals need to engage in seeing the other side of DCE. Whilst the government would have made efforts in bringing change to the education system, there are bound to be problems surfacing. The successes truly would have been seen as highlighted before in order to assist education and policy and thus promote employability, and embrace in continuing to build a democratic society, but some problems are inevitable. DCE can be messy and fractured and is not always what it should be. That is why Waghid (2010b) says DCE is an ongoing debate/discussion and the process of discussion would not stop until it reaches its full stage of relevance. Even when problems and challenges surface, there is a call for citizens to go through the process of respect and forgiveness and be friendly to the government system. They should avoid violence and extremism in order to receive DCE, as Waghid (2010b) encourages. In identifying and verbalising problems and expressing their feelings, they have a right to express themselves. They are free to have all their views, because in DCE one has civil, political and social rights to freedom of speech, as long as they can support their viewpoints. This kind of freedom Waghid (2010b) calls democracy. He continues to explain that they are justified to express their situations and feelings based on their distressed misfortunes of unemployment,

underemployment, job discrimination, and all other related problems. This kind of feeling is described as expressive freedom and compassionate imagining (Waghid, 2010c). The government, universities, and industry respondents are given the chance to engage in dialogue and have space or give each other space to air their views, whether in agreement or disagreement. This promotes democracy, a situation where a spirit of becoming is being cultivated, says Waghid (2014). In this, students, universities and industries are involved in critical and autonomous thinking, political engagements, have choices, freedom, and the responsibility to engage in education.

In conclusion of chapter 2, the issues of the Nziramasanga report of 1999, commonly known as the commission of inquiry into education and training provides valuable indicators to new research, and the STEM initiative which itself is a priority of the MHTESTD have been discussed. According to the discussions, there is a positive association between policy, graduate performance, employability, and industry, whilst also suggesting that academic performance is a good indicator of likely employability. The next chapter discusses the research methodology.

CHAPTER 3

Research methodology

This chapter focuses on the methodology used to gather data. The methodology describes the process used to collect information and data, inclusive of the qualitative interpretive plan of the current study and overall strategy chosen to address the research problem and use of a small scale interview study. In this section, the data research tool of interviews that were used in data gathering is discussed. The respondents were purposively drawn from the composition of the population and the way the data was collected, presented and analysed is discussed. The validity and reliability of instruments are examined and the challenges and limitations that were encountered during data collection are pointed out. This section also deals with issues of research validity within an interpretive framework. This was a framework of describing, predicting, controlling and explaining relationships in order to find the truth.

3.1 Qualitative interpretivist approach

Choosing the appropriate research method is determined by a combination of philosophical positions of the study (Saunders et al., 2009). This should take into account the nature of the problem to be explored, research objectives, its novelty in research terms and the time and resources available to carry out the work (Baskarada, 2014; Pasipamire, 2012). The practice or paradigm chosen for the current study was an adoption of the qualitative and interpretive philosophical approach described by Denscombe (2010), Waghid (2013b). In this case, the interpretive approach had to show how to analyse and examine the relationships between educational policy and students' access to the industry. The approach was meaningful since it was determined by my understanding, loyalty and respect in relation to the life world. I was concentrating on defining how life is experienced first-hand in the training and development of university graduates and industry managers. My focus was on identifying the core of human experiences about phenomena as referred to by participants during the interviews I conducted (Creswell, 2009; Matua & Van der Wal, 2015; Wertz, 2011).

Phenomenology proved to be a credible approach that studies consciousness and “concerns of what constitutes acceptable knowledge” (Saunders et al., 2009:112). In this study, the interviews were used to collect knowledge (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). It explores, describes and understands people's everyday experiences and appearances of things in their minds (Beck, 2010; Cherry, 2014; Polit & Beck, 2010). In the current research, these experiences were not just described but they were also

interpreted, so that as the researcher, I could arrive at a deep understanding of these experiences, which led me to come up with knowledge and recommendations to address the needs of the community. Interpretive qualitative inquiry involves analysing issues and getting to understand what the issues mean. The inquiry also views human beings as possessing knowledge that can be used in reflection (potential), rationality, discursive communication, and in the way individuals tend to interact. The interpretive approach acknowledges the role of interpreting human and organisational behaviour assuming that reality has been constructed (Denzil & Lincoln, 2005). It assumes that the knowledge of our reality has been achieved through the social constructions of language and documents. The dependent and independent variables focus on understanding a phenomenon through the certain meanings assigned to them by people as suggested by Denscombe (2010) and Mwenje (2015).

My focus was on gaining a deep understanding of human experiences, and my method and focus were interpretive. This approach was relevant in the current research in order to help me appreciate the relationship between education, development and training of graduates and their entry into the world of work. The collection of information through interviews helped me to interpret the knowledge collected versus prior knowledge and understanding. As a researcher, I worked with the participants and interacted to shape and to be open to one another. I exercised empathy and reflexivity, avoiding as much as possible preconceptions through the process of data collection and analysis, confirming what Creswell (2009), Van Manen (2011), and Matua & Van der Wal (2015) recommend. They recommend that for a concept or phenomenon to be understood, as little research would have been done on it, then it merits a qualitative approach.

The outcome requires generalising findings of a population and also enables developing a detailed view of the significance of a phenomenon or concept for individuals. Cherry (2014) suggests the use of qualitative data, which arms the study with a bifocal lens to enable a combination of the macro-levels and micro-levels of a research issue. A range of dependent variables was in the sampling procedure. For example, the university students and managers of industries, contexts, projects, circumstances, and resources were all variables that tended to influence the selection decisions and which depended on one another, as observed by Denscombe (2010), Cherry (2014) and Garwe (2014). An exploratory small scale study of the relationship between the training of graduates and their entry into industry in Zimbabwe is better understood in the light of interpretivism. Interpretivism is a research methodology where both the researcher and the human subject act as the instruments to measure some phenomenon. In Figure 3.1, it is prudent to point out that the research paradigm, as Fraenkel & Wallen (2008) and Baskarada (2014) see it, is interpretivism with a subjectivism approach.

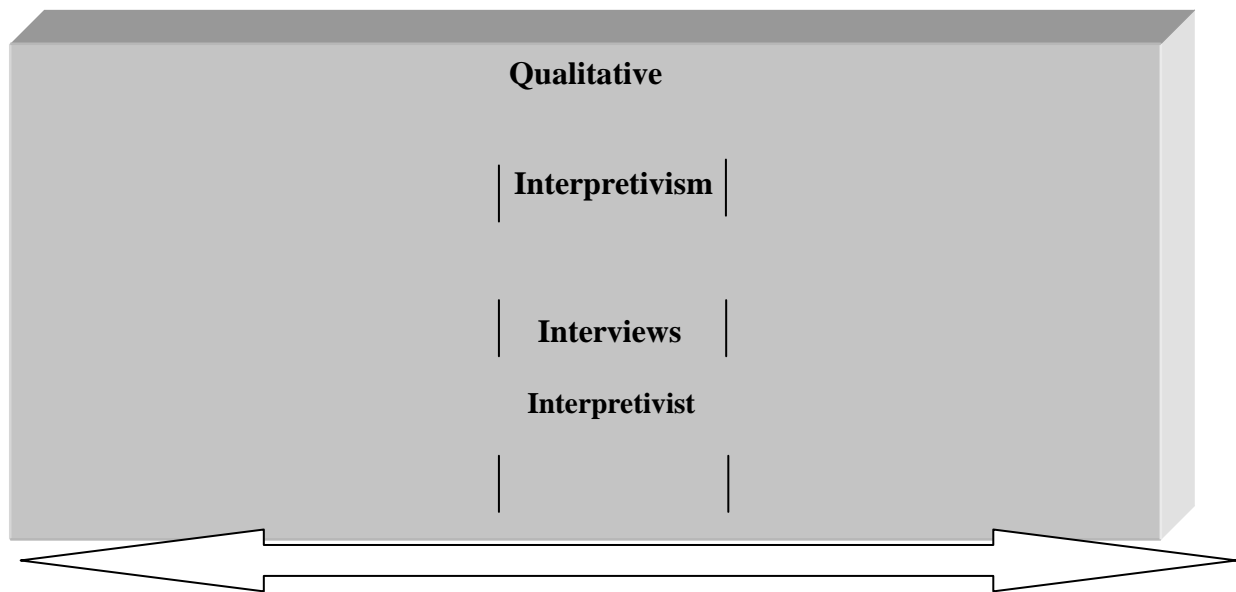


Figure 3.1: Research strategies, choices and philosophies

Source: Source: De Villiers (2005, cited in Denscombe, 2010)

In an explanation of the interpretative approach, Creswell (2009) and Denscombe (2010) identify the critical inquiries and unconstructive scrutiny as forming an all-embracing framework. The intention is to give a different meaning in the interpretation of education policy research. The approaches to educational research should be seen as complementary to a broad social discourse of educational research, using rationality according to Creswell (2009). The idea of narratives to give a good interpretation of results is also supported by Fraenkel & Wallen (2008), Khumalo & Ngwenya (2009), and Baskarada (2014). My role as a researcher was to interpret the social world, and, therefore, I had to assume that social reality is constructed. The intention is to describe, predict, control and explain causal relationships between variables. In my study, I engaged in the examination of the fact that when a student goes to university he or she is trained till graduation, and after that he or she should get employed. This way of viewing things helps in encouraging professional scrutiny and one would have an assessment of relationships.

The interpretive qualitative inquiry views human beings as the subject of knowledge, principally capable of, rationality, discursive and social communication as alluded to by Denscombe (2010), Waghid (2013b) and Gray (2014). Thus, the chosen philosophy for the current study was mainly the interpretive approach as the focus was on the issue of employability of university graduates in Zimbabwe. The study was undertaken as far as possible in a value-free way, which is why the interpretive approach was used. The definition of qualitative research, as stated by Denscombe

(2010), is an activity, which locates the observer in the world. Qualitative researchers study phenomena in their normal settings and the researchers try to make sense of, or interpret a phenomenon in terms of the meanings people bring to them during research.

Qualitative research denotes an emphasis on qualities of entities, plus processes and meanings, which are not experimentally measured as highlighted by Smith (2012) and Cherry (2014). Furthermore, they agree that the field of knowledge creation, transfer and utilisation, employs a variety of approaches to measure utilisation, utilities, influence and what would be expected to be an outcome. The approaches commonly used include case studies, social framework analysis, surveys, government commissions, citation analysis and experimental projects. Plans for data collection were made, and after the collection it was analysed to understand if any patterns emerged that suggested relationships between variables. From the observations, it became possible to construct relationships, generalisations, and theories before moving towards establishing a binding principle, at the same time avoiding jumping to conclusions (Chipunza, 2017; Gray, 2014). My study did not engage in a deductive approach, which involves engaging in theoretical perspectives before undertaking research, but instead I engaged in theoretical perspectives after the process had begun. The advantage was that I had the opportunity to make plans and set clear measures for research that spanned the different stages from broad assumptions to thorough methods of data collection, interpretation and analysis as confirmed by Creswell (2009) and Denscombe (2010). For this next section, it is of paramount importance to discuss the research philosophy.

3.2 Research philosophy

Whether one is consciously aware of assumptions or not, at every single stage of research, the researcher is likely to make numerous assumptions. The assumptions are about human knowledge (epistemological assumptions), about the truths one encounters in research (ontological assumptions), and the extent to and ways by which one value influences the research process (axiological assumptions) (Creswell, 2009). In support of the assumptions, Saunders, Lewis, Thornhill & Bristow (2016:124) posit, “whether you are consciously aware of them or not, at every stage in your research you will make a number of types of assumptions”. Due to these considerations, of the five main philosophies in business and management – positivism, critical realism, interpretivism, postmodernism and pragmatism – I chose mainly interpretivism, as mentioned earlier on. According to Denscombe (2010) the interpretive researcher assumes that the knowledge of reality is added through social constructions, such as language, shared meanings, consciousness, documents, artefacts and tools (Saunders et al., 2016). Further, the interpretivist believes that it is essential to understand the differences between humans in our roles as social actors who collect data from respondents

(Denscombe, 2010). This means that the interpretivist understands the world from the social actor's point of view. Interpretive research does not redefine dependent and independent variables, but it centres on the complexity of human sense-making as the condition that would emerge. It makes attempts to understand phenomena through the meaning that people assign to them, as discussed by Denscombe (2010) and Baskarada (2014).

The interpretation of qualitative data is not necessarily complete; there might always be some uncertainty and ambiguity. However, as noted by Denscombe (2010) and Mwenje (2015), there is a reflection on these biases and prejudices and an attempt to remove those that prevent understanding. This was achieved through dialogue and engagement during the interviews. Nonetheless, understanding was highly contextualised and bounded. For example, the meaning of a term and the meaning of the whole sentence were mutually dependent. During the analysis and discussions, the readers will be made to understand the meaning of a single word by seeing it in reference to the entire sentence and reciprocally. The meaning of a sentence as a whole is dependent on the meaning of individual words. In other words, what can be publicly observed as the relevant educational policy and relevant training programme to prepare graduates for employability could have different meanings in the education system and in the industry. What matters most is the hermeneutics – the appropriateness of the interpretation – based on the context.

My target was to try and gain an understanding of the relationship between HE policies and student entry into industry after graduation in Zimbabwe. During the process of analysing the interviewees' views as articulated, I tried to determine their understandings of the issue of the relationship between the educational policy and student entry into industry after graduation in Zimbabwe. My prior knowledge of the issue of employability in Zimbabwe was challenged in this context as I had to draw a comparison between what I knew and what the participants' knowledge and understanding was. Creswell (2009), Denscombe (2010) and Mwenje (2015) postulate that one's interpretation is always somewhat provisional or uncertain and facts become somewhat ambiguous. In addition to this postulation, the social world is incorporating, and changing a complex environment, and it is hard for researchers to assume that they have arrived at what can be believed to be the truth.

The most advantageous position of the interpretive work is anchored in its ability to construct social realities, and I as a researcher interacted and made meaning of what I heard and saw happening. Unlike the positivistic approach that is objective in nature, naturalistic and scientific in procedure (Saunders & Lewis, 2012), the interpretive approach suited the current study, as the common elements of interpretivism brought enlightenment to what was being studied (Saunders & Lewis,

2012). Interpretivism allowed me to delve into and respect the loyalty of participants (subjects of study) in relation to their life world. Interpretivism also allowed me to bring under scrutiny the element of human subjectivity, and the way it can contribute to knowledge (Saunders & Lewis, 2012). The context of human action, which needs to be understood in order to be able to understand the action itself, is alluded to by Denscombe (2010) and Mwenje (2015). Thus elements of the interpretive approach contributed much to the choice of the study approach as I perceived a creation of new, richer understandings of the contexts and interpretations of the social worlds.

The current study incorporated the research process using the ‘research onion’ of Saunders, as explained by Sahay (2016). The research onion demonstrates the range of choices, strategies, stages and paradigms followed by researchers during the research process. This supports the research philosophy of the study as interpretivism (qualitative research) using the strategy of a small scale interview study. As posited by Saunders et al. (2009), the theory of how inquiries are supposed to proceed involves procedures, principles and an analysis of the assumptions in a particular approach being probed. Small scale interview study research was used here in terms of university students and managers of industries. The time horizons comprised longitudinal studies with the sampling data collected over time, rather than merely once.

3.3 Use of a small scale interview study

The research design took a deliberate small scale interview study framework by virtue of being research to gather data from the target population of state universities and industries in Zimbabwe. Denscombe (2014) claims that with low budget small-scale research projects, the researcher needs to ensure that the people are distributed too widely across a large geographical area and that conducting the interviews will not incur prohibitive costs. According to Robson (2017) many interviews in small-scale evaluations are likely to be semi-structured. They can be particularly useful when the interview takes place in a group setting. The flexibility in delivery of the interview sits well with the usual requirements of having a relatively small number of interviews with different categories of interviewees (such as program administrators and clients). Green & Thorogood, (2004:39) state the design of a small-scale interview study is perhaps midway between an observational study and a survey. The small-scale does depend to some extent on the logic of observational work, in that the aims are often to access the ‘everyday’ knowledge or talk of interviewees, although of course there are limits to how far a research interview can capture naturalistic talk. Tight (2017) points out that a small-scale is a research involving an individual working alone, under pressure and with no funding or little more than some contribution to the costs of printing and travelling. Tight (2017) also highlights that small scale can be explained in contrary to what is highlighted above thus to mean that

a small-scale would still be a study that involves more people working as a team, and with adequate time for study as well with funding.

The university students and managers of industries were purposively sampled as representatives of key valuable informants interviewed for their perceptions regarding the education policies and entry of graduates into industry (Denscombe, 2010; Gray, 2014). These individuals reflected variables that tended to influence the selection decisions, and depended on each other, as observed by Creswell (2009) and Denscombe (2010). The universities and industries comprised individuals that were key decision-makers who had more information at their disposal than the ordinary people in the cities of Harare, Bulawayo, Gweru, Masvingo and Lupane. This is confirmed by Denscombe (2010) and Baskarada (2014), who mention that the individuals with relevant information and wisdom can assist in a broad understanding of studies. According to Creswell (2009:13) the approach helps to inquire what the researcher identifies in its essence for human experience, describing phenomena according to the participants. This justifies my use of this method in the examination of HE policies and their relationship to the graduates' entry into industry. In the current study, I referred to the universities in Zimbabwe with their students and managers of industries.

A small scale interview study takes place in a natural setting, which was suited for a study like this one, which involved the examination of the relationship between the variables: graduates and their entry into industry as stated by Saunders et al. (2009) and Denscombe (2010). The method is for organising social data to preserve its unitary character (Saunders et al., 2009). The researcher is enabled to have a detailed understanding of the context of the research activities (Saunders & Lewis, 2012:117). The universities and industries that were studied were real institutions and not just an artificial event created for the purpose of research. The study allows the researcher to use a variety of sources and this enables the collection of various data as part of the investigation (Blaxter, Hughes & Tight, 2010; Saunders & Lewis, 2012). Using an exploratory study approach, my focus was on four state universities and the industries around each university location in Zimbabwe. The state universities and the industries were taken as units. According to Saunders et al. (2009), Creswell (2009), Denscombe (2010) and Mwenje (2015) the choice of participants that fell into clusters or groups that shared certain patterns or configurations assist in collection of data. Baxter & Jack (2008) concur that the study of participants like university students and managers of industries allows for the examination and understanding of similarities and differences between the individuals. The study can be exemplified using the following set up, as shown in Table 3.1.

Table 3.1: Population, units and participants

Population	State universities and industries of Zimbabwe
Units	Samples of four state universities and industries from the following cities: Bulawayo, Lupane, Gweru and Masvingo.
Participants	Respondents from the four state universities and industries (10 university students and 10 managers from industries (total of 20)).

Source: Author's own compilation

The total number of managers was 10. The pseudonyms that were used for coding industry managers from each city were numbered 1–10 in order to accommodate all the 10 managers. This was done in order to protect research participants in agreement with what Gray (2014) and Baskarada (2014) recommend. The permission to carry out the research was sought from the registrars or human resource officers of universities and managers of industries. In some industries, permission was sought from the chief executive officer, manager or board of trustees, while in others; the chairperson of the board was approached for permission. There were 10 university students that were sampled.

This study is an adoption of Waghid's (2013b) proposal of the naturalistic inquiry in research that is carried out in a natural setting using. The naturalistic inquiry offers social scientists with a basic, but complete, rationale for non-positivistic approaches to research. It confronts the premise underlying the scientific tradition that all questions can be answered by employing empirical and testable research techniques. Denscombe, (2010), and Tavakol, Dennick & Tavakol, (2009) maintain that there are scientific facts which are existing paradigms and cannot be explained. They argue against traditional positivistic inquiry, and suggest an alternative approach supporting the use of the naturalistic paradigm (Denscombe, 2010; Tavakol et al., 2009). The naturalistic paradigm adopted is the plan, model or pattern that has the appearance of nature and is real (Saunders et al., 2009:145). This became the process of examining the reality in the university process of training graduates and the way they are turned out into the industry to face the world of work. The study itself was exploratory as it sought to ascertain what is happening in universities and industries and then to clarify the problem of employability through a search of literature and by interviewing managers, graduates and university students. According to Gray (2014) a research plan is what was used in this study to investigate the research problem of the mismatch between the training of graduates and their employability. Gray (2014) also asserts that a research plan is the guide for data collection and interpretation and it sets the rules that enable the researcher to conceptualise and observe the problem under study. The current study adopted the research plan reflected in Figure 3.2.

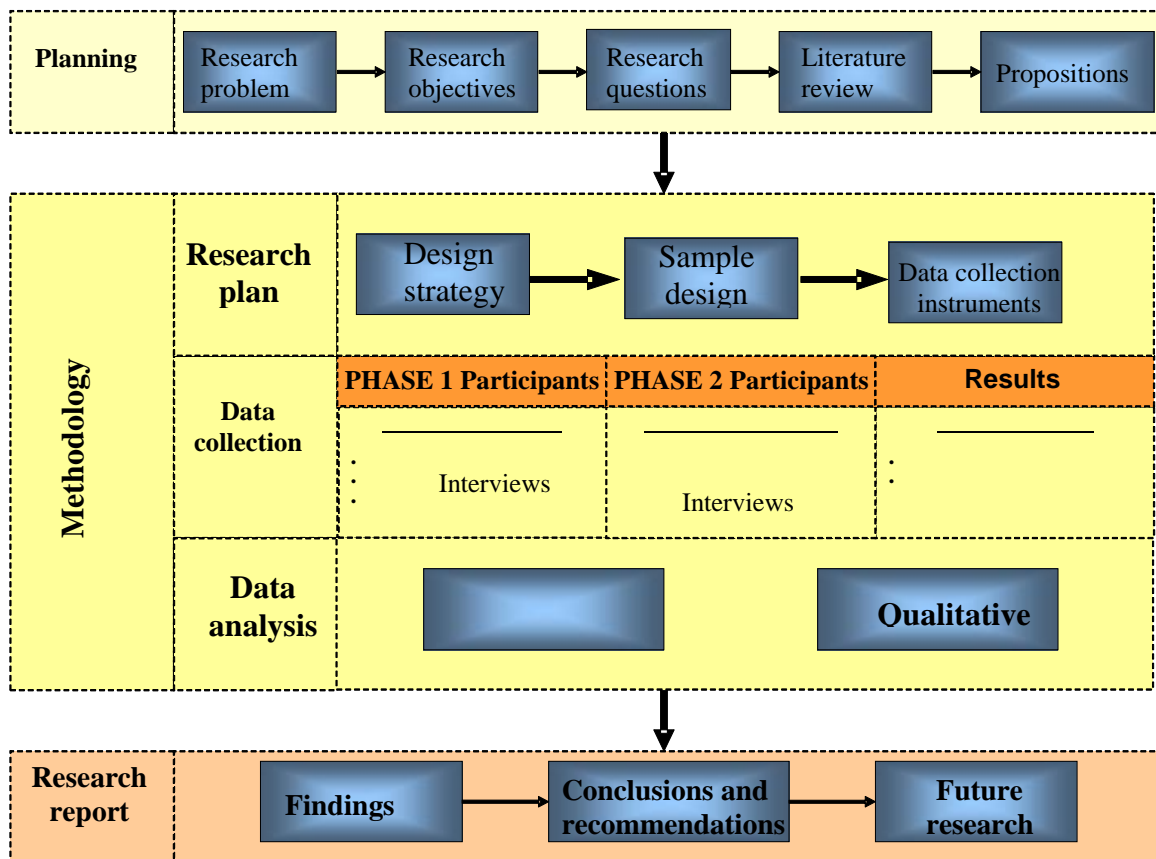


Figure 3.2: Research plan

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 3.2 was developed for the purposes of the current study in order to explain the research plan. A population comprises a sample which encompasses several units, and each unit is observed at discrete points in time, and is built upon an observation or observations (Creswell, 2009; Denscombe, 2010). The next sections discuss the population and sampling.

3.4. Population

A population is defined as a group of human beings or other entities. A sample is taken from an accessible population to whom a researcher has reasonable access, according to Denscombe (2010). With this definition in mind, one can conclude that it is a group of human beings in whom the researcher has a specific interest. A population is a group of individuals that have one or more common characteristics of interest to the researcher. Pasipamire (2012) defines the population as the study subjects, which may be individuals, groups or events. Further, Pasipamire (2012) notes that, depending on the size of the population and the purpose of the study, a researcher can study the whole

universe or a subset of the population, which is referred to as a sample. The two targeted populations for the current study were universities and industries based in Bulawayo, Lupane, Gweru and Masvingo in Zimbabwe (see the cities on the map in Figure 3.3).



Figure 3.3: Map of Zimbabwe showing the study area

Source: Infoplease Atlas (2018)

In the state universities, administrators and students were considered, and in the industries, managers who were university graduates were targeted. Many researchers, such as Mason & Dale (2010), and Cherry (2014), point out that there are two types of population: the target population which is defined as the actual population (in this case, universities and industries) and the accessible population, which is the one to which the researcher has access. In this case, the university students and the managers of industries were the accessible population. It is important to note that I purposively selected the sample for the study from this group. The target of the study was based on the institutions and industries from which I drew my samples and generalisations. As a result of the diversity and vastness of the community of students and graduates and too many industries, I had to eliminate other elements

through purposive sampling strategy in order to define my target population. The strategy is discussed in the next section.

3.5 Sampling

In this section, an overview of sampling is given, and the purposive sampling procedures are discussed.

3.5.1. Overview of sampling

In order to save money and time, I used an accessible population and adopted a purposive sampling procedure since it was not possible to reach all participants in one place. I had to rely on contacts of the first individuals with whom I came into contact. The reason why the sample is important is because within many models of scientific research, it is impossible (from both a strategic and a resource perspective) to study all members of a population for a research project, as it can take too much time. Instead, the selected participants making up the sample are chosen to ensure that the sample represents the population. If this is the case, then the results from the sample can be inferred to the population, which is exactly the purpose of inferential statistics, using information from a smaller group of participants to infer to the group of all possible participants (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Creswell & Clark, (2011:68) even encourages researchers carefully to select a manageable and simple to implement method, like a case study.

3.5.2 Sample and sampling procedures

Sampling procedures include the definition of the population, sampling techniques, and the procedures and instruments used to obtain the data from respondents, (Connaway & Powell, 2010, Denscombe, 2008, and Mason & Dale, 2010). The sample for the study enabled me to generate information that was useful for analysis and interpretation so that at the end, generalisations for the whole population could be made. According to Denscombe (2008), and Mason & Dale (2010), a sample is a small representation of the whole, which means that a section of the population is systematically or randomly selected so that it can be used for the research. Generalisations can be made regarding the overall population or research universe. For Mavodza (2010, cited in Pasipamire, 2012) the sample size is determined by three factors: what are the level of confidence at which the researcher wants to test the results, the degree of accuracy the researcher requires when approximating the population parameters, and the estimated level of variation with respect to the main variables under study. On the other hand, Saunders et al. (2009:125) states that, “in order to be able to generalise statistically about regularities of human social behaviour, it is necessary to select samples

of sufficient numerical size”. This means that the researcher has to combine deductive and inductive research approaches. In the current research the approaches were influenced by not wanting to create an inflexible methodology (deductive) that would not permit alternative explanations of what was going on in the institutions. The inductive approach allowed contextual explanations and revealed alternative explanations of what was going on in the universities and industries at the time of the current research.

3.5.3. Purposive sampling

Purposive sampling signifies participants who are judged to be good sources of information and are specifically selected for the sample. The sampling criteria were established to advance the study in order to exhibit the characteristics of the population that it represented. Fraenkel & Wallen (2008) and Creswell (2009) agree that sampling is a process of selecting individuals who will partake in a study. Mason (2010) supports this idea and poses that purposive sampling refers to selecting groups or categories to study on the basis of relevance to the research questions, theory position and most importantly, what the study is unfolding. The main aim of using purposive sampling is to make sure that the people familiar with the subject are chosen to reduce bias in the collection of data (Koerber & McMichael, 2008:464). The members of a sample are selected with a purpose to represent a location or type in relation to a key criterion.

The sample of the targeted population was chosen through a purposive sampling method in the current study. I chose the method after taking into consideration what Koerber & McMichael (2008) say about purposeful sampling, namely that it is the most important guiding principle for maximum variation. This means that researchers should seek to include people who represent the widest variety of perspectives possible within the range specified by their purpose. The current study utilised a purposive sampling technique and samples were selected accordingly as the study was based on real-life events and circumstances. I was aware that along those lines, the most obvious pitfall in purposeful sampling would be to select a sample that is not diverse enough to represent the variation that exists in the population or phenomenon being studied. I purposefully targeted four state universities (NUST, LSU, MSU and GZU) from four cities (Bulawayo, Lupane, Gweru and Masvingo). The respondents that were sampled consisted of 20 participants (10 university students and 10 managers from industries). The samples were from the diversity of all the selected universities and industries by virtue of their portfolio levels as students and graduates. Participants in each industry were from both senior management and middle management, and employees with varying levels of education and experience.

Purposive sampling represented participants who were known or judged to be good sources of information and who had specifically been sought out and selected for the sample (Denscombe, 2010). This is a method that considers whoever is available and willing to take part and who fulfils the required attributes (Yin, 2014:42–44). I had to rely on the contacts of the first individuals and sampling was not rigorous. The validation of this view is stated by Denscombe (2010) and Gray (2014), who say that in some cases, the number of possible respondents can be so small as to make sampling an issue of little concern. The participants in my study were 10 managers and 10 university students. These were sampled for the sole purpose that they would provide the answers to research objectives set out to be researched.

The choice of the universities and industries was based on two major foundations. The first premise was that these universities were the largest state universities in the main cities of Zimbabwe as opposed to the rest of the universities that are private or individually owned. The students and some managers were sampled from these universities. The sample criteria were developed in advance as stated by Koerber & McMichael (2008). Koerber & McMichael (2008:464) also state that “Purposeful sampling, the most important guiding principle is maximum variation; that is, researchers should seek to include people who represent the widest variety of perspectives possible within the range specified by their purpose.” Other managers were from the industries located around each of the universities from the targeted towns. The respondents could be considered as suitable cases for an exploratory study to examine the issue of employability of the graduates. The students and managers selected for the study had the same beliefs in education policy, training and development plus graduate entry into the job market. Table 3.2 summarises the targeted population and sampling of participants.

Table 3.2 Summary of targeted participants

Number	Designation	Category of participants	Males	Females	Total
1.	Post-industrial attachment university students	Part 3 and Part 4 students	5	5	10
2.	University managers (also university graduates)	Deans, senior assistant registrars and administrative assistants	3	3	6
3.	Industry managers (also university graduates)	Chief executive officers (CEOs), managers, director or secretary general	2	2	4
		TOTAL	10	10	20

Source: Author's own compilation

University managers and industry managers were also university graduates and university students were sampled. Post-industrial university students are those students who were doing their last year in their first degree being part threes or part fours were relevant to my research questions and helped me to develop and test theory. These respondents could be generalised samples from an accessible population to whom I had reasonable access. Although the sample was small, the interviews had potential to provide me with information that other individuals would not have (Denscombe, 2010; Mason & Dale, 2010).

3.6 Interview

The research data collecting tool employed in the current study was an interview, and this was done in two stages. By using a question guide, semi-structured interviews were conducted (Appendix A). The methods of conducting interviews citing their advantages and disadvantages are discussed in this section (see paragraphs 2 to 8 under 3.6). The objective was to promote self-understanding and to increase insight into the human condition. Facts about human behaviour were also collected, which led to verification and extension of theories, while emphasis was placed on an improved understanding of human behaviour and experience. Inquiry is characterised by Creswell (2009:195) as “a research approach that is usually conducted in natural settings, where human behaviour and events occur utilising the researcher as the chief instrument in both data gathering and analysis”. In view of this understanding, the universities and industries informed the study and validated some phenomena.

The process of inquiry is to enable understanding of a social or human problem which was based on building a complex, holistic picture, formed with words and reporting detailed views of informants (Creswell, 2009).

The interview technique was used as a tool for data collection from the university students, graduates, administrators and managers in universities and industries. The interviews probed for specific answers from people being interviewed. It is an opinion-gathering instrument that seeks a person's thoughts and ideas. Information and wisdom of key valuable informants were used in order to deal with the issues that needed to be raised and this worked when interviews were changed from one interviewee to the next interviewee (Cherry, 2014; Denscombe, 2010). The method helped in collecting primary data whilst addressing specifically what I wanted to focus on concerning the issues of graduate employability. The interviews had the power to probe and provide rich sources of data in which the voices of the participants were heard. Here, the purpose was to enable the exploring of a subject openly and to permit interviewees to express their opinions in their own words. In the examination of the employability skills required by industry, the semi-structured interviews were ideal, since they allowed interviewees to elucidate on detail unexpected by the researcher. This also permitted more complex questions.

Semi-structured interviews were one of the mixed methods used to gather data for the current study for the sole reason that the questions could be changed and adapted depending on the respondents' answers. In some instances, the interview deviated from the interview schedule, but the researcher was still able to get the interviewee back on track. Such deviation helped in the semi-structured interview process to produce qualitative data through the use of open questions. In other words, it allowed the respondents to talk in some depth, choosing their own words. The setting depicted, helped me develop an actual or real sense of their understanding of the situation. The advantage of such an interview technique was that it was valid since it gave the interviewer the chance to probe for an understanding of issues in question and could ask for clarification, thus allowing the interviewee to steer the direction of the discussion (McLeod, 2014).

The respondents were given a chance to express their views on issues of employability, and the interviewer had a chance to probe into all issues related to the relevance of university education and its effects on employability. Interview research is a necessary tool for clarifying information and allowing the subjects of the study to speak to the topic directly (Baskarada, 2014; Denscombe, 2010). An interview is a social encounter where speakers collaborate in producing retrospective and prospective accounts or versions of their past or future actions, experiences, feelings and thoughts

(Baskarada, 2014; Denscombe, 2010). Semi-structured interviews were conducted with key informants, which enabled me to understand impressions and experiences of respondents. The interviews were held in a free environment and were done in offices. A tape recorder was used to record the interviews, which became a dialogue between the respondents and myself in order to obtain specific information.

The interview technique of data collection can be used to collect qualitative data in various forms. In many qualitative studies, the database consists of interview transcripts from open-ended, focused and exploratory interviews. Qualitative interviews were used in the current study as the primary strategy for data collection in the form of open-ended questions that allowed for individual variations. According to Denscombe (2010) and Cherry (2014), there are three types of qualitative interviewing, namely conversational interviews, informal, semi-structured interviews, and standardised open-ended interviews. In this study, the conversational interview was framed as a potential source of data. The interview was treated as a neutral conduct and it was used as an occasion for producing reportable knowledge and it was seen as a conversation providing a vehicle for transmitting knowledge.

Cherry (2014) states that interviews are not merely elicited by apt questioning, nor is knowledge simply transported through respondent replies. An interview is enthusiastically and communicatively assembled in the interview encounter which could take a long time (McLeod, 2014). In this study, taking part in an interview involved information which was gathered from both parties who participated. When I asked relevant questions, I expected the respondents to give the desired information. I planned to use the interviews, which would offer the opportunity for an authentic gaze into the soul of respondents. Interviews in the current study involved acquiring various stories where people described their worlds and situations. This study provided a unique way of generating empirical data about the social world by asking people to talk about their lives, what they expected from their education system and what they are currently facing. Basically, all the interviews I conducted at the state universities and industries were interactions with the students, graduates, administrators and managers.

The purpose of conducting interviews was to generate data, which gave an authentic insight into people's experiences. Thus the interview had the key advantage that the respondents were allowed to behave in a manner that was not influenced by the study arrangements, and in the process, the respondents were expected to provide their responses freely and without fear. The interview was capable of producing situated understandings grounded in specific interactional episodes. It was hoped that the interview would transform the respondents and me into co-equals who were carrying

on a conversation about mutually relevant, often biographically critical, issues. Using interviews, I had direct contact with and came closer to the respondents and the phenomenon under study. Furthermore, my experience among these people was critical for understanding the phenomenon under discussion.

The interviews permitted me to discover the reality from people through the way they spoke, and some non-verbal clues (body language) provided me with insights into the challenges. I observed the respondents' reactions to questions, their physical characteristics or the setting and came up with crucial data for the study. I controlled the sequence of questions and used some probing questions. Face-to-face interviews have the highest response rates and they allow for open discussions with the selected respondents. In the interviews, there was an expectation of an open exchange of feelings and opinions, and the atmosphere was relaxed, especially given the fact that every effort was made to conduct the interviews in the environment of the respondent. The graduates were approached at their workplaces or at the venue most convenient for them after setting up appointments. The administrators and managers (who also formed part of the university graduates) were interviewed in their offices during times that were convenient for them. For this reason, I could collect relevant and accurate data from participants who were not strangers to the sites.

The interviews reflected disadvantages in the process of collecting qualitative data. While face-to-face methods of collecting data could be the primary and most effective strategy for collecting empirical data, the high cost became the major disadvantage of face-to-face interviews. Travel expenses and personnel costs are usually high in face-to-face interviews. It was time-consuming to travel to the cities where my data was collected, since I had to travel to Bulawayo, Lupane, Masvingo, Gweru and Harare. There are large distances between the cities where the universities and industries are located, and I needed to immerse myself in the institutions to collect data and make follow-up visits, especially when I needed to book appointments physically. Setting the interview schedules meant that I had the task of locating respondents. Despite having made appointments with the participants, I had problems in some instances locating them. Even with an appointment, respondents might be hesitant and in some cases not co-operating. However, I managed to make appointments for the interviews at a convenient time for each respondent.

After transcribing the collected data, some of the interviewees might need to verify their data and the researcher will have to send it back and wait for feedback. This could be a useful limitation as in the end; one knows that the data is authentic. As an interviewer, I developed certain skills, such as the ability to establish relationships and knowing when to review. I ensured that I took special care when

interviewing the groups. Having the knowledge that people in general have a limited attention span, I avoided lengthy interview sessions. I ensured that the language I used was suitable for the terminology that the group of people that was studied used. In this study, I ensured that the language of queries matched the social background of respondents' age, social class, educational level, and ethnicity. The language, therefore matched the interviewees according to their positions as managers or university students. However, interviews may not be the best technique to use for researching sensitive issues, for example, the relationship between employers and employees, students' and graduates' opinions about their lecturers or institutions, and many others. It could create challenges for direct interview questions as opposed to writing the answers on a questionnaire.

The pre-testing of the interview questionnaires was done during the first stage of the interviews which was done to select 36 participants (10 managers and 26 university students). During this first stage of the interviews, the findings from the responses by respondents were analysed and are presented in Chapter 4. With their informed consent, I made arrangements with respondents, who included 10 managers and 10 out of the 26 university students for a second stage of semi-structured interviews at a later stage. The respondents demonstrating the features of each category were picked conveniently from the universities and requested to answer the interview questions (Appendix A). Their responses were used to ascertain the comprehensiveness and succinctness of the questions. From the responses obtained from the first stage of interviews, an interview guide was formed that was administered during the in-depth second stage of interviews with the 10 managers and 10 university students. These semi-structured interviews, which formed the second stage of interviews, were analysed and are discussed in Chapter 5.

The university and industry managers were selected from the selected universities and industries. The universities were used as both educational institutions and as samples of industries. The purpose of the pilot study was to determine the respondents' understanding and interpretation of the interview questions. The length of the questions was tested and any feedback on the difficulty faced by respondents was noted (Denscombe, 2010). Some amendments were made to the questions, and questions were reduced and made more objective. Hence, an interview guide was developed for use during stage 2 for the interviews (see Appendix A). Based on the results of the pilot study using the interview questionnaires, I noted thematic areas that were later used as headings to construct the interview guide (Appendix A). The results were analysed later and helped me propose a thesis in defining issues for further study.

The process of study became my stepping stone to discover what is not yet known, and this led me to pursue the examination of education policy and graduate entry into industry. The results of the interviews are presented in detail in the analysis sections in Chapter 4 and Chapter 5. The importance of pre-testing is that a researcher can be guided in the layout, wording, arrangements and timing of the questions. During the interview schedules for stage 1, notes were taken and also audio-recorded and transcribed and the transcripts were analysed. The purpose was to evaluate the students' initial expectations of services provided by their universities. The results for stage 1 interviews were used to develop and improve on the interview guide for the stage 2 interviews that were used to collect more data, as discussed previously.

The interview guide was pre-tested in order to ascertain face validity and reliability and also to detect any problems likely to affect the study. The process was used for analysis and the provision of feedback from the selected participants. Thereafter, I revised my interview guide according to the comments. During the pre-testing of stage 1 of the interview guide (see Appendix A), that is during the pilot study, I monitored the strengths and imperfections of the instrument. The responses of participants were used to ascertain the comprehensiveness and succinctness of the interview guide. The results were also used to formulate, based on the results of the interviews, thematic areas that were used as headings for the interview guide later used for 20 participants (see Appendix A). The results helped me propose a thesis in defining issues for further study, which became my stepping stone to discover what was not yet known, which led me to pursue the examination of education policy and entry into industry for graduates. The individual face-to-face interviews, lasting approximately 50 minutes, were arranged for the participants who had read and signed consent forms to indicate that they were willing to participate after understanding all the procedures and issues of confidentiality and anonymity. In order to get a fairly accurate understanding of data collected through interviews, I used themes to probe for detail, elaboration and clarification. The themes that were used were as follows:

- the relationship between education and employment in Zimbabwe;
- DCE and its effects on employability; and
- university education and the development of entrepreneurship skills.

3.7 Validity, reliability and trustworthiness

The issues of validity, reliability and trustworthiness in research are a matter of concern. Since the study is a qualitative research, I chose to consider the issues of validity and reliability under qualitative approaches.

3.7.1 Validity and reliability of qualitative approaches

Plano Clark & Creswell (2008), and Noble & Smith (2015) agree that qualitative research is frequently criticised for missing scientific rigour (as opposed to quantitative research) with poor justification of the approaches adopted, absence of transparency in the analytical procedures, and findings are merely a collection of personal opinions subject to researcher bias. According to Noble & Smith (2015) it is imperative that all qualitative researchers include strategies to enhance the credibility of a study during research design and implementation. Noble & Smith (2015) state that even if there is no universally accepted terminology and criteria used to evaluate qualitative research, there are definitely some of the strategies that can enhance the reliability of study findings. Reliability refers to how a technique measures concepts so that the researchers are able to get the same results when the process is replicated as confirmed by Denscombe (2010) and Wong (2014). I was granted permission to study this topic by the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development and the Ministry of Industry and Commerce as a way of establishing and following a protocol procedure. The permission helped me to get consent from students, graduates and managers. Wong (2014) supports the idea of following procedures in getting permission to do research and collect data.

The following strategies that could enhance the reliability and validity of the study are suggested by Wong (2014), and Noble & Smith (2015):

- accounting for personal biases, which influence findings;
- to support findings, rich and thick verbatim responses should be included to support descriptions of participants' accounts;
- clarity in terms of thought processes should be demonstrated during data analysis and subsequent interpretations;
- respondent validation, such as inviting participants to comment on the interview transcript and whether the final themes and ideas created adequately reflect the phenomena being investigated; and
- data triangulation, whereby different methods and viewpoints help produce a more comprehensive set of findings.

In research, reliability can be defined as the extent to which we can depend on the results we get from the instruments so that we can make decisions based on them (May, 2011). This means that the reliability of an instrument is tested to check whether the questions are consistent. The factors that influence reliability are the purpose of the research, instruments, data collection techniques, respondents and the sample size. To determine the reliability of the instruments, the current research

used the test (first stage of interviews) and re-test (second stage of interviews) method. The validation of an instrument is the extent to which it serves the purpose for which it has been designed. Validity is concerned with the extent to which the research findings precisely represent what is happening in the situation (Denscombe, 2010; May, 2011). In other words, the data collected for this study was expected to be a true reflection of what was being studied. For example, it would be an examination of the relationship between educational policy and graduates' entry into industry.

The interview guide was pre-tested and verified to check whether the questions were understood in the same way by the respondents and for reliability, that is, internal consistency through item analysis. Item analysis involved checking whether answers for each item given during the testing bore some relationship to responses in other items and to the whole interview guide. Item analysis was chosen in addition to the other techniques. In order to ensure reliability, testing and re-testing of questions were performed since the study was conducted over time. Pre-testing according to May (2011), is like testing a new car whilst re-testing is testing again. The purpose is to learn whether it works to your satisfaction or has big problems. Pre-testing the interview guide was important because it enabled me to know whether the instrument created a positive impression that motivated people to respond. In terms of validity, the interview guide measured to which extent each variable measured what it was expected to measure. The construction of the questions was guided by concepts from models from the literature review of the study. During the pre-testing stage, the respondents assisted me to judge whether the questions were simple or difficult and where applicable, amendments had to be made. This process of pre-testing helped to ensure that the study was valid and reliable.

In addition, Thomson (2010) suggests that in order to identify a factor for good research one has to validate the data and its results. Irrespective of the approach, validity serves the purpose of checking the quality of the data and its results. Reliability is an examination of the consistency between a set of independent observations that are interchangeable, and it can be defined as the degree to which test scores are free from errors of measurement. Measurement errors reduce the reliability of the scores obtained for a researcher from a single measurement (Denscombe, 2010; Thomson, 2010). The writers affirm that it is fair to say that researchers could harbour some reservations about qualitative means of inquiry. Chief amongst these are concerns about the reliability and validity of qualitative research and the skill to generalise findings to other settings. May (2011) refers to this scenario as the trustworthiness of an inquiry. Trustworthiness applies mostly to qualitative approaches in research. This is discussed in the next section.

3.7.2 Trustworthiness in qualitative approaches

Other criteria for representing rigour within qualitative research are consistency, truth value, neutrality and applicability, as alluded to by Chipunza (2017). Unlike quantitative researchers applying statistical methods to establish the validity and reliability of research findings, qualitative researchers intend to design and incorporate methodological strategies to ensure the credibility of the findings (Chipunza, 2017). Qualitative research would have increased validity because it is likely to give the interviewer the chance to probe for deep understanding, be able to ask for clarification and allow the interviewee to steer the direction of the interview. The idea of having the opportunity to probe for deep understanding was the strength of the current study since it helped me to seek clarification where there was a need for it.

The trustworthiness in research and qualitative research seek to satisfy four criteria: dependability, transferability, conformability and credibility (Denscombe, 2010; Lourens, 2016). Research studies should focus on satisfying the four criteria in order for the studies to be deemed trustworthy. In this case, a true picture of the gap that exists between education policies and the graduates is presented in the findings. To allow transferability, it needs to be demonstrated whether the findings can justifiably be applied to other settings. For example, the data that I collected from the students and graduates, university administrators and industry managers was sampled from the selected universities and industries in Zimbabwe. The issue of dependability of criteria is difficult in research. In order to ease the difficulty, I would encourage other investigators to do further research of the study. In order to achieve conformability, I took steps to demonstrate that findings which emerged from the data and not from students and graduates, university administrators and industry managers' own predispositions. I was responsible for ensuring that other students researching a similar issue of graduate employability could follow the model of my study to ensure trustworthiness.

Positivists often question the trustworthiness the internal validity of qualitative research. The need for having studies that measure or test what is actually intended is emphasised. The emphasis is on making studies that satisfy the following criteria as alluded to earlier. As I engaged in the qualitative research, I intended to meet the criteria. My intention was to try and answer the question, "how congruent are the findings with reality?" Credibility, therefore, is one of the most important factors in establishing trustworthiness. The adoption of research methods that are well established, both in qualitative investigation in general and in information sciences in particular, is done to achieve trustworthiness. Amongst many researchers, Creswell (2008) and Cherry (2014) recognise the significance of incorporating precise operational measures for the concepts that are being studied. My study employed specific procedures: it pursued line of questioning in the data gathering sessions and

the methods of line of questioning data analysis derived from literature which had been utilised successfully in previous comparable studies (Cherry, 2014).

Another strategy I used to ensure trustworthiness in qualitative research was becoming familiar with the culture of the participating organisations before the first data collection dialogues took place. This was achieved through consulting appropriate documents and preliminary visits to the sampled universities and industries themselves. The greatest advantage I had in my study was that I am employed by NUST. However, I made arrangements to travel to the other universities and visited the industries around those universities in order to collect data. I had prolonged engagements as an investigator with the participants at NUST and industries in Bulawayo. I had to put in extra effort to prolong engagements in other cities. The prolonged engagements helped me to gain a satisfactory understanding of the relevant organisation and to establish a relationship based on trust with the participants. Unfortunately, if too many demands are made on staff, those responsible for allowing the researcher access to the organisation may be deterred from co-operating.

Prolonged engagements may also raise suspicion, especially when the investigators become so immersed in the culture of the organisation under study that their professional judgments are influenced. However, since I had no control over choosing respondents a few uncooperative individuals were selected, but through consistent visits and persuasion, some data was collected as they later agreed to participate. Those who chose not to participate, were excused. The individual perspectives and experiences were verified against others. The exercise produced a rich picture of the attitudes, needs or behaviours of participants, and this enhanced the contextual data relating to the fieldwork site(s) as shown in Chapters 4 and 5. Where similar results were produced at different sites, and from different participants, the findings had greater credibility, hence boosting the trustworthiness of the qualitative research.

The strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research also included ensuring honesty of participants when contributing data. Each person who was approached was given an opportunity to refuse to participate to ensure that the data collection sessions involved only those who were genuinely willing to take part and were prepared to provide data freely. Participants were encouraged to be frank from the start. Indications that there were no right answers to the questions were stated, and the independent status of the researcher was emphasised as often as possible. Participants were given the freedom to talk of their experiences without fear of losing credibility, even in the eyes of their superiors, because they had the right to withdraw from the study at any time. All these methods were strategies that were utilised to ensure trustworthiness. The credibility of the researcher is

especially important in qualitative research as he or she is the person who is the major instrument of data collection. The biographical information which relates to the personal and professional information relevant for participants becomes important. The need to capture data accurately was important, and for this reason, a tape recorder was used. The verification of the investigator's emerging theories and inferences as they were formed during the dialogues and the ability of the researcher to relate his or her findings to an existing body of knowledge, which is key for evaluating works of qualitative inquiry, were also important.

The challenge is always to demonstrate that the findings and conclusions are applicable to other situations and populations, since the findings of a qualitative project will be specific to a small number of particular environments and individuals. According to the positivist approach (see Denscombe, 2010; Tavakol et al., 2009), dependability in addressing the issue of reliability means that, if the work were repeated in the same context, with the same methods and with the same participants, similar results will be obtained. If future researchers repeat the work and carry out research in a similar area, trustworthiness will mean they are to gain the same results. In this section on trustworthiness of qualitative research, four criteria that may be addressed by qualitative researchers hoping to present a convincing case that their work is academically sound were presented. Strategies for ensuring trustworthiness in qualitative research to address the four criteria (credibility, transferability, dependability and conformability) have been discussed. A range of strategies that may be adopted by future investigators in response to these issues has also been highlighted. Future investigators could assess the extent to which they are able to apply these strategies to their particular areas of investigation.

3.8 Data collection and analysis

This section considers how qualitative data was analysed.

3.8.1 Analysis of qualitative data

During the interviews, notes were taken and audio-recordings were made. Afterwards, the data was transcribed. Transcripts were analysed in order to integrate themes and concepts into a theory. The theory offered an accurate and detailed, but subtle, interpretation of the research field (Denscombe, 2010; Mason & Dale 2010). NVivo Version 20 was used to show the dominant themes and to determine the frequency of themes in the interviews (Bazeley, 2009:14). The NVivo Version 20 was used to analyse data and determine frequencies and show dominance of themes (Denscombe, 2010; Mason & Dale 2010). Recommendations and knowledge for policymakers were identified as

highlighted in chapter 6. Qualitative data collected was coded and analysed according to a particular category of respondents, namely the students, graduates, university administrators and industry managers. Coding involved the identification of themes contained in specific texts, which was not limited to only beliefs and experiences, but also to the opinions that the respondents would have tried to communicate. After coding, the data was entered in a spreadsheet and cleaned before the data analysis began. The process of cleaning the data was a method of detecting errors in order to ensure that the output from the process was reliable. It ensured quality control, completeness and internal consistence of respondents gathered. Qualitative analysis of data involved looking at numerical evidence but concentrated on looking at events, sounds, comments, descriptions and behaviours. The analysis was done both manually and with the assistance of computer-aided qualitative data analysis (CAQDAS) tools, for example, the NVivo (Bazeley, 2009:14).

Descriptive statistics (tables and graphs), Microsoft Excel and SPSS Version 20 were used. SPSS Version 20 was utilised to determine descriptive statistics like frequency counts, mean, standard deviation and percentage to analyze the bio-data information of the respondents and the research questions. These were used because of the efficiency and adaptability for the analysis of statistical measures of central tendencies and dispersion, frequencies, tables and graphs where appropriate (Pallant, 2011). Reliability was assessed using the Cronbach's coefficient alpha in order to make sure that the SPSS was free from random errors (Pallant, 2011). The process of coding that was used in the analysis of data and the use of SPSS are described by Pallant (2011) and Cherry (2014) using a grounded theory approach taking the view of the constant comparative method and the public and hidden transcript theory. The grounded theory method consists of a number of data collecting and analysis strategies used simultaneously (Cherry, 2014; Pallant, 2011). The method allowed me as a researcher to compare data with other data, data with categories or one category with another category as recommended by (Cherry, 2014; Pallant, 2011). The data collected through interviewing different participants could be compared in the analysis process. Some hidden ways of behaviour could be established during the interactions in interviews, for instance, stifled anger and bitten tongues could be recorded when graduates were asked to comment on whether university authorities prepared them adequately for the world of work. The behaviour, roles and language, including rumours, gossip, nicknames, movement of eyes in different directions, and others were also recorded and analysed accordingly (Cherry, 2014; Pallant, 2011).

3.9 Ethical consideration (risks and steps to mitigate risks)

There were ethical issues that had to be considered when designing and conducting this research. Ethical considerations are important in research and, according to May (2011), ethics assist in

determining the difference between acceptable and unacceptable behaviours. Firstly, ethical standards help to prevent falsifying of data and promote the primary goal of research, which is the pursuit of knowledge and truth (May, 2011). Secondly, ethical standards help encourage an environment of trust, accountability and mutual respect among researchers especially when considering issues related to data sharing, co-authorship, copyright guidelines and confidentiality (May, 2011). In this study, data was collected from human beings as research subjects (university students, graduates, administrators and industry managers). The ethical considerations were very important, and this resulted in the adoption of codes and policies that outlined ethical behaviour and guided the research as recommended by May (2011). There was a need to include the ethics statement in order to apply for ethical clearance at the university. Ethical consent letters for my targeted population were created (see Appendices C1 and C2), a step indicating that I was aware of risks that were involved in this research. A letter to obtain ethical clearance letters from institutions was used (see Appendix B). I trust that readers will support and believe in the research, especially when they are assured that I followed the appropriate guidelines for issues concerning human rights. It is important to explain further what the term 'ethics' means and also to discuss the issues of anonymity and confidentiality in the following sections.

3.9.1 Definition of ethics

Ethics in research are concerned with what is wrong or right as far as the conducting of the research is concerned (Saunders et al., 2009), The way the research is conducted should conform to generally accepted norms, which develop codes of behaviour to ensure that the rights of human beings involved are protected. According to Saunders et al. (2009) and Denscombe (2010) the agreement is that ethics are norms or standards of appropriate behaviour that guide our relationships with others or those individuals who become the subjects of our study. As I interacted with people through the processes of interviews and documentation analysis in my study, ethical issues arose. The main concern was to avoid potential or actual conflict of interests (Denscombe (2010). The right to collect data through, for example, interviews with the students, graduates, university administrators and industry managers in this study was not exercised at the expense of the interviewees' right to privacy.

There are three principles relevant to the ethics of research involving human subjects, namely respect for people, beneficence, and justice (Resnik, 2015). These principles are agreed upon by Denscombe (2010). In conducting this study, I took great care to understand and be familiar with any and all of the regulations associated with the fields of the study. It was extremely important to protect the rights of the participants. An agreement between the participants and myself was made to ensure that the organisations would remain anonymous, as naming the institutions could open the participants to

hostilities. For this reason, numbers and codes were used for respondents from universities and industries. I ensured that respondents did not suffer physical harm, discomfort, pain, embarrassment or loss of privacy. Informed consent, confidentiality, anonymity and the participants' right to privacy were some of the measures used to ensure that treatment of the participants, respondents or subjects would adhere to the principles of respect for people, beneficence and justice. The participants were encouraged to remain anonymous throughout the study.

3.9.2 Potential risks in data collection procedures

The respondents were given the chance to withdraw. In some cases, unwilling respondents were identified and others recruited. The responses of university students, graduates, administrators and industry managers that were willing were collected and recorded. The time needed to participate was identified and it was sensible to provide a time range. Interviews took from twenty to thirty minutes. Recalling traumatic or distressing events was an upsetting activity, causing some level of suffering for the participants. The relatively short-term suffering involved within the specific time frame of my study was followed, for some participants, by an extended period of flashbacks, nightmares and fears.

The decision to ask individuals to participate in research activating such memories was never taken lightly, for example, concerning the difficult experiences the students and graduates had. The best solution to this risk was to design the research so that it provided solutions to problems. The subjects were honestly informed of the purpose of the research, and they were never subjected to respond to interview questions without their informed consent. Boredom, mental fatigue, embarrassment at poor performance, or frustration became minor but common risks. The participants were identified on the consent statement. Invasion of privacy by asking about income or health habits might have caused unnecessary discomfort to subjects. I, however, ensured that I refrained from such questions or if I needed to ask about it, I provided a clear rationale about their appropriateness for my proposed research. The steps I took to mitigate the risks are discussed in the next section.

3.9.3 Steps to mitigate risks

The steps that I took to mitigate the risks during the data collection process were taken as discussed under the following issues: ethical clearance, informed consent, permission to carry out research, anonymity, and confidentiality.

3.9.3.1 Ethical clearance

I submitted an application form for ethical clearance and attached relevant documents to the Human Research Ethics Committee at Stellenbosch University. The relevant documents were comprised of a

completed application form, a research proposal, an interview guide, consent forms and information sheets, permission letters from institutions or organisations where the research would be conducted, and any recruitment material for participants. My application was approved and the ethical clearance letter is attached (Appendix D).

3.9.3.2 Informed consent

Informed consent was a way of assuring that the participants understood what it meant for them to participate in a particular research study. In this study, I gave them a chance to read and sign a form for informed consent in order to acknowledge participation on condition of anonymity. The form informed them fully about all relevant aspects of the study before they agreed to participate (Appendices C1 and C2).

3.9.3.3 Permission to carry out research

To gain entry into institutions or organisations where the research would be conducted, relevant permission letters were obtained in advance (Appendix B). I commenced my study by sending a letter to the Permanent Secretary for the Ministry of Higher Education to gain access to universities. A response was received and permission was granted. More permission to carry out the research and to identify and recruit potential respondents was sought from the registrars and human resource officers of each university and managers of industries. In some industries, permission was sought from the CEO, manager and board of trustees, while in others the chairperson of the board was approached for permission. The relevant officers from whom permission was sought were assured that the study was conducted purely for research purposes and that it was not intended to be used for any other purpose.

3.9.3.4 Anonymity and confidentiality

I ensured that the participants remained anonymous throughout the study. An anonymous study is one in which no one including the researcher can identify who provided data. It may be difficult to conduct an anonymous questionnaire by post because of the need of following up on non-responders. However, it is possible to ensure that confidentiality is maintained, if those conducting the study promise not to reveal the information to anyone as they would be guided by ethics to do (Alshenqeeti, 2014). The current study used codes to identify the universities and industries. The study also used pseudonyms and not names of participants from state universities and industry to protect research participants. One would believe that the emphasis on confidentiality and anonymity in data collection would enhance the validity of the study. Full or maximum participation was expected, as Saunders et al. (2009) and Wong (2014) concur. The participants were informed that they had the right to withdraw from the study at any time and that they would never be subjected to any form of physical harm. The codes and numbers were protected. The names and locations were documented in field notes and they were coded.

In addition, I asked for permission to use any personal information in my reports. Hence, I protected the participants' confidentiality by not disclosing personal characteristics that could allow anyone to guess the identities of people who played a role in the research. Such emphasis on anonymity assured participants that their rights would be respected. Hence, full or maximum participation was expected in the study without forcing any individual to participate. Saunders et al. (2009) and Wong (2014) agree that the notion of anonymity is supported and when dealing with research ethics, it is always necessary to consider the principles of ethics. The principles of ethics are "fairness, honesty, openness of intent, disclosure of methods, the ends of the researcher to guarantee unequivocally individual privacy, and an informed willingness on the part of the subject to participate voluntarily in research activity" (Wong, 2014:139).

The research methodology of the study as discussed in this chapter included the research design, data collection instruments, sampling procedures and the data analysis process. The small scale study utilised interviews in order to give a full understanding of impressions and experiences. In order to help the study, get information easily and quickly in a non-threatening way, an interview guide was constructed and the target populations were purposively sampled. Contact with participants was both telephonic and personal during the interviews. The next chapter focuses on the analysis of results.

CHAPTER 4

Data presentation, analysis, and interpretation of findings – semi-structured interviews stage 1

4.1 Introduction

This chapter seeks to present the analysis and interpretation of the findings of the data collected during the first stage of interviews. The process of semi-structured interviews was done in two stages: 1 and 2. Stage 2 is discussed under chapter 5. Each stage took approximately 50 minutes per participant. All participants were made aware that I might invite them for a follow-up interview. The purpose of my study, as was clearly stated in Chapter 1 was mainly to pursue the mismatch between graduates' performance and the industry's expectations. The process was that of the examination of the mismatch between education policy and employment opportunities. The unemployment rate is high and could be caused by the disparity between education policy innovations and graduates' accessing the work market. The analysis was based on the research objectives in 1.10 and questions in 1.11 and 1.12.

4.2 Instructions to university students

The students were told that the purpose of the interview was to assist in developing a clear understanding of the relationship between graduation and employability. The major concern was their employability skills as opposed to the expectations of the employers in pursuit to meet the aspirations and needs of workers. The information gathered would be used to propose an idealist future growth and development direction with interventions to gauge the impact of strategies to improve graduates' skills for employment and employability and enhance university programmes. The university students had been identified as key players during the selected period of my study. My study intended to evaluate the student life in order to assist in coming up with strategies that could be implemented to enhance universities' programmes. It was hoped that the findings would assist in making students ready for the workplace and also to become efficient co-workers. Through the process of the interview, I was seeking views from the participants on what they considered as the relationship between the education and training of students, and expectations of industries in Zimbabwe. The main focus was on studying the journey of the graduates from being a graduate to being an employee as confirmed by Lowden et al. (2011), Lourens (2016), and Makou & Wilkinson (2018) who write about their experiences with South African and English graduates who face great challenges respectively. In

this study, the focus is on the experiences of graduates in Zimbabwe and the hurdles they face as they enter the world of work.

4.3 Instructions to managers

The purpose of the interview was to assist in developing a clear understanding of what employability skills were as far as employers in the industry were concerned in their pursuit of meeting the aspirations and needs of workers. The information gathered would be used to propose an idealist future growth and development direction with interventions to gauge the impact of strategies to improve graduates' skills for employment and employability, and enhance university programmes. The managers had been identified as some of the participants for this study. My study intended to evaluate their institutions as well as to assist in coming up with strategies that could be implemented to enhance universities' programmes in order to make students ready for the workplace and become efficient co-workers. Through the interview process, I sought their views on what they considered as the relationship between educational policy, education and training and HE students' access to the industry in Zimbabwe.

4.4 Confidentiality and consent

The interviews were totally anonymous and voluntary and would be used only for the purpose of this study. The respondents were notified to air their views freely, and also to end the interview at any time which they wanted. The information they provided would be treated as confidential and names of the interviewees would not be mentioned in the research report, and also the information provided will not be used against their wish. The information would contribute to providing evidence and emphasis to the data already collected by other means. This will help in providing further generations of knowledge and understanding of the relationship between educational policy and HE students' access to industries in Zimbabwe.

4.5 Composition of the population in the interviews

The details of the composition of the targeted participants have been presented in Table 4.1 and Table 4.2. Stage 1: semi-structured interviews had participants that were comprised of 10 managers and 26 university students. The participants in stage 2 comprised of 10 managers and 10 university students who had been selected from the same population as the 26 university students through a purposive sampling technique. These students had been selected based on their availability for the second stage of the interviews. It was important for me to interview the same respondents since the activity offered the respondents more chances of going into sufficient details to unravel the complexities of a given

situation. In agreement to the interviewing method I used, Denscombe (2010), Bradshaw (2012) and Cairo (2017) say that it is important to get information from a small sample of respondents that can contribute to the field of education. The writers agree that the same sample of respondents interviewed over a period of time at different stages can be probed to elaborate and clarify on education policy issues.

Table 4.1: Composition of population: semi-structured interviews – stage 1A

Category	Number of participants	Description
Managers	10 (from industries and universities)	Deans, Senior Assistant Registrars, Administrative assistants (from universities), CEOs, managers, directors, Senior general secretary (from companies)
University students	26 (from 4 universities)	Part 3s & 4s from different faculties

Source: Author's own compilation

Table 4.2 Composition of the population: semi-structured interviews – stage 1B

Category	Number of participants	Description
Managers	10 (from industries and universities)	Deans, Senior Assistant Registrars, Administrative assistants (from universities), CEOs, managers, directors, Senior general secretary (from companies)
University students	10 (5 males and 5 females from the 4 sampled universities)	Part IIIs and IVs

Source: Author's own compilation

4.6 Stage 1 semi-structured interviews

The key respondents in this part of the study comprised of 10 managers and 26 post-industrial university students from selected universities. I booked appointments for interviews with each one of them at times convenient to them. In order to maintain confidentiality and anonymity as encouraged by Denscombe (2010), Mason & Dale (2010), and Gray (2014), I coded the participants as respondents 1–10 for managers and respondents 11–36 for students. The method that was used for data analysis was qualitative. The package that was used in the analysis of the data collected from the semi-structured interviews was SPSS. All the responses in this first stage of interviews were captured

in an Excel template, and then later transcribed to the SPSS template to produce the highest frequencies of occurrences. The results were presented in graphs, then analysed, interpreted and are discussed in the following sections.

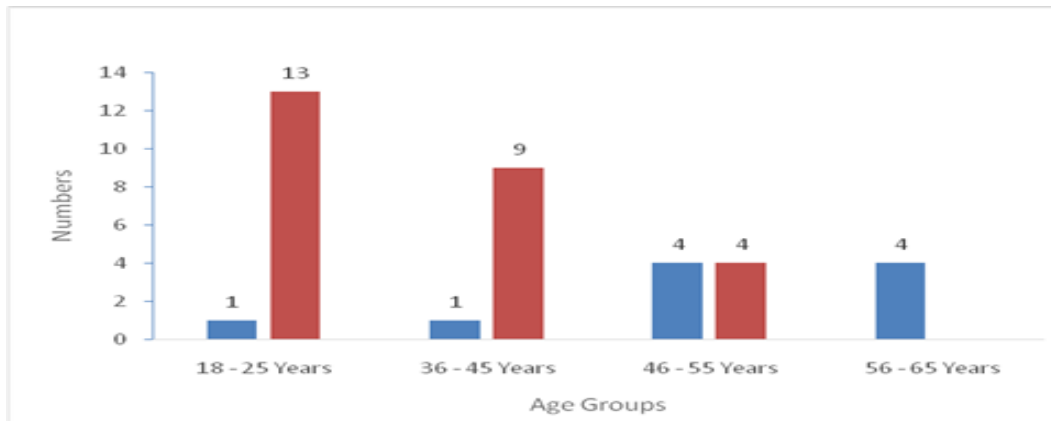
4.6.1 Presentation, analysis, and interpretation of stage 1A - Semi-structured interviews:

After introducing myself and emphasising the issues of confidentiality and anonymity to each of the 36 participants, I led them through signing the consent forms. I allowed a spontaneous conversation which is also known as the unstructured interview, where by not a specific set of questions were asked in a predetermined order. My focus was to gather information in any sequence. I avoided leading questions, probed beyond the expected answer, recorded participants' words and wrote notes. Later I organised the information that I wanted to use in order to come up with an analysis. The information I wanted to collect was: background factors for managers and post-industrial university students, challenges and barriers faced and the expectations of the education policies, and industry and employability issues. The presentation, analysis, and interpretation are presented in the following sections and focuses on achieving the research objectives and also answers the research question and sub-questions as provided in 4.2 to 4.4.

4.6.1.1 Background information for managers and university students

The backgrounds of the participants were analysed on the basis of their ages, gender, marital status, highest educational status, the role played in current status and length of time the person had been in that position. This part sought to identify demographics and profiles of respondents. The purpose of this part was to show how these aspects affected the relationship between graduates and their entries into the industry. The importance of the background of participants is upheld in literature by Denscombe (2010) and Gray (2014) when they give reasons for researching from different walks of life for equity considerations. They argue that this ensures that all-important problem areas get considered from different ages, genders and participants' roles. Both scholars posit that it helps the researcher to bring together ideas of different ages and genders and helps create a climate of dialogue in solving problems. The strategy also helps in determining inequalities between ages, genders, social groups, and statuses. Recommendations can then be made on how to fight against any challenges and aim at redressing any social inequalities. In his researches, Denscombe (2010) had noticed that there were still very "marked inequalities" between ages, genders, socio-professional groups and level of attainment at school.

Figure 4.1 shows the summary of age group distribution of 10 managers and 26 university students. Half of the students, 13 out of 26, were in the 18–25 year age group and they were doing their first degree. They were followed by the 9 respondents in the 36–45 year age group, and lastly 4 respondents in the 46–55 year group. These students were already doing their second degree, such as a master’s degree. Nine of the students, as reflected in Figure 4.1, had not indicated their age groups. As for the managers, only two were in the 18–25 and 36–45 age groups according to Figure 4.1. These are the managers who were employed and promoted fast into higher positions after their first undergraduate degree and professional degree respectively. Four were in the 46–55 year age group and the other four in the 56–65 year age group, that is, near retirement age.



Key – red for students and blue for managers

Figure 4.1: Age groups

Source: Research results

Figure 4.2 below shows the number of males and females who participated. For both managers and the student population, it was mostly a higher number for females who were available for the interviews. The text search query results show that of the total target population of 36, 20 were females (55.6%) and 16 (44.4%) were males.

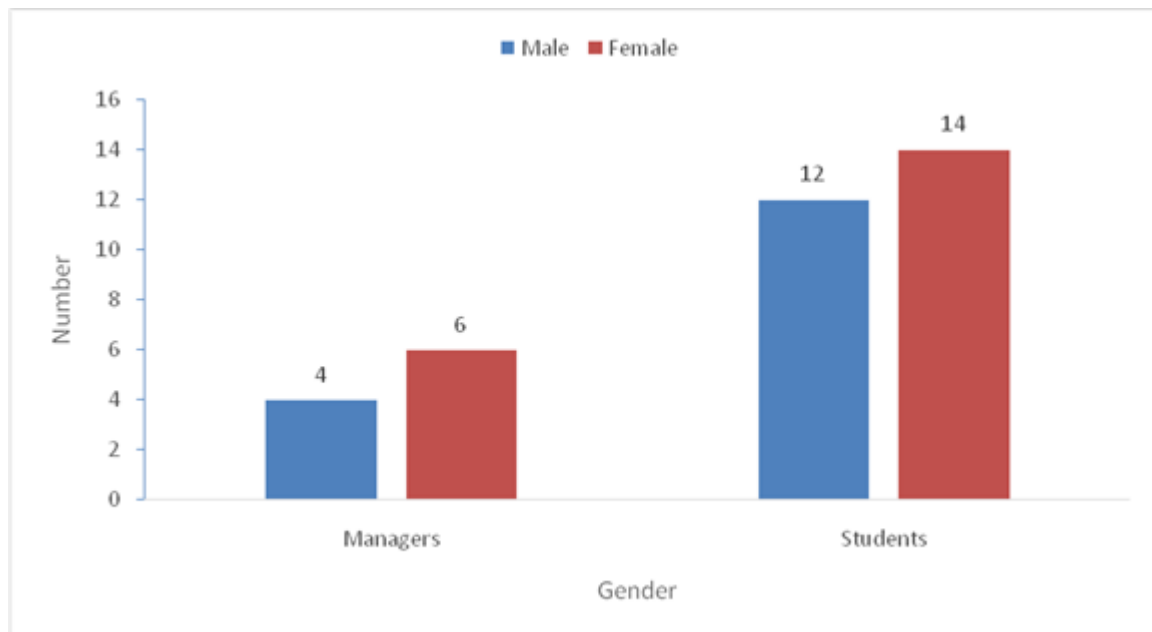


Figure 4.2 Demographics information on gender

Source: Research results

The results show that in the sampled respondents, more students were females and more managers were females who were willing to participate and share their views on policy issues as opposed to their male counterparts. This pattern sounds familiar, but is also confirmed by Hogan (2016) who observes that most female managers are freer to express themselves. She posits that once the population base is determined, policy decisions can be made, and the policies are expected in all likelihood to determine the extent of provision for education. Policy planners need guidance on what is possible for which groups of people, and on what would be suitable for females or males.

Figure 4.3 illustrates the marital status of managers, and students recruited for this research. In all, 16 participants out of the total of 36 were married, 17 of the population were single of which 15 were undergraduate students, and 3 were separated. The results in Figure 4.3 illustrate that most of the managers were married since the entry qualification for most managers would involve someone who would have completed higher levels of education, with work experience. Most of them at such a level would be mature and settled in marriage. Very few would be still single or would never have been married for one reason or the other (Hogan, 2016). Conversely, higher levels of single participants most likely came straight from school, and were doing their undergraduate studies. The purpose of knowing the background of participants especially here with regards to their marital status helped me to know the kind of people I was gathering data from especially concerning their areas of responsibility. A married person would be concerned more with issues of employment since he/she would be a bread winner. The same could apply to single persons but with varied degrees of responsibility. A number of students were already married, and engaged in their university education

later in life. Figure 4.4 provides a summary of their educational qualifications showing that the majority were undergraduate students, as opposed to the postgraduate students.

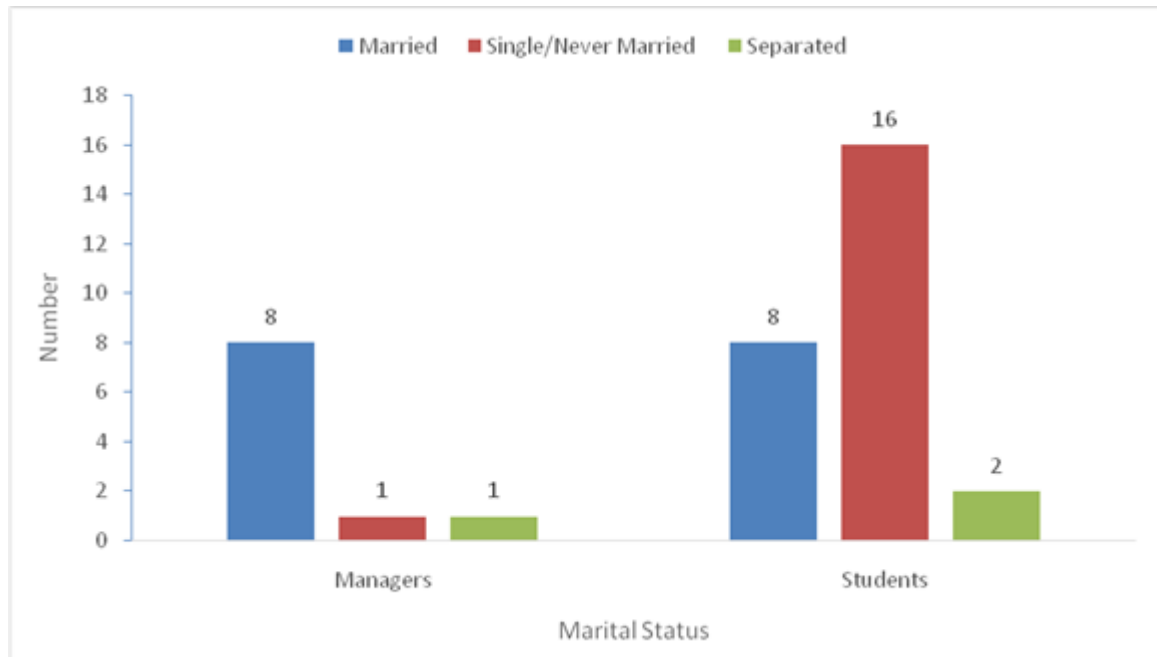


Figure 4.3 Marital status

Source: Research results

Figure 4.4 shows the highest educational qualifications obtained by the participants. Since the major purpose of the research was to answer the question, “how does the Zimbabwean HE system’s process of implementing education policy relate to the students’ access to the industry?” The most targeted population group was the undergraduate students. These students were already in the middle of their studies and had done their industrial attachment. The undergraduate students were the largest group in this section and I had the opportunity to discover how relevant their education and training was in the process of implementing education policies. The students were able to compare what they learned at university with their industry experience. The dialogue with these students also probably helped in preparing them for what they were likely to experience when they complete their studies and go back to the world of work (Mashaya & Tafirenyika, 2017).

Twenty one (21) out of a population of 26 students, forming 80.8% of the population were undergraduate students and 19.2% were doing their masters’ degree programmes. The students who did their masters’ degrees had some experience of working after the undergraduate degrees while hoping to get employed, and when they did not get jobs, they finally resorted to continuing with further studies. The findings accounted for in this Figure 4.4 show that most managers, six out of the targeted population of 10, had master’s qualifications with only two with doctorates. The other two were the young managers already accounted for in Figure 4.1 holding bachelor’s and professional

degrees respectively. These findings provide a balanced range in the qualifications in order to get more information to answer the research questions without relying only on what undergraduate students say. Those with master's and doctorate qualifications in the managerial arena also provided a comprehensive coverage for the provision of helpful information that would determine policy decisions to be used to tackle the problem of graduate unemployment.

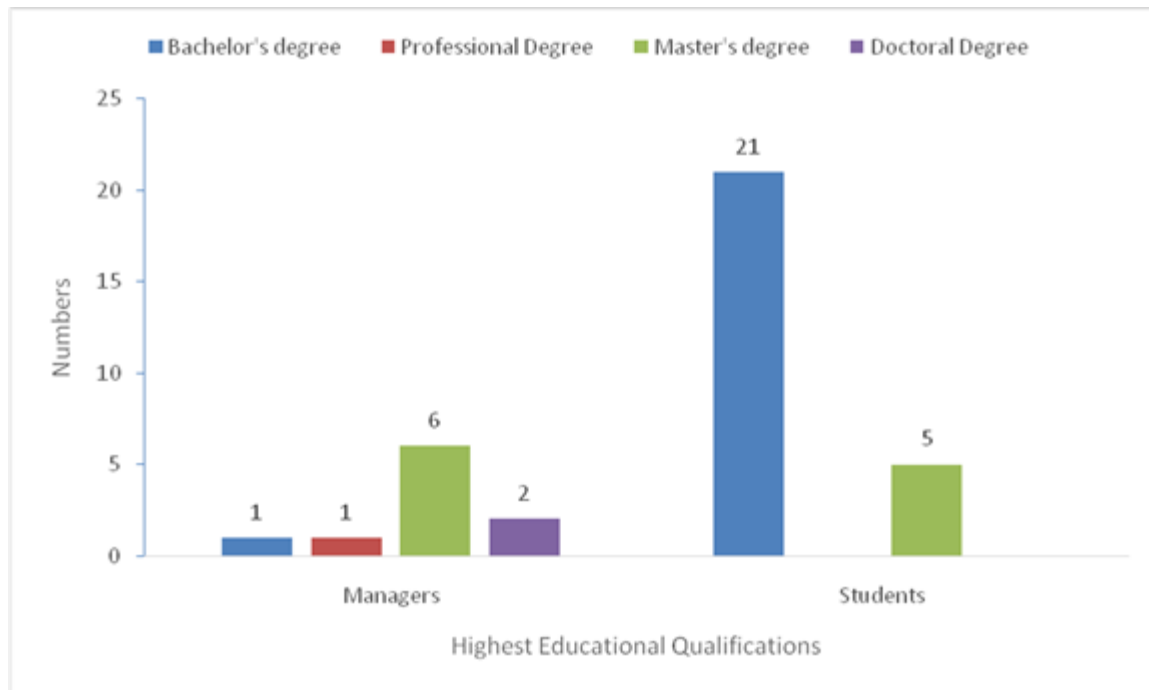


Figure 4.4 Highest educational qualifications

Source: Research results

Figure 4.4 illustrates that the participants had a wide range of qualifications. This helped me to come up with new knowledge on education policy innovations. Chapter 6 provides suggestions on how to contribute to the improvement of universities and industry. Figure 4.5 depicts the different roles that the participants played either as managers or as students. This figure can be interpreted in relation to Figure 4.4, where a summary of the highest educational qualifications was provided, especially for the students: 21 were undergraduate students and five were postgraduate students. What Figure 4.5 therefore, means, is that out of the total of 26 student participants, 16 only identified their roles as students but had not yet identified their career roles depending on the programmes in which they were already engaged. These were part of the undergraduate students. The rest of the students could identify their roles as administrative, clerical, marketing and executive from part of the undergraduate group and mainly from those in the master's category. The majority of the managers, seven out of 10 were administrators, two were academics and two managers revealed that their roles were that of

being students. This takes us back to the reflection of the two young managers with undergraduate and professional degrees depicted in Figure 4.1 and Figure 4.4. Although they were in this leadership position, it was clear that they were engaging in further studies.

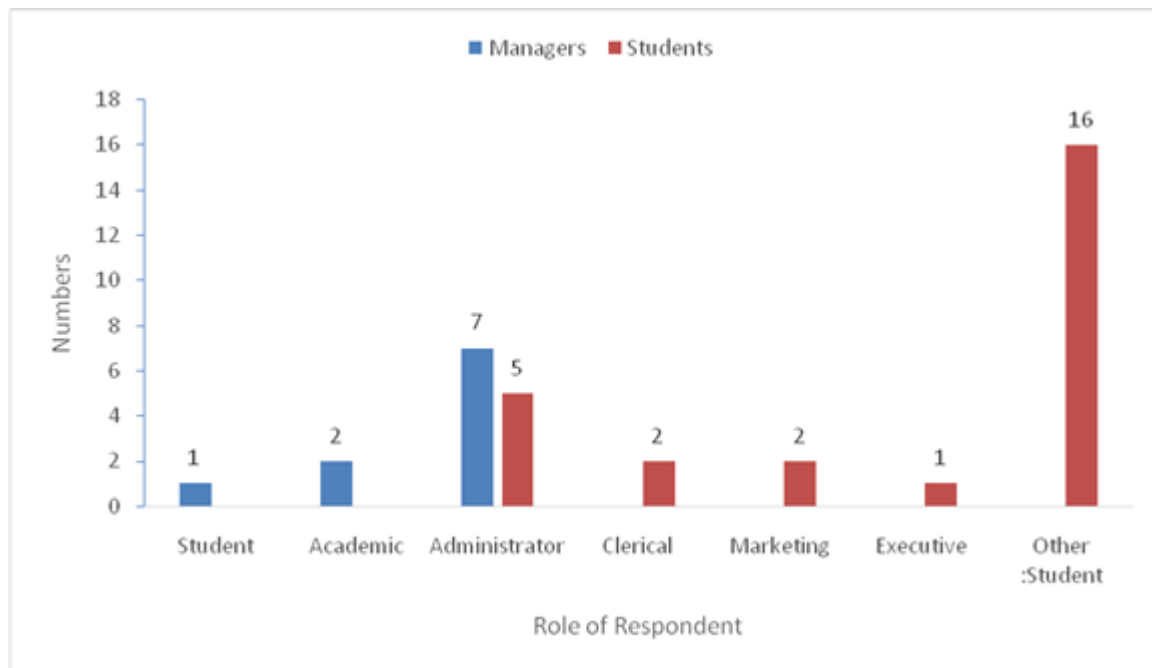


Figure 4.5 Role of respondents

Source: Research results

Figure 4.6 shows the number of years spent by managers in their institutions. The majority had spent more than five years in the managerial positions. Three managers had less than a year, two to three years and three to four years respectively. This shows that generally managers spent time in the managerial posts for more than five years (Hogan, 2016). It is evident from Figure 4.1 that most of these managers would even be older and close to retiring age. Figure 4.1 demonstrates that four out of a population of 10 managers were in the age group of 56–65 years. Companies should be encouraged to promote job rotation and contractual positions for three to five years so that other workers could be afforded an opportunity to be managers especially when those managers would be on leave (Hogan, 2016). This also had a great effect on the issue of unemployment and underemployment. As long as some workers stayed in the same some positions for a long time, no openings for new jobs could be seen. The longer some employees stayed in managerial positions for a very long time, the more some potential managers would remain either unemployed or underemployed in lower or non-managerial positions.

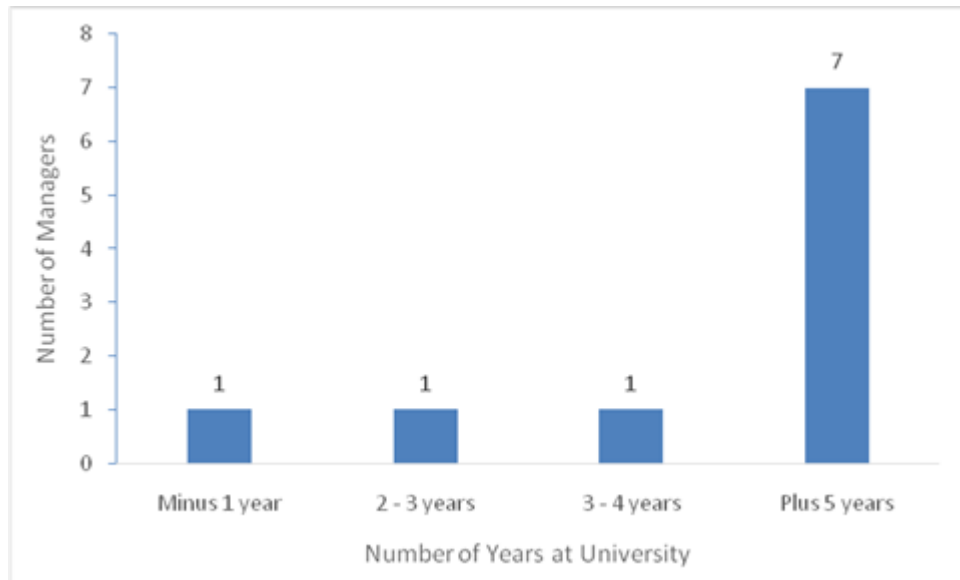


Figure 4.6 Number of years as managers

Source: Research results

Figure 4.6 showing the number of years spent by managers in their institutions is echoed in the literature by Hogan (2016), who writes that companies have complex situations. Hogan (2016) claims that there is, therefore, a great demand for new and fresh management strategies that could be covered by job rotations or employing new managers, say, after three to five years. The key should be to manage the great strategic challenge of companies to work not only competitively, but also cooperatively. The opportunities should be created for new graduates to bring in their fresh new management strategies. This is also supported by Follmer, Talbot, Kristof-Brown, Astrove, & Billsberry (2018) who claim that in research it has been demonstrated that young workers are better equipped to face and meet the divergent needs of their counterparts. This could have a great effect on worker motivation and improve the performance of workers.

4.6.1.2 Challenges and barriers faced by managers and students

The purpose of interviewing the participants was to discover possible barriers that were experienced during the process of implementing education policy and students' access to industry. The other purpose was also to determine easily any factors influencing the education policy innovations in the process of education, training, and development of students in the universities identified. After collecting the background information from the 10 managers and the 26 university students, I went further to ask questions that led me to collect the information I needed concerning the challenges and barriers the participants encountered. When asked what their long-term goals were after completing their studies, the students had different opinions.

Table 4.3 provides a summation of their long-term goals, with 26.9% that said that their goal was to look for jobs although they seemed to wonder whether they were going to get the jobs because of the economic situation that had led to closure of many companies. The 19.2% looked forward to continuing with their studies, 15.4% wanted to start a businesses and 15.4% thought migrating to another country would be the best plan. Some individuals were not sure of what would be the best thing to do. These students had to list a combination of goals which they mentioned would be alternatives or they could do both. For instance, whilst looking for a job one could be engaging in further studies. Or one could be looking for a job, and whilst waiting as they had discovered that jobs were not readily available, they could be starting businesses or applying for jobs in neighbouring countries or then also engage in further studies. They seem to have discovered that it was easier to get places for studying as long as they managed to get enough money for paying fees.

Table 4.3 Students' long-term goals

Long-term goal	Frequency	Percentage
Look for jobs	7	26.9
Further studies	5	19.2
Migrate	4	15.4
Start business	4	15.4
Look for jobs, migrate, further studies	2	7.7
Continue with current job	1	3.8
Look for jobs, further studies	1	3.8
Start a business, further studies	1	3.8
Start a business, migrate, further studies	1	3.8
Total	26	100.0

Source: Research results

I asked the managers and students about their general opinions concerning the issue of graduate employment. The responses generally expressed that there were challenges and barriers in the education and training of students, hence the great effect when they graduated and could not secure employment. Even though there were these challenges and barriers, participants were asked if they were happy with what the universities were doing. The majority as expressed in Figure 4.7, were generally happy. A total of 26 out 36 participants were happy with what the universities were doing in preparing the graduates to be ready for the marketplace, whilst only 9 of them were not happy and one was not sure and did not want to commit to the performance of universities. All of them, however, expressed their disappointment that the country failed to absorb the graduates in the places of work.

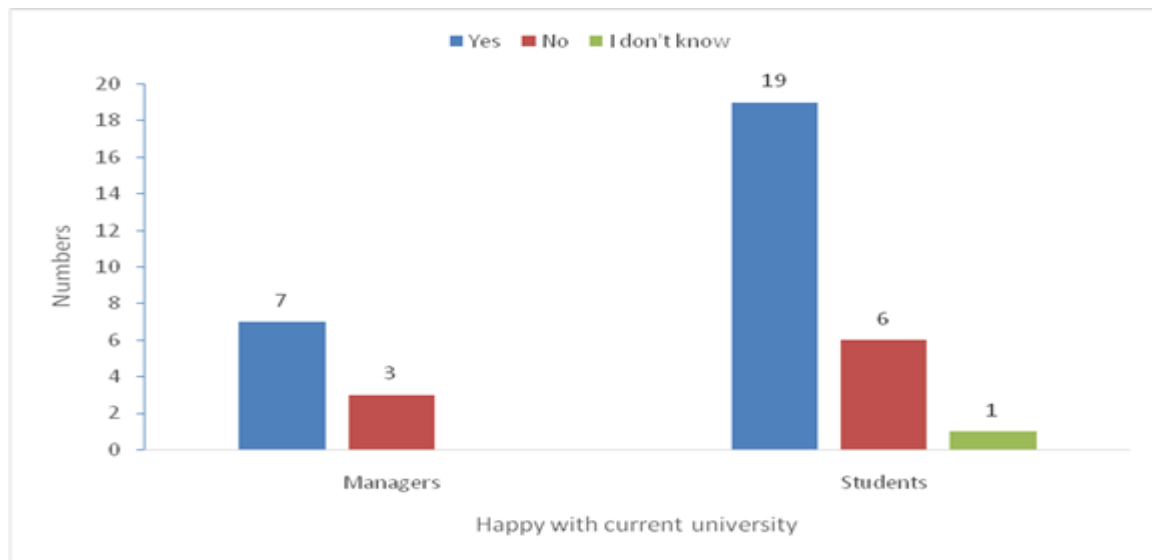


Figure 4.7 I am happy with the work done in universities

Source: Research results

The challenges were that, although it appeared as if the university programmes were tailored to meet the industry's expectations, one always wondered where the graduates would go, since there were no jobs to absorb them. The major reason was that industries were closing down. The graduates would come out of universities prepared with the relevant skills, but there would be none or few industries to absorb them. Most managers expressed their concern over the failure of the universities and companies to come together to see how the gap of the mismatch could be closed. There was a dire need for collaboration in the country, hence, my need to engage in the research in order to see how the government, universities, industries and other relevant stakeholders could come together to engage in dialogue for problem-solving. The list of more challenges expressed by managers and barriers faced by post-industrial university students were summarised in Table 4.4 during the interviews.

Table 4.4 Challenges and barriers

Number	Challenges and barriers	Collected views from managers and post-industrial university students
1.	Challenges as faced by managers	The mismatch between graduation period and entry into industry. Lack of engagement of industry by universities to agree on the approaches to promote employability of graduates. Universities churning out more graduates than the industry can absorb. Students on industrial attachment not prepared enough for the world of work. The graduates employed in institutions not prepared enough for the world of work. Workers not happy with working conditions.
2.	Barriers as experienced by university students	University offering irrelevant programmes causing failure to realise job creation. The curriculum not activating skills to prepare students for the world of work. When going on industrial attachment not well prepared for the world of work. Most companies not recruiting students for industrial attachment. Pass and failure rates are determined by universities instead of considering other outside factors. Parents/guardians not coping in addressing the challenges that students/graduates face.

Source: Author's own compilation

Figure 4.8 also shows the challenges and barriers that are faced by the participants in their view of the gap that is seen between what the universities offer and the expectations of industries. The majority of managers and students (5, 8) agree and five of them (a total of 18 out of the total population of 36 participants, which is a 50% representation) strongly agree that a gap between what the universities offer and the expectations of industries exists. A total of 12 out of 36 participants disagree and strongly disagree, whilst six were neutral, not wishing to commit themselves. This still presents a picture of a serious problem noted in general, of a challenge faced as far as the balance between what universities offer and the expectations of the industries are concerned.

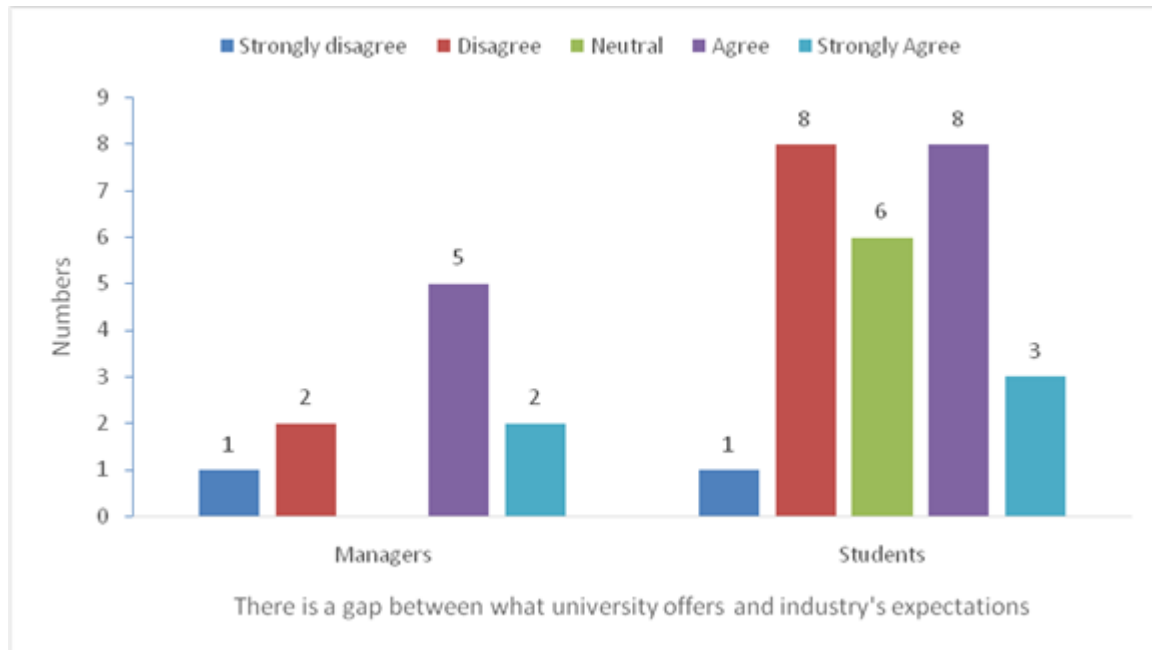


Figure 4.8 There is a gap between what universities offer and the expectations from industries

Source: Research results

It was a crucial stage to discover that the targeted population of managers and students were highlighting a number of challenges and barriers that were faced in the education and training of university students, especially when it came to the stage of graduation, when every graduate expected to be employed. However, many issues would crop up ranging from the issues of unemployment, to unmatched needs of the employed and the unmet expectations of the employers. This is supported by Chakaza (2018), who writes that on the issues of policymaking and planning, the participants' experiences are a vital source of learning. This is especially so when the problems they face become a worthy cause of analysis, hence the importance of my considering the above challenges and barriers as summarised in Figure 4.8 and Table 4.4. From this data collected at this stage of the interviews, I discovered there was further need for in-depth interviews, hence, the need to develop an interview guide which was later used to conduct in-depth interviews to dig for more detailed information, the results of which are analysed and discussed in Chapter 5.

4.6.1.3 Expectations of managers and students

Generally, managers and students expect that any graduate with a degree should get a job. Students are expected to have a right to determine what they need to be taught, and industrialists, curriculum planners and innovators, government officials, parents, and the community should be involved in community development (see Figure 4.9). Figure 4.9 is a representation of who should be involved in policy planning and development as far as the participants under study were concerned. This question

was further pursued during the in-depth interviews as detailed in Chapter 4. Clearly the bars for the managers who agree and strongly agree mean that all should be involved in policy planning and development. All the students, industrialists, curriculum planners and innovators, government officials, parents and the community, politicians, senior administrators and chief executives, influential people in national associations representing various interest groups should be involved in policy planning (Gweru, 2015; Mawere, 2013).

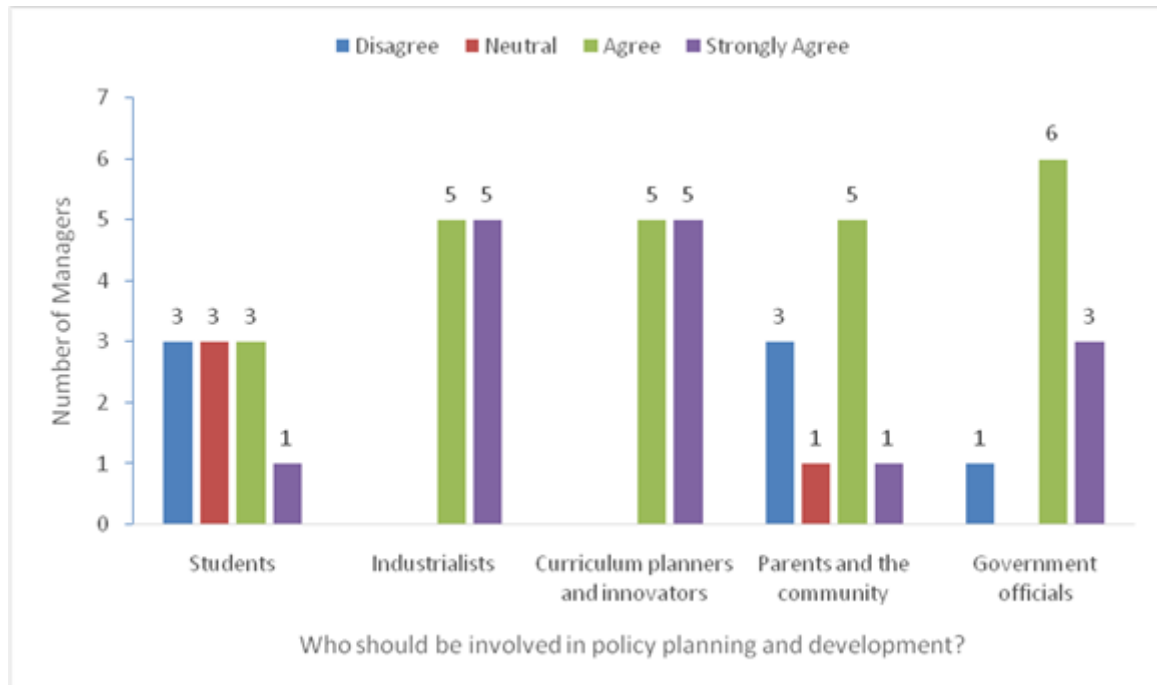


Figure 4.9 Who should be involved in policy planning and development?

Source: Research results

4.6.1.4 Education policies, industry and employability issues

The factors that affected the education policies in universities, industry, and employability issues were as follows: Universities should offer relevant programmes to prepare graduates with skills for the job market. Failure to do so has caused a gap which magnifies the mismatch between graduates and the workplace. There is a need for a close relationship and match between educators, learners, curricula and skills in order to prepare the graduates for a world of work and to be able to meet and match the expectations of the industries. Efforts were being noted, for example, a great achievement has been made in the move to introduce STEM. The current technical and vocational education policy of the country is growing and developing in response to social and economic development challenges of the 21st century, the purpose being to tailor programmes to meet the expectations of industries. The programmes should prepare students for professional work, personal development and for life in the

future. Figure 4.10. reveals how managers perceive career choices that in their opinion pay better. This is based on the innovative move by the country to introduce STEM versus the private sector and self-employment opportunities.

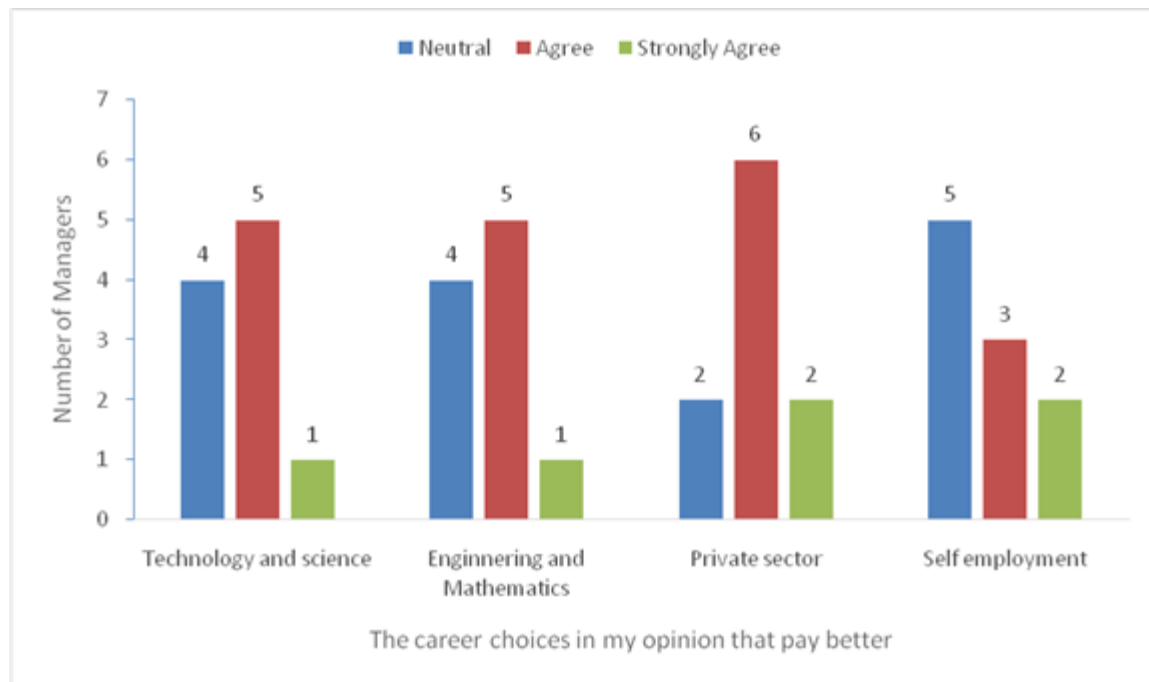


Figure 4.10 The career choices, in my opinion, that pay better

Source: Research results

4.6.2 Presentation, analysis, and interpretation of stage 1B: Semi-structured interviews

The purpose of this section was to present, analyse and interpret the data collected from 10 managers and 26 university students through semi-structured interviews. I let the interviewees tell their stories and used the questions below as probes/reminders. Not all these questions were asked to every participant and they were not necessarily in any order (see Appendix A). The questions are listed below and the responses of participants are presented, analysed and interpreted thereafter, in relation to the research objectives and research questions as stated in 4.2-4.4 earlier in this chapter. Participants were allowed to mention in any other thoughts about these issues, if they had any, and additional follow-up questions were asked, as appropriate for each participant as summed up below:

Question 1 – Can you relate to me how education policies favour graduates?

Question 2 – What is the role of universities in implementing policies in order to realize job creators?

Question 3 – What are your views about the link between transition of students to graduate levels and industry?

Question 4 – Please tell me about the outcome of the curriculum on learners.

Question 5 – What are your views concerning the gap between education policy and industry?

Question 6 – What is the relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance in the industry?

4.6.2.1 The education policies' favour for graduates

The analysis in this section was to answer the question of whether education policies favoured graduates. The purpose of asking the question was to answer objectives 1, 2 and 3. Generally, all the 36 participants agreed that the policies favoured the graduates during the process of training. The policies are used to formulate the curricula, course outlines and the plans on how to conduct the lectures during the training process. All the 36 participants, however, wondered why the graduates then have to suffer afterwards, when they either are unemployed or underemployed, after all the effort to prepare them for work. In my view, it was quite clear that the education policies, to a certain extent, favour graduates in agreement with the answers from the interviewees. Earning a degree was seen as a lifelong learning pursuit. The studies of Dohm & Shniper (2016), and Lowden et al. (2011), on the policy of internationalisation of higher education reveal that the policies are in favour of graduates and develop both higher education and the state of the country. The mixed feelings by individual stakeholders from different countries in connection with the education policies and graduates are revealed by Marume (2016), and Maylette & Wride (2017). These researchers reveal a painful experience by graduates after leaving colleges, as they remain unemployed. In most cases, graduates end up doing menial jobs which they have not applied for, and do not contribute much to the economy of the country. Hence, there is need for formulating the policies to include graduates so that they get prepared for what they will face in the world of work.

4.6.2.2 Role of universities to implement policies in order to realise job creators

In answer to the question of what the role of universities was in implementing policies in order to realise job creators, all 36 participants had something to say. Due to the little time that each was afforded, after realising that they had more information, I arranged to collect the extra information later during the stage 2 interviews, I summarised their brief views as in the following discussion. Figure 4.11 provides a summary of the responses for the 36 participants concerning the issue that universities offer relevant programmes in order to realise job creation. Out of the 36 participants who were comprised of managers and students, 19 of them agreed whilst six strongly agreed that universities offer relevant programmes in order to realise job creation. Among the rest, with eight of them were neutral and only three disagreed and felt that the universities were currently not doing

much for the graduates to become job creators. In general, the majority believed that universities offered relevant programmes in order to realise job creation.

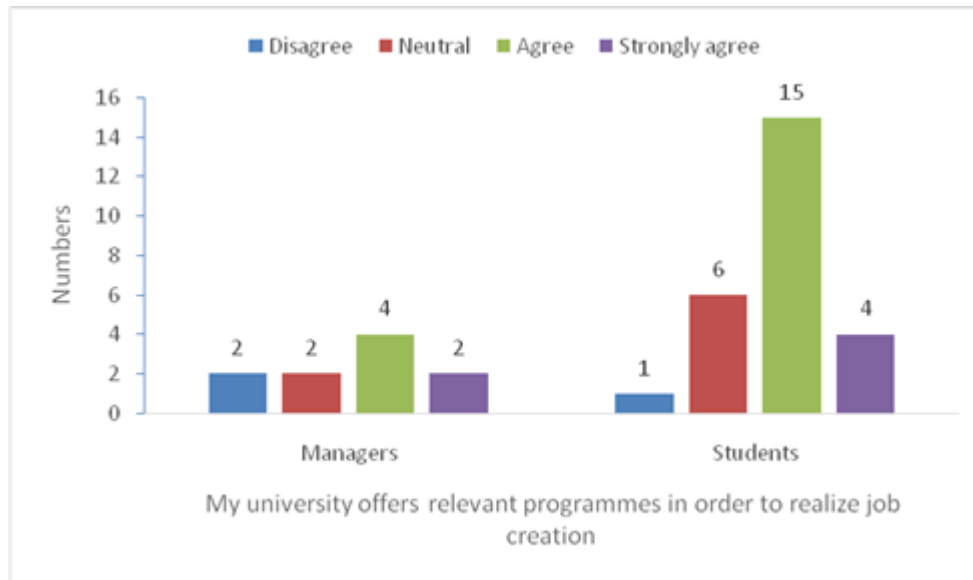


Figure 4.11 My university offers relevant programmes to realise job creation

Source: Research results

Also, the statistics showed that participants believed that the universities were doing to achieve job creation. When asked to support their opinions, they were in agreement with those that were either neutral or disagreed with the idea. The consensus was that the universities claimed to prepare graduates to be employed, but amazingly the job market was not ready to absorb them after graduation. The participants were of the opinion that something needed to be done to link the industries with the universities, so that the policies being implemented during their training will prepare them for job-creating strategies. They all agreed that universities should prepare students for professional work, personal development, and life in the future. The universities' vision should be transforming young people from becoming job seekers into job creators who possess skills that match the world of work, and are able to build and support sustainable and transparent enterprises. Training graduates to be job creators ensures that they are in a position to take leadership roles at community-based organisations. It also trains youth to be watchdogs for corruption from grantmakers, lenders, government officials, and even business leaders, who all too often vanish with part of an organisation's funds in their pockets. The role of being a watchdog as a university student will contribute to improving the sustainability and transparency of community-based organisations, as well as bring back trust in the public sector. The students would also gain knowledge of how to handle members of community-based organisations, work with them, and also understand that money connected to grants and loans from the government should be used well, to promote their ventures (Chipunza, 2017; Nyazema, 2010).

4.6.2.3 The link between the transition of students and graduates to industry

The question that was asked here was to explain the link between the transition of students and graduate to industries was similar to the one discussed in 4.9.2.2. This refers to the role of universities in the implementation of policies in order to realise job creators. When asked about whether there was a link between the transition of students and graduates to industry, the participants generally agreed that there is a link between the transition of students and graduates to industry. The candidates agreed that the link is that an individual move from being a student to a graduate and is expected to be absorbed into industry. These are stages necessary to prepare one to meet the goals and standards that are required at each stage. Unfortunately, the last stage is the most critical one but very few reach the stage of employment. That is why such a high unemployment rate of approximately 95% since 2009 is recorded by the CIA (2017) and the World Factbook (2017). The records for 2018 are still confirmed by the World Factbook (2018) as 95%. Figure 4.12 and Figure 4.13 both show that the participants had observed that universities as, like any industry, recruit students for industrial attachment and believed that the exercise prepared students for the world of work. This they believed reflected the link between students, graduates, and industries. Out of the 36 participants, 30 agreed that students on industrial attachment are prepared enough at their universities for the world of work, whilst five of them did not agree. Only one mentioned that he/she did not know, as shown in Figure 4.12.

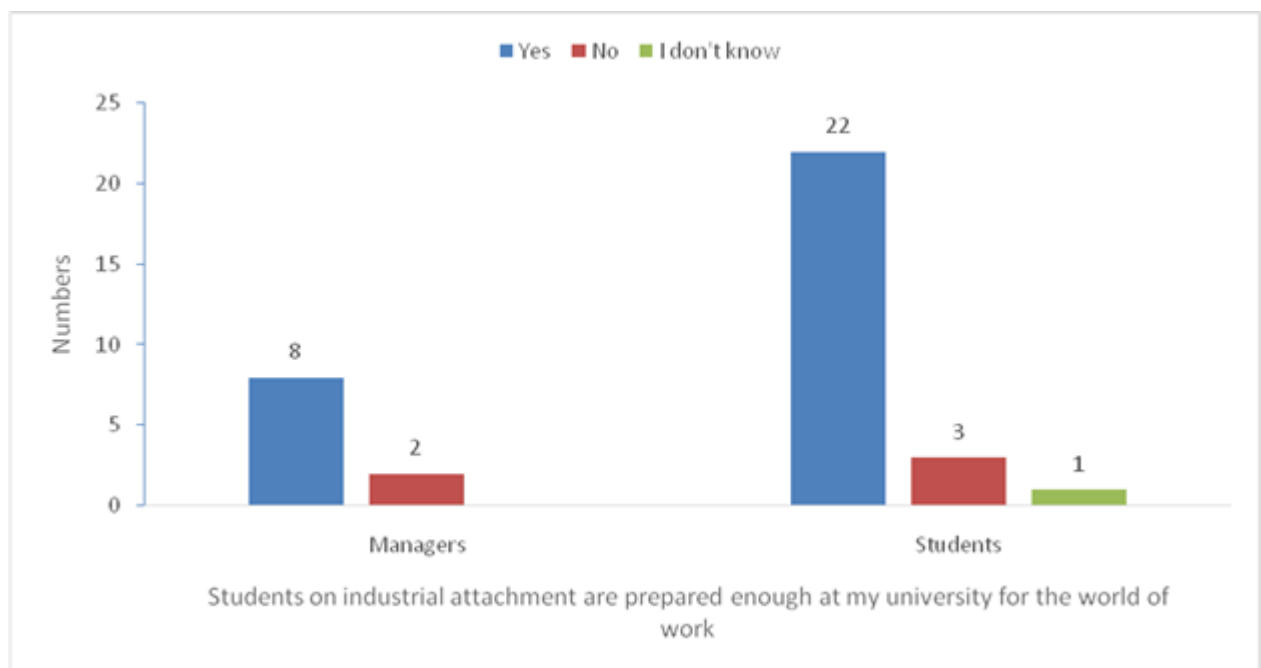


Figure 4.12 Students on industrial attachment are prepared enough at my university for the world of work

Source: Research results

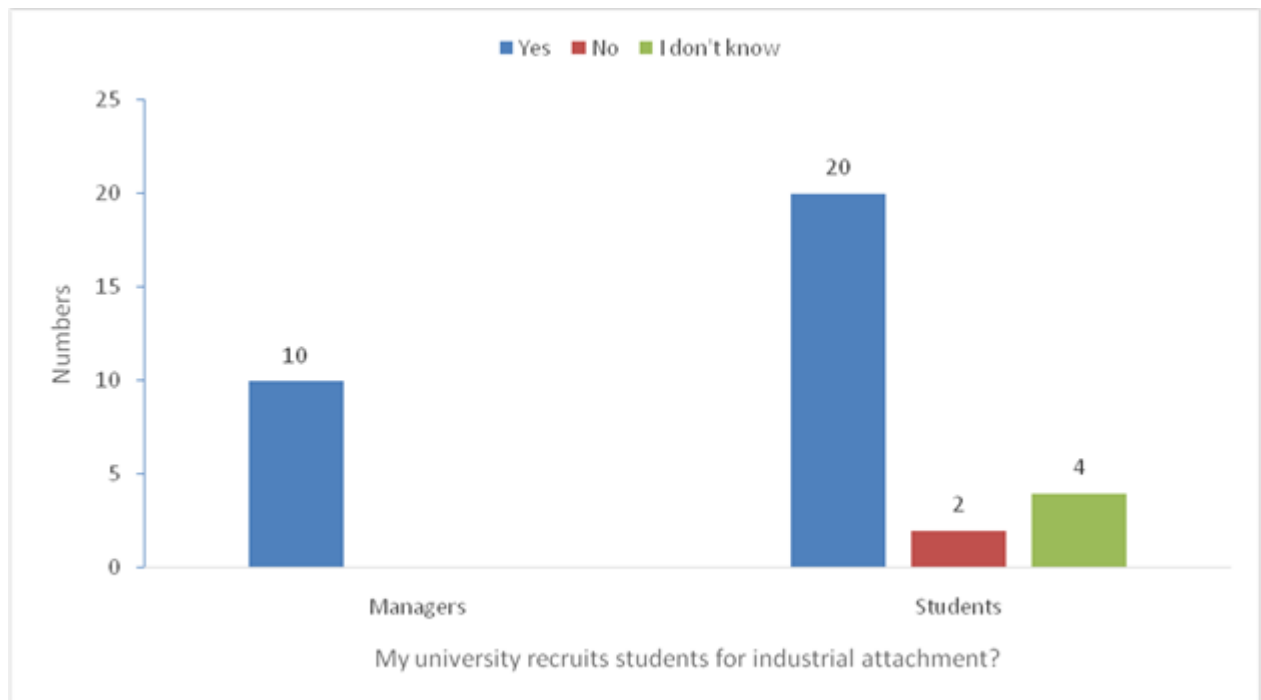


Figure 4.13 My university recruits students for industrial attachment.

Source: Research results

This response is in line with what Garwe (2014) and Sande (2018) reveal: a university education process educates one to find jobs, be able to apply skills, or market and sell themselves to employers. The universities do not only educate and train students, but they also, like other organisations, recruit students for industrial attachment in order to prepare the students for the world of work, as portrayed in Figure 4.13. Both writers reveal that the stages from being students to graduation help build confidence in oneself as the years go by. However, the authors agree that the challenge always comes when one is expected to enter industry. It is true that the transition helps one to be aware of the current job market and to gain the skills to make an individual marketable for the industry after graduation. The transition from student to graduate, to the industry is an ongoing process. Without the transition, graduates can be irrelevant to the job markets that they desire. To be able to find employment, one should couple value (what you bring to the table) and skills (to demonstrate value) along with the correct personality (that matches the job/company of interest), all while having a customer-focused, team-based mentality. As a student the problems that are faced with and had to solve, are actually a preparation for solving customer problems once one moves to the industry. According to Garwe (2014) and Sande (2018), the success of the goods that a company produces and markets, will be based on how well they solve customers' needs.

4.6.2.4 The outcome of the curriculum on learners

When all the 36 participants were asked to comment on what the curriculum activated in young people to achieve objectives 1 and 3, they generally believed that every child has an innate ability to learn. The participants said that part of the curriculum was required as a catalyst and motivator to bring out that which is on the inside. Table 4.1 referred to the students' long-term goals. It was noted that 26.9% looked forward to being employed after graduation, whilst 19.2% looked forward to continuing with their studies, 15.4% starting businesses and another 15.4% thought migrating to another country would be the best plan. The rest of the individuals were not even sure of what would be the best thing to do. It can be noted that when the right curriculum is inculcated in young learners at an early age, they can set smart goals.

According to Chakanyuka (2015), Courtney (2008) and Mazise (2011) an educational curriculum activates a lot of things in young people. If the global challenges of the 21st century are met, it will enhance progress, achievement and participation in the young people who are learning. The curriculum activates different literacy skills in the life of a young person. For example, reading and writing. Literacy also involves opportunities for creativity. Activities such as reading, dramatic plays and writing can be used to foster creative skills. The curriculum, therefore, is a means for enhancing the knowledge, skills, understanding, and attitudes of young people. The curriculum also acts as a guide that helps young people to choose career pathways and it gives young people the opportunities to maintain and enhance their literacy and numeracy skills. Shizha & Kariwo (2011) say that the national curriculum for Early Education and Care (ECEC) centre on the whole development of the child.

The curriculum helps the children to acquire competencies and skills in the following fields: language and communication, science and technology, ethics and citizenship, numeracy and literacy, and practical skills to provide a background for, and to stimulate an interest in, technical and vocational subjects. This development has an effect later when the child gets to university level. The curriculum in Zimbabwean primary and secondary schools lack relevancy to improve the needs of the child, a fact recognised by the report of the Presidential Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training (Nziramasanga, 1999; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). That is why there is a need to train secondary school graduates as soon as they finish school without any vocational skills, so that they can be employed. Many school drop-outs and 'O' level graduates are jobless, as the education they receive does not give them adequate skills to ensure that they can obtain work after school. According to the Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture, the education system in Zimbabwe is still academically oriented and examination-driven (Mawere, 2013; Nziramasanga, 1999). The main goal in learning is to achieve

and pass the end-of-cycle examinations. However, it has been found over the past twenty years that only about 30% of any given group manages to pass the academic examinations at the GCE O-level and reach the tertiary level.

4.6.2.5 Gap between education policy and industry

The discussions in 4.9.2.1-4.9.2.4 reveal that there is a gap between education policy and graduates' entry into industry. All 36 responses by respondents in the interviews emphasised that the gap really exists between what is being implemented at their universities (education policy), and industry. They reacted to the question, "[i]s there a gap between education policy and industry?" This question was posed in order to achieve objectives 2 and 3). The responses reveal that there is a gap between educational policy and industry, with the proof that more than half of the teachers and tutors do not know what the industry really is looking for in recruits. Another proof from STEM is that the teachers and tutors cannot keep up with the latest developments, career options, study paths, and education policies, as this is in a tall order. However, if Zimbabwe were to fill many of the STEM sector vacancies in the coming decades, it would be vital that schools are able to be accurately informed and advise students considering their futures in any area. The lack of knowledge by teachers on career paths available to students is proof of the gap that exists between the education policies and industry (Makoshori, 2017; Mashaya & Tafirenyika, 2017).

In today's challenging and competitive global world which has diverse demands, many countries are facing serious problems of graduate unemployment. Other research studies, for example, those done by Chipunza (2017), Maylette & Wride (2017), and Chakaza (2018) have revealed that the cause of unemployment is a result of graduates' lack of desirable technical and employment skills, also knowledge and abilities required by the labour market consisting of interactive attributes. It can also be a lack of good communication skills, interpersonal skills, and teamwork. Employers need graduates who can quickly familiarise themselves with the workplace culture and use their abilities. Zimbabwe graduates are encouraged to spearhead the formation of small and medium enterprises (SMEs), create self-employment and/or enter into freelance work. There are certain initiatives that have been put in place as a result of the gap between educational policy and industry.

Since the attainment of independence in 1980, Zimbabwe continues to invest in the education, of all its people in the expectation that these skills could add value to the national economic productivity and development. The universities in Zimbabwe are keeping abreast with the dynamic environment by continuously introducing innovative degree programmes to address the gaps that exist in the labour market. The development of the new programmes is done through wide consultations with potential

employers and other stakeholders. Final approval of these programmes is done by the national regulatory body, which is known as ZIMCHE. ZIMCHE is responsible for overseeing quality assurance in higher education. Generally, graduates are supposed to be absorbed into the labour market on completion of their programmes. Quite a number of the graduates must pursue additional programmes to complement or balance their academic qualifications and improve their employability. This is confirmed by Chipunza (2017), Maylett & Wride (2017), and Chakaza (2018).

4.6.2.6 The relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance

In response to the question regarding the correlation between policy, employability and graduate performance, all 36 participants agreed that there was a correlation. They believed that Zimbabwe has a success story in the sense that most education institutions find it important to incorporate entrepreneurship concepts in all the courses that are studied. This is a great effort to enhance graduate employability as confirmed by Garwe (2014), Chakanyuka (2015) and Makoshori (2017). However, the participants noticed that the diverse skills development programmes have suffered from obstacles such as the lack of knowledge among instructors, lack of placements for students and lecturers on operations in the industry, inexperienced lecturers and instructors, poor funding, as well as obsolete and inadequate equipment. There are challenges faced in the education sector caused by political, economic and social factors. Many of the constraints are driven by a lack of funds as the budget is cut in the education sectors due to inadequate government revenues. These budgetary cuts have affected the capacity of the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development (MHETESTD) and the Ministry of Education to plan and put into practice policies as well as monitoring the education system. The reports show that extremely poor households do not send children to school due to failure to pay for levies for various school programmes, and also a failure to source uniforms.

The national 'education for all' review of Zimbabwe (UNESCO, 2015) has found that the quality of education declined in the following areas: infrastructure, which is unsatisfactory, facilities, poor performance in national examinations at Grade 7, 'O' Level, and 'A' Level qualifications. The teachers live in poor conditions, as some stay in make-shift huts, thus affecting teacher morale, school children walk to and from school over long distances. Although there have been efforts to improve curriculum relevance at all levels, teacher morale has been negatively affected due to a lack of accommodation, low salaries, and a shortage of teaching and learning resources, such as textbooks and stationery.

Finally, the lack of current and up-to-date data on education has an effect on the planning and functioning of the sector. All these challenges show that there is a great need to examine the connection between HE policies and the labour market, hence, my motivation to research the problem. The connection between HE policies and the labour market has been monitored systematically over the years and the relationship between policy, graduate performance and industry is important. Despite the setbacks and challenges suffered, the major education indicators show that the Zimbabwean education system remains one of the strongest on the continent (Chakaza, 2018; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). This justified my need to examine the correlation between policy, graduate performance, and industry.

4.7 Summary of Chapter 4: Stage 1 results

The results of the first stage of the semi-structured interviews displayed the background of participants, the challenges they faced, the barriers encountered and the expectations that they had. More background information on education policy, industry, and employability issues were collected. The first stage of interviews helped in the development of an interview guide (Appendix A), that was used later to collect more data from the same group of participants so that they could express themselves clearly. All the 10 managers agreed to continue, but due to the busy schedule of students, from the original 26 students, I struck a deal with five males and five females to have a total of 10 students for the interviews (see Table 4.2). The following chapter, Chapter 5, presents analyses, interprets and discusses the results of stage 2: semi-structured interviews. The themes in the interview guide were designed to achieve the same objectives and answer the same questions. Each question under a particular theme was linked to address specific research question(s).

CHAPTER 5

Data presentation, analysis, and interpretation of findings – semi-structured interviews stage 2

5.1 Introduction

Chapter 5 presents, analyses, interprets and discusses the results of the semi-structured interviews as stage 2. The themes in the interview guide were designed to achieve the same objectives and answer the same questions. Each question under a particular theme was linked to address a specific research question(s) as presented in the interview guide (Appendix A). The participants were comprised of 10 managers from universities and industries, and 10 university students as displayed in Table 4.2 in the previous chapter.

The appointments were made for each one of them at times and venues convenient for them. A tape recorder was used to record the interviews and notes were taken, then typed into MS Word and later imported into NVivo data analysis software. The NVivo package was used to analyse data collected from the respondents with the interpretations based on thematic analysis and discussions based on the themes in the interview guide. Graphs, pictures, pie charts, and tables were used to summarise responses, and the data then later analysed and described. The NVivo mainly determined the following: word frequency queries referring to the most frequently used words. Here tables were used to represent codes, themes or any ideas relevant in the data collected. Not all tables had the number of coding references that would give a total of 20 respondents used in this study (Table 5.2 and Table 5.3). Coding references refer to the number of times a theme or a point is mentioned in the interview script. Some tables reflected more responses than the actual respondents of 20, for example, Table 5.3. This was due to the frequency in a respondent's answer to one question in many ways. NVivo picks all different responses to a single question even if they are mentioned by one respondent and this is what is reflected in some tables (see Table 5.3). The software captures all responses.

5.2 Semi-structured interviews: presentation, analysis, and interpretation – stage 2

The interview guide was made up of three key themes and there were questions under each theme. The questions in the guide had been specifically designed to achieve the research objectives that guided the current study, thus answering the research questions as stated in Chapter 1. In the process of the presentation and analysis of the results, utilising the NVivo package, thematic analysis and

discussions found in literature, a linkage to the research objectives was made. The three themes are graduates' access to industry, democracy in university education and government's democratic efforts to link university education to the development of entrepreneurship skills needed in the industry. These are discussed in turns.

5.2.1 Theme A – The relationship between education and employment

This section is based on objective 1 and sub-question 1 of my study (see 1.10 and 1.12). It sought to present, analyse and interpret the responses to questions relating to how graduates' access to the industry was affected by their training and development in universities. The four questions asked in this section, as presented in Appendix A, were:

Question 1: What is your assessment on education policies in meeting the needs of graduates?

Question 2: Would you like to tell me about the relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance in industry?

Question 3: What are your views on university programmes versus expectations of the industry?

Question 4: Please comment on the skills necessary for industry in their order of importance?



Figure 5.1a Assessment of education policies in meeting the needs of graduates

Source: Research results

The figure above displays a word cloud to help visualise the results and analysis of the assessment of education policies in meeting the needs of graduates. The word frequency count query entails that it has been a matter of concern to managers and students whether the education policies are relevant or not and are in favour of meeting the needs of the graduates. Their expressions has clearly been worried about graduates' involvement in decision-making in terms of designing the curriculum. In the long run, this affected the graduates when it came to the issue of their employment. The key terms here were commercialisation, mass production, little or no consultation, and unemployment.

Respondents R1 and R2 clearly revealed their feelings concerning this issue. Please note that all quotations are reproduced verbatim and unedited.

- R1 Policies are decisions on what to include in the school curriculum and introduction of new programmes. These policies do not meet the needs of graduates. It is more of commercialising. Especially, with some of the mushrooming universities, it is an issue of getting as many students as one can and want and maximise on profit. It's mass production, if I may bluntly say, as these policies do not favour graduates at all.
- R2 Education policies do not really favour graduates as they are not even included in decision-making, they are told what to do, but they are not asked what they want or expect, education policies only favour those who are involved in decision-making, and of which graduates are not included in this.

Both respondents R1 and R2 emphasised the issue of commercialisation and mass production in the universities and more so due to a lack of, or minimal consultation, between the universities and policymakers. This means that what graduates are taught to do, does not help the graduates when the time for employment comes. Considering that most universities are just concerned with getting larger numbers of students, the motive behind has been to maximise profit. It has been mass production with the education policies not favouring graduates at all. R2 noted that graduates were not even included in decision-making, as they were mostly told what to do, never asked what they wanted or expected, and was worried about the top-down approach in policymaking. R2 agreed with R7, R19 and R20 who also expressed the same sentiment:

- R7 Our policies are politically driven, and not industry driven hence any alignment, not clear about Zimbabwean policies at the moment, but my view is based on graduates I have met in communities and in church organisations. The policies may be far from meeting the needs of graduates.
- R19 Policies are from, top macro-level instead of starting from the lowest level. There is a minor implementation if it is like that as they feed or cascade to lower levels from the top, hence not favouring graduates, who most of them would be at the implementation level.
- R20 Education policies are mostly decisions from the top down to the people, therefore, do not always favour graduates. Most of the student learning is decided for them, such that when they complete their studies and wish to implement what they learned, it does not always match with what is in the world of work or life after graduation. The hope is that policymakers should engage them as students and other stakeholders in the formulating of these policies.

The responses of R1, R2, R7, R19 and R20 are summed up in Figure 5.1b and Table 5.1. The coding by nodes in Figure 5.1b shows that the majority of respondents, 17 out of the targeted 20, agree that the education policies do not favour the graduates. This depicts a coding reference of 63% of the population as shown in Table 5.1.

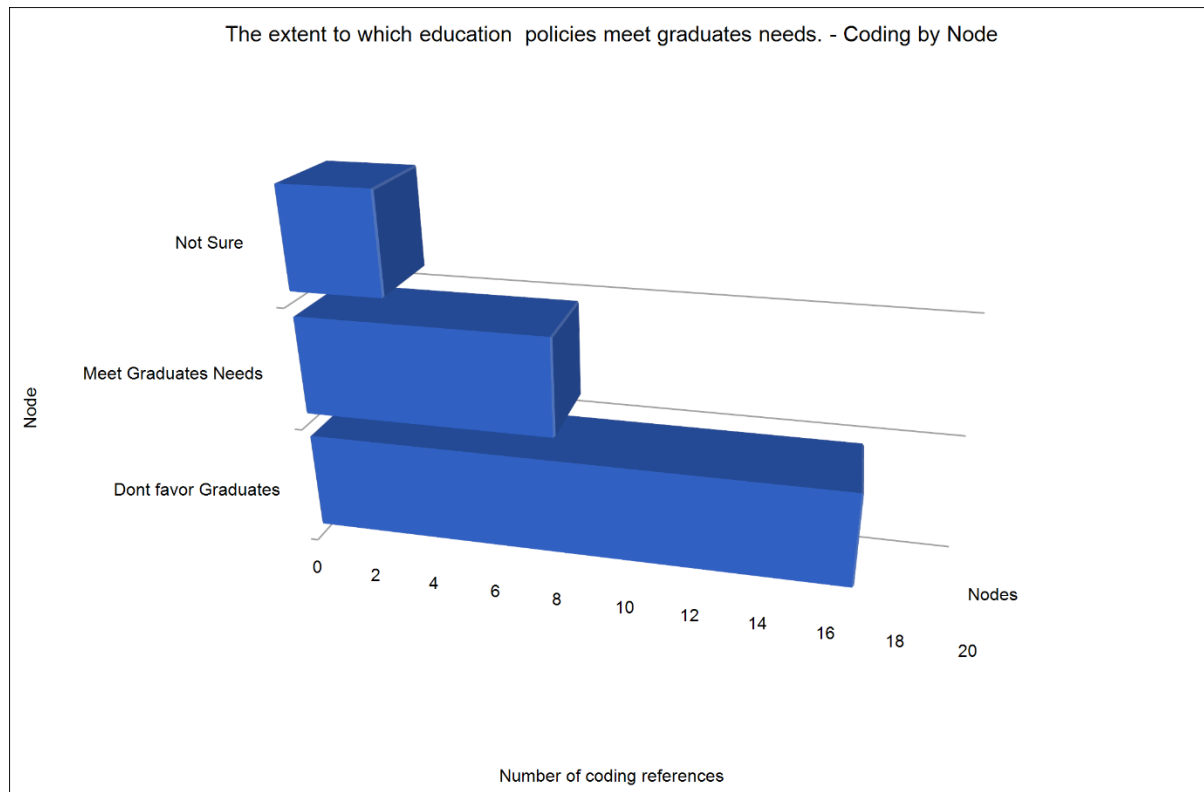


Figure 5.1b The extent to which education policies meet graduate needs

Source: Research results

The findings in Figure 5:1b highlight that 8 responses state that the policies meet the needs of graduates, whilst only 2 responses state that the respondents were not sure whether the policies met the needs of the graduates or not. The 17 responses show that the policies did not meet the needs of graduates.

Table 5.1 Extent to which education policies meet graduate needs

NVivo node	Number of coding references	Coding reference percentage
Meet graduate needs	8	29.6
Not sure	2	7.4
Do not meet graduate needs	17	63

Source: Research results (column for the number of coding references total more than 20 due to multiple responses)

Table 5:1 highlight that 29.6% of respondents state that the policies meet the needs of graduates, whilst a constituting of 7.4%, state that the respondents were not sure whether the policies met the needs of the graduates or not. Of interest the 63% believe that the policies did not meet the needs of graduates. The fact that the respondents were noticing that the education system was facing challenges which affected graduate employment thereafter, but the 29,6% would not shift the blame to policymakers and universities. They mention that universities even make efforts to involve the industries and send their students for industrial attachment. R8 and R11 summed up this viewpoint and said:

- R8 The policies make provisions for internships which are assessed and contribute to overall mark. Policies need to stipulate how often curricular should be updated and factor in input from the industry.
- R11 Maybe some education and employment policies favour graduates and a degree is a prerequisite to getting certain jobs, even those that are traditionally required professional qualifications. The policies try to ensure that the students get the best education. There is a proliferation of universities all over, more than tertiary institutions, so maybe, yes, policy favours graduates. Most Zimbabwean cities have one polytechnic college and the students from these have fewer resources than those in universities. Their salaries are lower when they enter employment.

In connection with the above analysis, Mashaya & Tafirenyika (2017), and Chakaza (2018) reveal in their writings the mixed feelings by individual stakeholders from different countries in connection with education policies and graduates. Some stakeholders agree that the policies favour graduates whilst some say the policies do not favour graduates. This justifies the presentation in Figure 5.1b and Table 5.1 of responses with the same mixed feelings. The researchers reveal a painful experience by graduates after leaving colleges as they remain unemployed, yet the policies have been made in favour of the graduates. The assumption was that the policies were made in view of the economy, but in most cases, graduates end up doing menial jobs that they have not applied for. Hence, the need for the policymaking and development process to include graduates, so that they are prepared for what to face in the world of work.

Universities should form partnerships with private colleges, businesses, universities, and civil society organisations and also tailor curricula and training programmes to meet local market needs. There is a range of efforts to reform higher education, for example, HEIs must be able to develop new funding streams and respond directly to the unemployment problem. An approach to higher education that fosters critical thinking and creativity in order to prepare students for the diverse range of challenges and opportunities ahead, is required (Chakaza, 2018; Mawere, 2013; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011).

According to my assessment, with reference to the general responses backed up by literature, it becomes clear that educational policies do not meet the needs of graduates to a larger extent. During the training process, the students are made to go through courses based on the already formulated curriculum, course outlines and the plans extracted from the education policies. Universities are impressed after the training process with the production of graduates but there has been no mention of what happens to the students after graduation. The complaint clearly has been on the issue of universities involved in mass production of graduates and engaging in commercialisation, and yet engaging in little or no consultation with graduates, who at the end of their training face challenges when it comes to getting into the world of work. The graduates would mainly be trained to think that after graduation they would become employed, without considering that they could be employers. This is upheld in the literature by Lowden et al. (2011) and Mawere (2013), who agree that the mission of universities is to produce job creators, not job seekers. This entails that policies need to be made with the view that graduates after completing their studies, must be able to withstand the various challenges and grab the opportunities ahead. Hence, this reveals that the policies only end with student on the day of graduation, not after graduation.

When policy strategies for job creation are designed well, they can meet the needs of the graduates. This is not the case with particular nations, as the policies only end with the training process. There is still a need to come up with policies that are responsive to local development needs. There is a need to prepare graduates for the challenging changing global economy. The HE mission of community service is often forgotten, and the universities have a moral obligation to help in solving the problems of society. Their particular role in national growth should be the application of research findings, especially in science and technology, and attend to direct problems on the ground. It is quite clear that policies do not favour the graduates, but only concentrate on those still studying, who never know what will happen to them the moment they graduate (Mawere, 2013; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011; Makou & Wilkinson, 2018). On the other hand, it is quite clear that education policies had, to a certain extent, met the needs of the graduates. This is in agreement with the answers of the 29.6% of responses that

seem to contradict the majority view that policies do not favour graduates. These responses highlighted that earning a degree is a lifelong learning pursuit.

The responses represented most stakeholders on issues of policymaking, development and implementation as displayed in Figure 5.1b and Table 5.1, and this was backed up by literature. There exists mixed feelings about whether policy favours graduates or not. In order to handle these mixed feelings, the respondents came up with suggestions that can be adopted as a solution. They suggest that whenever policy strategies for job creation are made, they should be in favour of graduates. One of the strategies suggested would be putting in place a policy whereby a job is created without displacing any economic activity. Such kinds of policy strategies are made in favour of graduates, so that as students graduate they have employment opportunities. Many of the strategies made are to ensure that the economy is stabilised and new jobs are being added as long as the strategies are implemented appropriately in order to get the graduates involved in job-creating activities.

The efforts in Zimbabwe for such an opportunity to create jobs have not been that fruitful, since the unemployment rate has remained high over a period of time. The truth of this statement was substantiated through this process of collecting data from interviewing the managers (who were mostly graduates from universities). Some of the students interviewed were postgraduate students and they had experience with the industries, either as students on industrial attachment or had been employed before.



Figure 5.2a Relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance

Source: Research results

Figure 5.2a presents a word cloud that presents a summary of the relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance in industry. The skills training that the students receive at universities, the number of graduates employed in relation to the skills earned at universities and their performance in the industry is a major concern that is discussed in this question.

The text search query in this figure also confirms that there exists a relationship between the performance of graduates as a result of policy in universities, as well as the experiences of graduates. The voices in the texts of the respondents show that there is both positive and non-existent relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance in industry. The major concerns for the respondents in this question are similar to responses to Question 1, dealing with the education policies favouring the graduates. The respondents express their dismay over little or no consultation in the whole process by the policymakers and universities with the employers and students. As a result, this affects the issue of employment and performance of graduates after they complete their studies. This results in a lack of a relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance in industry. The key terms here were little or no consultation, unemployment, positive and negative relationship, and graduate favour. The responses indicated mixed feelings, with 12 out of the 20 responses expressing that there was no relationship at all, as shown in the analysis bar chart (Figure 5.2b). Table 5.2 confirms this number to mean that 60% of the sampled population sees no relationship at all. The views of respondents R1, R6, R7 and R19 are worth referring to here:

- R1 There is no relationship between the three at all. Policy issues are there, but just used as a vehicle to educate students in various fields, yet there is no guarantee of employability. Most employers want some people to work when they already have experience. They are not keen to train from scratch and do not easily trust that fresh graduates can perform well. Graduates who had experience of industrial attachment somehow can get better chances of being employed as compared to those straight from college or university without any work experience.
- R6 Performance is all about the completion of the course and what happens after the performance, that is, graduation is not considered. One wonders whether policymakers and universities bother about the produced graduates. At times interviews are just a formality in the workplaces because in most cases other people get employed in the industry even if they had not been employed. Corruption and nepotism would have found its way in.
- R7 This is difficult to say. Generally, the majority of our graduates are not ready for the industry upon graduating. Industry expectations are that when they recruit university graduates, the graduates should be ready to perform well. However, many would be requiring further training as if they are on apprenticeship.
- R19 There is supposed to be a correlation, however, most policies because of the way they are formulated from top to bottom level with little or no consultation, they end up affecting graduate performance and, of course, leading to high levels of unemployment.

The four respondents agree that there is no relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance in the industry with policies just used as a vehicle to educate students with no guarantee

of employability afterward. They are concerned about policymakers and universities who do not seem to bother about preparing students for the world of work and are not concerned about what happens to the students after graduation. The students can be trained well enough and given a basic foundation through the preparation of the curriculum design and delivery in order to be employable, but they are not prepared enough for what they would face after graduation. The skill base can only be consolidated through hands-on experience in the industry. The employability is expected to guide policy, hence, the need to include students among the list of stakeholders to be involved in policy issues. The top-down approach to policy formulation and development has also been worrisome, since there seems to be little or no consultation by policymakers and universities. The respondents also feel that there is a need for an impartial body to monitor the relationship and ensure that universities do not focus on making money. Instead, universities should balance the preparation for students for employment, job creation and for entrepreneurship.

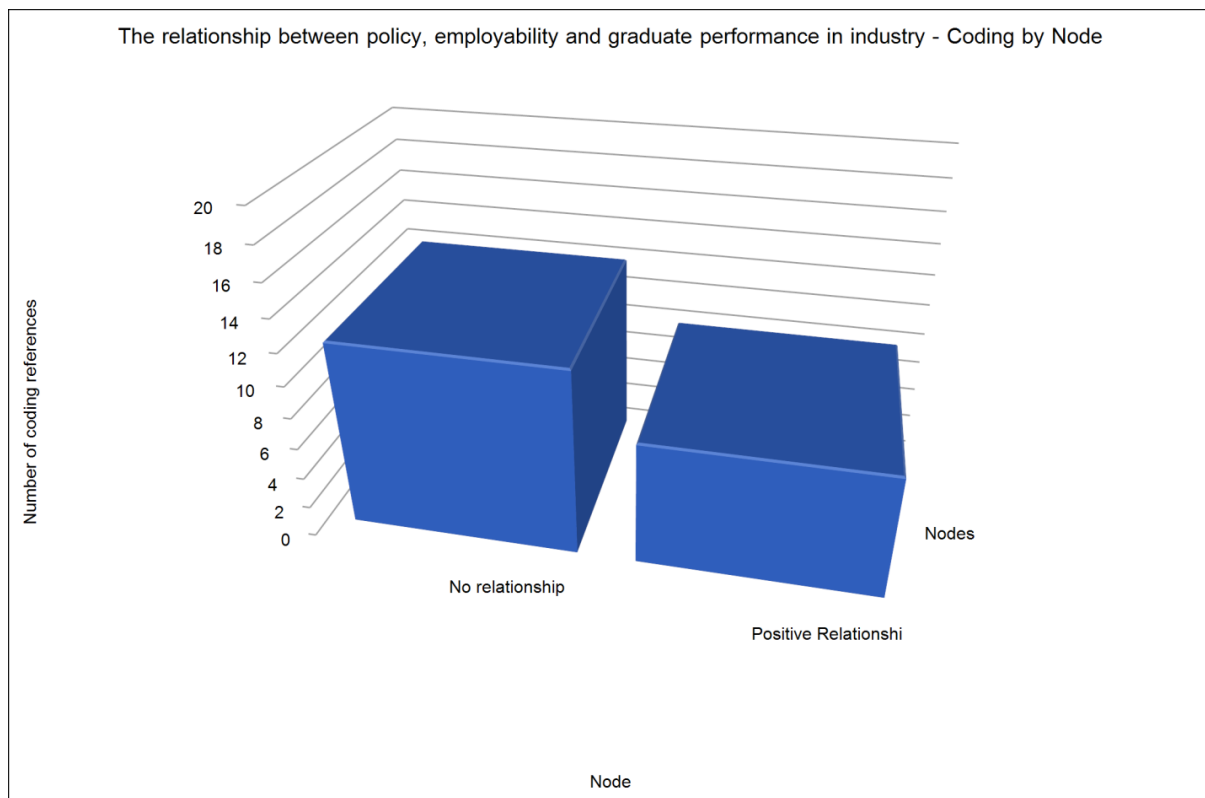


Figure 5.2b Relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance

Source: Research results

The findings in Figure 5:2b show that 8 out of 20 responses see a positive relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance whilst the 12 responses see no positive relationship.

Table 5.2 Relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance

NVivo node	Number of coding references	Coding reference percentage
Positive relationship	8	40
Negative relationship	0	0
No relationship	12	60

Source: Research results

Table 5:2 illustrates that 40% of the target population, see a positive relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance whilst 60% do not see the relationship, as expressed strongly by the responses 4, 5, 18 and 20.

- R4. I think graduates are trained well enough to perform as expected. If they were not, they would not be employable anywhere. The fact that our graduates get employed outside the country, actually they are on-demand, shows that they are trained well enough. Unfortunately, this brain drain is another serious problem for the country, more so, caused by the fact that the country cannot employ the majority of graduates.
- R5. Policy, employability and graduate performance are not as closely related, although they are supposed to be. The relationship is weak. If the policy says employ only the citizens of a country and when they have the required qualifications or they have negative attitudes towards employment, then there is an effect on their performance. Unfortunately, currently there are many qualified citizens, but there are not enough jobs for them. Training of students has not stopped, instead universities have mushroomed and intakes increased, therefore, year by year more graduates get produced and the rate of unemployment keeps escalating. Surely, this implies that there is a communication problem between policymakers, universities, and industries.

R4 and R5 saw the relationship, but not as close as it is supposed to be, and are worried mostly by the effect this relationship has on graduates. When the graduates become unemployable the reasons range from the fact that there are too many graduates and few jobs, to the fact that the students get trained to be qualified citizens, but are faced with a jobless society. In most cases, because the country cannot employ the majority of graduates, other countries welcome them. The brain drain is another serious problem for the country. The graduates are on demand in other countries, showing that they are trained well enough. R18 and R20 clearly declare this positive relationship, especially with those universities that create a strong linkage by giving students an opportunity to go for industrial attachment and they get helped to become more relevant to the industry, become job creators and become employable. The respondents emphasise the need for the government, ministries and the universities to work closely with the industries in the training process, so as to produce employable graduates who are also job creators and business people. R18 and R20 said:

- R18 There is a positive correlation among the factors: policy, employability and graduate performance. When the students get engaged in industrial attachment, they add value to the industry. They become more relevant to industry and become more employable. So, education and training policy definitely need a paradigm shift away from the lecture room or the college workshop to the industrial workshop and boardroom. The education policy adopted, therefore,

produces a particular type of graduate who would be relevant and employable, but can also be a job creator.

- R20 There is a correlation between policy, employability and graduate performance in the industry to a certain extent, especially in the fact that the training of students using a curriculum derived from the education policies should be designed in such a way as to make them employable afterward. The government, ministries and the universities need to work closely with the industries in order to train employable graduates and also produce not just the employable, but to also produce widely graduates that would be job creators and business people.

This is upheld in literature as cited by Garwe (2014) in their review of graduate employability. The writers confirm Zimbabwean efforts to enhance graduate employability, thus seeing a positive relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance in the industry in support of the 40% of the population who responded to the interviews as presented in Figure 5.2b and Table 5.2. The writers agree that the highlighted problems that the country faces as far as education matters are concerned, do not despise the efforts of the country to ensure that there is a correlation between policy, employability and graduate performance in the industry. Their argument is based on the fact that there is always a discrepancy between what academics view universities are for, and how the government views the institutions.

The employers and universities always have a different understanding of employability and the concept of relevant skills. The employers see graduate attributes as more important than the degree subjects and this affects the progress in promoting graduate employability measures (Chakaza, 2018; Garwe, 2014; Lowden et al., 2011). The respondents were interested to consider perspectives of employers on graduate employability and provided a difference between what some universities are promoting and what was required by industry. The employers were asked about what they considered to be the most vital skills that they look for in graduates. The results are shown in Figure 5.2b and Table 5.2, since they generally discovered that most respondents were worried about the lack of a relationship between the skills that the graduates were trained in to prepare them for employability, and their performance in industry. A small number of responses showed a positive relationship whilst they noted the problems that the education sector and the industries faced. The respondents discovered that regardless of the size of the company, communication and team-working skills were alleged to have more weight than degree qualifications. Employers see a degree as an important mark for achieving a certain level of competence that represents the minimum standard that employers look for in new recruits. These views show the interrelationships found in policy, employability and graduate performance in industry.



Figure 5.3a Extent to which university programmes are aligned to needs of industries

Source: Research results

Figure 5.3a presents a word cloud showing the views on university programmes versus the expectation of industries. The key terms here were irrelevant programmes, more theory than practice, unmet industry expectations, an unstable economy and little or no consultation with relevant stakeholders. The text search query results reveal the extent to which university programmes are aligned with the needs of the industry. This is revealed by the respondents' views in their responses who argue based on the issue of relevance or irrelevance of the university programmes to the needs of industry. In all their responses there seems to be a clear suggestion that the gap really exists between what is being implemented in universities in implementing the education policy, and industry. The analysis bar chart in Figure 5.3b and Table 5.3 show the views of the respondents regarding the irrelevance, relevance and mixed feelings about university programmes, aligned to the needs of industry. Based on the responses of the 20 respondents, I can comfortably say that in general, most university programmes are seen as irrelevant, are more theory than practice, and as a result, the expectations of industries remain unmet when students complete their studies. Some of the major causes of the challenges faced in the training and education of students, and by the graduates when they are expected to be absorbed by industry to be employed or to be job creators are viewed here as the unstable economy and little or no consultation with relevant stakeholders by the universities and policy planners.

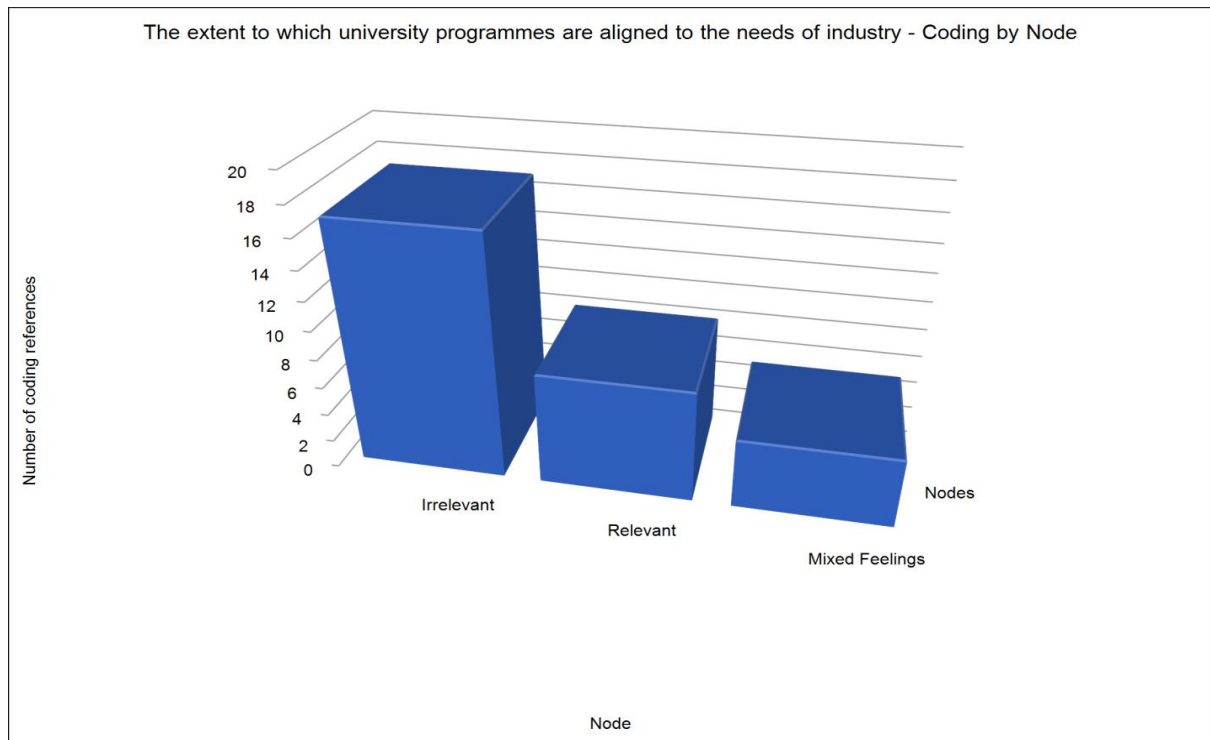


Figure 5.3b Extent to which university programmes are aligned to needs of industries

Source: Research results

The findings in Figure 5.3b show that eight responses indicate that university programmes are relevant to industry needs whilst seventeen responses indicate that university programmes are not relevant to industry needs. Five responses would not show any commitment and the respondents were not sure whether the programmes were aligned to the needs of industries.

Table 5.3 Extent to which university programmes are aligned to needs of industries

NVivo node	Number of coding references	Coding reference percentage
Relevant	8	26.7
Mixed feelings	5	16.7
Do not meet graduate needs	17	56.6

Source: Research results (column for the number of coding references total more than 20 due to multiple responses)

The 26.7% of the population in Table 5.3 are illustrated as saying that university programmes are relevant to industry needs. Five responses by 16.7% of the respondents said that they were not very sure whether the programmes were relevant. Seventeen of the responses, constituting a 56.6% of the

targeted population felt that the university programmes were irrelevant for industry expectations and did not meet graduates' needs. Table 5.3 reflects that respondents had more than one response to issues of relevance of the university programmes to needs of industries. For example, the response to the university programmes not meeting graduates' needs was mentioned 17 times. This is because the numbers under the column of coding references do not add up to 20 (number of respondents sampled for the current study). This confirms what was explained about the NVivo software's capturing of many responses to a question by one respondent in the introduction of Chapter 5 (see 5.1). The pattern continues in Table 5.4, Table 5.5, Table 5.6, Table 5.7 and Table 5.8.

Particular reference can be made to some of the voice recordings in order to show responses to the question on the extent to which university programmes are aligned to needs of industries. R4, R10, R15 and R20 represent the population that agree that university programmes are relevant to industry needs, although they still express their concerns about the issue of an unstable economy, and irrelevant programmes. Courses are more theoretical than practical. The universities try, but with the challenges they face, the respondents interestingly conclude that that was the reason why other people would be justified to think that university programmes were irrelevant for industry expectations. The respondents are quoted as saying:

- R4 Yes, they are meeting industrial expectations very much. The universities are involved in designing the curriculum. The issue in a developing economy, in general, is that the universities cannot keep pace with the industry. Education in Zimbabwe is focused on where the economy is going. The pace of education and the economy are not well aligned.
- R10 To a greater extent, they are, because what I study is on the basic skills needed in the workplace. Unfortunately, there is a lack of work experience in most programmes.
- R15 Yes, most universities are realising the need for tailoring their programmes to meet the industry's expectations. For example, many programmes at the University of Zimbabwe have been revamped to meet industry expectations.
- R20 The university programmes are making efforts of having programmes that meet industry expectations, especially in the implementation of the new initiative of STEM. Yes although this issue is not new in the country, putting much emphasis on it and strategising afresh is what will help universities to keep the focus on training using this STEM initiative. Prior to that, it seemed that universities had their own focus in training for various reasons and, therefore, most graduates would not cope with the industry's expectations thereafter.

The respondents that had mixed feelings as presented in Figure 6.3b and Table 6.3 said:

- R2 Some programmes, of course, are tailored to meet the industry's expectations, but there are some which although they are good programmes, they have just become irrelevant to today's industries because of the era we are now in. The information and technology are two of the most important things in almost every industry, so most programmes are just not tailored to meet today's industries.
- R3 Most university programmes do not meet the needs of the industry. The courses are mostly academic with more courses inclined, for example, towards Classic Chemistry instead of Applied Chemistry which is relevant in particular industries. A few universities have come up with industry-specific courses such as Environmental Engineering, etc. If considering other fields such as Civil and Water Engineering, most universities give the industry graduates that are well equipped for the industry. Yes, university programmes to meet the needs of industry

for new and emerging institutions. However, university programmes do not meet the needs of industry for old tertiary institutions that are conservative and reluctant to adapt to changing times. But this is not for students on industrial attachment who are meant to learn new things in different industries.

R1, R5, R6, R7, R12 and R13 represent the 56.6% of the population in Table 6.3, those who say university programmes are irrelevant and do not meet the graduates' needs.

- R1 I do not think university programmes are tailored to meet the industry's expectations. That could have been the case in the past. Especially in financial institutions, they need to train students on attachment and also the graduates afresh from scratch. University programmes are not at the place where they can do anything about it, they are not yet capable. The industries will actually have to train them again.
- R5 The university programmes are static as compared to what happens in the industry, for example, in Zimbabwe, there is a downward trend in the industry, some industries are shutting down, especially in Bulawayo, and the university syllabus still continues as if all is in order. Industries want people who can bring about change, but the students being churned out are bookish and do not bring in new ideas. On the other, end, there is no communication between industry and university on what is to be taught. There is no collaborative policy for the benefit of both industries.
- R6 The university programmes are just formulated by people who do not consult industry. The lecturers just design them from their offices and this makes them irrelevant to industry and in the end, the industry has to retrain the graduates to fit in the industry. There are no linkages between the universities and the industry.
- R7 Looks like universities are not keeping pace with the fast-changing industry needs. The world, in general, is fast-changing and our degrees are not changing at the same pace. Degrees are churned out to assist industry and if they lag behind the industry needs, then there is a huge problem.
- R12 They emphasise theory, with less practice. Students could benefit from shadowing people that are already working in the industry of their studies or being mentored by people that are already in the industry. That is why in the western world most millionaires are college dropouts. Most colleges do not teach students how to be creative, proactive and think outside the box. This cannot be learned from a textbook or policies.
- R13 Industry and universities should work together to promote employability. Universities do not offer programmes that are tailored to meet the industry's expectations. There exists too much theory, and less practicality offered at the university level. Universities do not offer programmes that are tailored to meet the industry's expectations.

The respondents above all agree that the industry's expectations are unmet as a result of the university programmes that they viewed as irrelevant. Most of what the students were taught, was more theoretical than practical. University programmes are not adequately meeting the expectations of the industry. The courses lack what is happening in the industry and those in industry despise the recent graduates. To a certain extent, the programmes are tailor-made to address industry expectations on some theoretical input, but the economic situation has made it difficult for universities to meet expectations. The respondents agree to the existence of a big gap between what the university offers and industry expectations. Most graduates are seen as not analytical in their thinking; they are spoon-fed a lot during their education and training and might not be effective problem-solvers. They would not be innovative, since they would not have been exposed to global trends.

The issue of minimal or no consultation between universities and industry before courses are rolled out, has been a matter of concern raised by respondents. Universities are generally out to make money, rather than to meet the needs of industries. Students on courses are not commonly equipped with employment skills, rather with academic skills. Even for those courses that are increasingly introducing placement or industrial years for students, one wonders if they train the students for the relevant fields, or it is a matter of just throwing them in and tells them to swim or sink, without acquiring relevant skills. In order to meet the expectations of industry, the students should be exposed to the industry through attachments. Some students on the industrial attachment end up working in an industry that is completely unrelated to their field. Some do divergent master's degrees. Of course, this is skewed by the high unemployment rate in the country, so that caveat leads to students taking up any job offer. Entrepreneurship skills should also be incorporated as part of their university curriculum across the board, instead of the curriculum being mainly academic in most disciplines.

The respondents referred to the fact that in most western countries, universities, industry, and commerce work together, and many inventions/prototypes come from university laboratories which are sponsored by industry and commerce. Universities, therefore, are geared to aim at research on topics that help to solve industry and commerce problems. However, Zimbabwean students are so separated from industry and commerce, and encounter work-related challenges for the first time on industrial attachment or at post-graduation levels. They are not aware of the needs of industry and come out of college ready only to be told what to do. All these participants' sentiments are elaborated in the literature as supported by Mawere (2013), and Maylette & Wride (2017). The writers reveal that there is a gap between educational policy and industry with the proof that more than half of the teachers and tutors do not know what the industry really is looking for in recruits.

Another proof from STEM is that the teachers and tutors cannot keep up with the latest developments, and changes in career options, study paths and education policy (Maylette & Wride, 2017). However, if Zimbabwe were to fill many of STEM sector vacancies in the coming decades, it is vital that schools are able to be accurately informed and advise students considering a future in any area. The respondents' views imply that there exists a gap between what is taught at school and what is needed in the industry. The lack of academically well-informed applicants who fully understand how practically to apply their knowledge in the real world, has become a matter of concern. The lack of knowledge by teachers on career paths available to students is also proof of the gap that exists between the education policies and industry. There is a need to prepare graduates for the challenging, changing global economy. The HE mission of community service is too often forgotten, and the

universities have an ethical obligation to assist in solving society's problems. Their main role in national development should be the application of research findings, especially in science and technology, and attend to immediate problems on the ground. It is quite clear that policies concentrate on those still studying, but who never know what will happen to them the moment they graduate (Mawere, 2013; Sande, 2018; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011).

University education can be irrelevant and that calls for an urgent need to come up with policies that will make it relevant. Any country can bring an improvement on their education systems, of which Zimbabwe is not an exception. The mission of universities should be fulfilled to produce not job seekers, but job creators and innovators with high skills. This requires an approach to higher education that fosters decisive thinking and creativity in order to organise students for the diverse range of challenges and opportunities ahead. The disparity between education policy innovations and graduates' accessing of the work market is one of the causes of high unemployment.



Figure 5.4a Ranking of skills in terms of their importance to industry

Source: Research results

Figure 5.4a shows a word cloud that confirms text search query results of important skills that are required in industry. There are two types of skills: soft skills and technical skills. The lists of soft skills that are listed are communication, management, knowledge, criticism, analysis, innovation, ethics, problem-solving, creativity and information skills. The technical skills are computer and practical skills. The soft skills and technical skills are important.

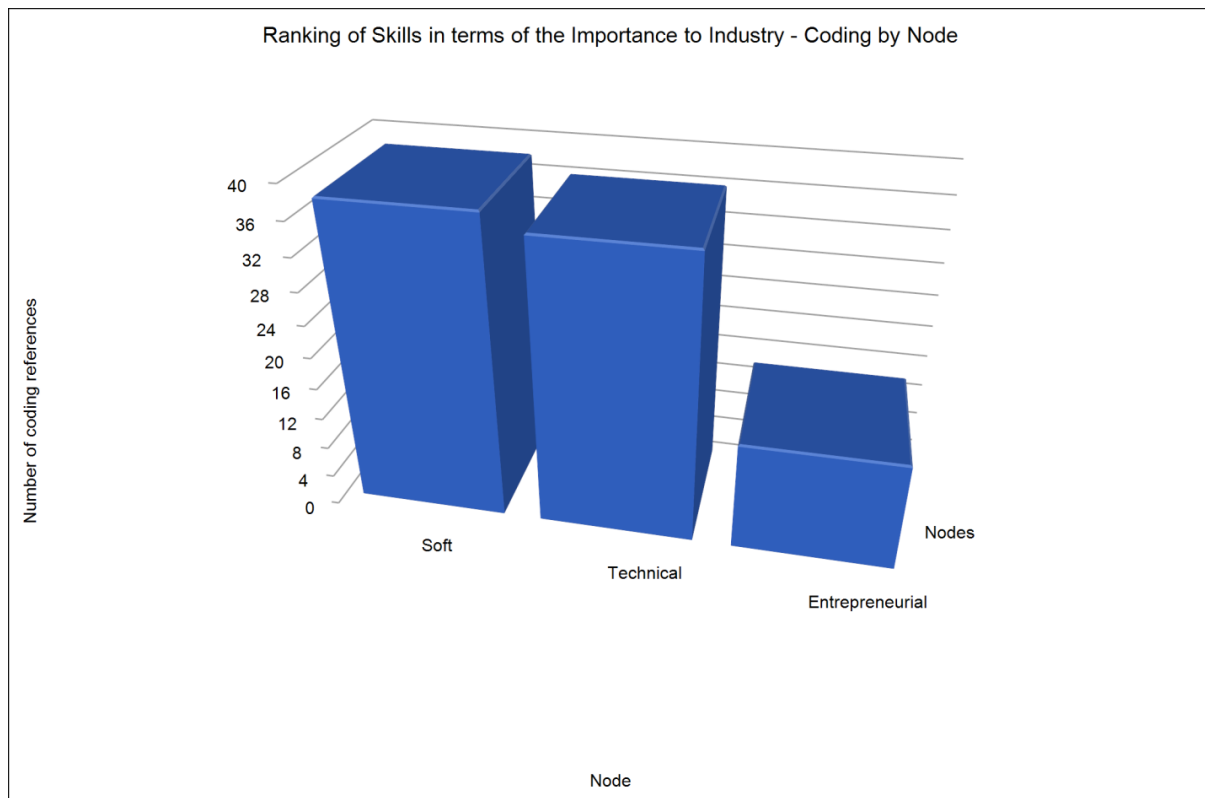


Figure 5.4b Ranking of skills in terms of their importance to industry

Source: Research results

According to Figure 5.4b and Table 5.4, the soft skills are ranked the highest with 43.2%, followed by the technical skills ranked at 40.9% and the entrepreneurship skills ranking the lowest at 15%. With the results of responses, this shows that the respondents view entrepreneurship skills as of less importance, whilst they view the soft and technical skills as more important.

Table 5.4 Ranking of skills in terms of their importance to industry

NVivo node	Number of coding references	Coding reference percentage
Entrepreneurial skills	14	15.9
Technical skills	36	40.9
Soft skills	38	43.2

Source: Research results :The column for the number of coding references total more than 20 due to multiple responses.

The majority of the responses highlighted that the soft and technical skills are more important than entrepreneurship skills. Reports for R3, R4, R5, and R11 say:

- R3 Technology and science skills are a dire need in order to rebuild the industry. All skills are crucial depending on the field of expertise (intellectual) knowledge and one should be able to apply it practically. By skills, I mean computer, scientific skills, etc.
- R4 The most important skills in the industry are; competence, good work ethics, hard work and having the desire to learn.
- R5 The most important skill in the industry is loyalty and teamwork.

In my opinion, the most important skills in the industry are hard and soft skills. Among them are leadership, innovation, organisation, communication, teamwork/building, ability to use information technology, strategic planning, social skills, time/talent management, customer service, emotional intelligence, understanding regulations, responsibility, empathy, commitment, problem solving, decision-making, enthusiasm, crisis management, creativity, self-confidence/awareness, writing, resilience and negotiation skills. Different careers require different skills. The 15.9% of the population in Figure 5.4b and Table 5.4 mention that entrepreneurial skills are also required. Hard and soft skills are critical. As highlighted in Table 5.4, the number of coding references for technical and soft skills (36 and 38 respectively) were more than the number of respondents which is 20, due to the fact that NVivo captures the frequency of the responses and not the respondents. The respondents also mention STEM representing the Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematical skills which would represent both technical and entrepreneurial skills. The following voices confirm the various responses:

- R15 Information technology skills, geo-information science, data gathering, and analysis skills are important. STEM skills can be very effective if implemented accordingly. Many other skills are developed through STEM. The government is doing well actually on implementing the STEM initiative. Countries like Germany, China and India are where they are because of technological revolution through STEM. The country is not shortened of those who can sing and dance and say jawbreakers but it is short of STEM people. Surely, since other countries did it and had great results, our country can do it too. There is a great need to schematise and also start businesses and people should be encouraged to advance their studies to master's degree, PhD, conduct research and publish papers.
- R16 Creativity, leadership entrepreneurial and management skills are the most important among other skills.
- R17 STEM skills are very important. In my opinion, innovation, creativity and a capacity to think out of the box to solve emergent problems are also important than just fitting one to an antiquated system and frame.
- R19 Soft skills, information technology skills, writing presentations, and entrepreneurship skills are key skills.
- R20 STEM skills are crucial just as the government has resorted to this great initiative to STEM-itise [to STEM-itise is to teach Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics subjects and skills]. There is also a great need to emphasise the agriculture skills and people should be encouraged to plant their own vegetables and fruit trees, for consumption and also for business.

Based on the small numbers of responses amounting to 15.9% of the population of responses in Figure 5.4b and Table 5.4 that mention that entrepreneurial skills are important, literature has

something to say. Ekore & Okekeocha (2012), and Bentley (2018) claim that university graduates have a notable fear of being an entrepreneur. Those who end up doing entrepreneurship courses do not even consider the courses as desirable or even as viable career options. They just buy and sell wares in order to earn a living without much effort to improve their entrepreneurship skills. Actually entrepreneurial skills require both soft and technical skills in order to make one employable and able to create jobs for others. All skills are required in every individual in order to produce an all-round complete citizen. This is corroborated in literature as well by Garwe (2014), Chakanyuka (2015) and McGill (2018) who observed that employers prepare hiring graduates who have modest skills and train them to perform a job, and yet these days the situation is different. They want to employ graduates who possess all the skills (soft, technical and entrepreneurial skills) to do a job. The ability to use those skills effectively in the workplace in their businesses will be a great advantage. Garwe (2014), Chakanyuka (2015) and McGill (2018) agree that the shortcomings in communication between industry and universities on the issue of employability really need attention.

According to Garwe (2014), there is a lack of up-to-date equipment in some institutions, to match dynamic technological developments in industry in order to develop technical skills. There is also no refurbishment, replacement and retooling policy in learning and work institutions in the country and the library resources are inadequate and not up-to-date. There is a serious problem of a brain drain from public and government institutions to the private sector, the universities and other countries that offer better remuneration. The departure of qualified personnel in the search for greener pastures has always been a cause for concern in the country which sees all the skilled personnel being absorbed in other countries (Chipunza, 2017; Guha, 2018; Kariwo, 2011; McGill, 2018).

The strategy to reduce or eliminate the exodus of graduates to greener pastures is helping universities to prepare graduates to be job seekers. Similarly, Waghid (2009b) suggests cosmopolitanism be a virtue that is taught in universities in order to create revived universities that can produce graduates that are ready for the world of work. In his other book, Waghid (2010b) sees the importance of DCE emphasised in universities and believes this would instil a spirit of freedom in learners and graduates. The graduates would be prepared for both employment and job-creation opportunities. Similarly, industries need to contribute to creating opportunities to receive graduates for work purposes. The government is expected to open up opportunities for graduates to form businesses that would be supported to grow and flourish. Universities, industries, and government need to engage with each other. The consultations are encouraged as confirmed by Waghid (2014) and the triple helix model, which copes with different forms of universities, and industry–government interaction (Luna & Velasco, 2010; Vaivode, 2015). Clearly, if universities are revived, they produce employable

graduates with scientific knowledge that can be used to respond to societal needs, problems and demands. Most of the graduates come out of school expecting to get employment, but in most cases, jobs are scarce or non-existent.

Involving students in business activities availed by industrialists when the students are still on campus can be done by revived universities. This would allow students to improve their skills, and become experienced enough to be able to begin their own projects immediately after they leave university. Accordingly, universities should understand the meaning of job creation. The universities can adopt strategies that help graduates create jobs especially in a period of economic recession. Universities can use the proverbial ‘golden egg’ of job creation policies and use the net new job that is the job created without displacing any other economic activity (Vaivode, 2015).

Zimbabwe could adopt the above strategies and maybe this could minimise or curb the unemployment rate after a period of time. The strategies would help universities to produce and develop skilled graduates. However, the concern is that efforts had been made to adopt these strategies in Zimbabwe, but there have been other forces that affected the process, and the unemployment rate has still remained very high. These forces are the unstable economy and the unstable politics of the country (Bentley, 2018; Garwe, 2014). The impact of an unstable economy and unstable politics form a large gap in the research field, hence, the need for other researchers to pursue the studies which could assist in closing the gaps and bringing about a lasting change in the economic situation in the country.

5.2.2 Theme B: DCE and its effects on employability

Section 5.2 sought to present, analyse and interpret the responses to questions relating to democracy in education, and to show how it relates to the education policy, training, and development of students and graduates’ access to the industry. Objective 2 and sub-question 2 (1.10 and 1.12) of this study guided this discussion. There were three questions asked to participants during the interview as presented in Appendix A.

Question 5: Can you please explain how the industry engages universities in their approach to promote employability?

Question 6: How do stakeholders get involved in the production of quality education?

Question 7: Who do you think should be involved in the development of educational policy in Zimbabwe?

Figure 5.5a, Figure 5.5b and Table 5.5 present the views of the respondents in this section.



Figure 5.5a How industries engage with universities to promote employability

Source: Research results

Figure 5.5a represents a word cloud that confirms text search query results to show how industry engages with universities to promote employability and the involvement of stakeholders. There has been notably high and low engagement, and little or no consultation of stakeholders concerning the issues of curriculum development. The universities and industries have come together when it came to student industrial attachment. Some respondents were not very sure whether there has been productive involvement of industries or not in the issues of curriculum development as seen in the responses.

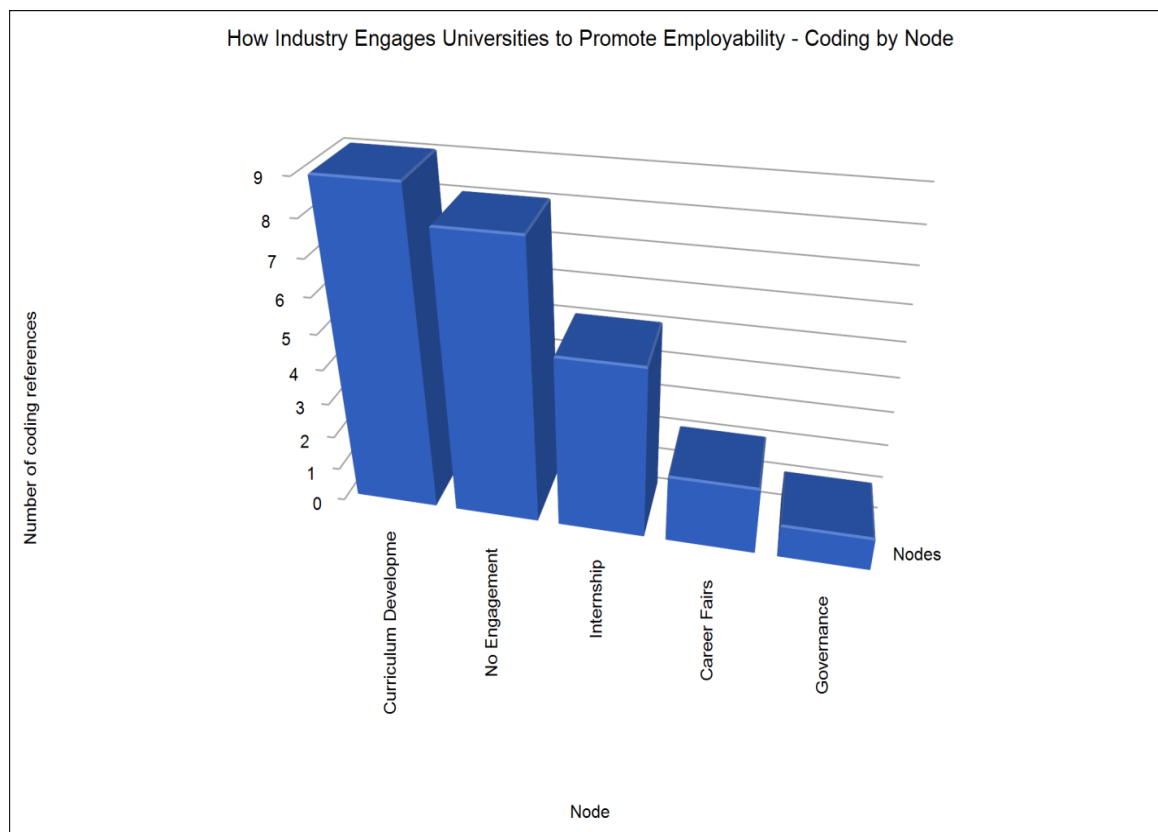


Figure 5.5b How industries engage with universities to promote employability

Source: Research results

The analysis bar chart shown in Figure 5.5b reveals comparatives of 32% of responses citing that there is no meaningful engagement. The 36% revealed that there is more of curriculum development involvement; 20% showed that industries are only involved in providing internships and 4% relates to issues of governance, whereby, the involvement of industries is only on university councils.

Table 5.5 How industries engage with universities to promote employability

NVivo node	Number of coding references	Coding reference percentage
No meaningful engagement	8	32
Curriculum development involvement	9	36
Internship	5	20
Governance-involvement in university councils	1	4
Career Fairs	2	8

Source: Research results

The column for the number of coding references total more than 20 due to multiple responses.

The picture of results accounted for in Table 5.1. is about how industries engage with universities in the approach to promote employability. Table 5.5 provides a summary in the percentages showing

that the majority of the responses by participants believe that in order for industries to promote employability, they engage universities more on issues of curriculum development followed by 20% for internships. These are instances when university students are engaged in the industrial attachment. For example, the voices of R3, R5, R8 and R16 stress the importance of the engagement between industries and universities on the issues of curriculum development when students go for industrial attachment during their training. The respondents said:

- R3 I think the industries do engage universities, because they allow students to come for industrial training. The experience of students during that period would promote employability. Not all universities send students for industrial attachment, unfortunately.
- R5 The industries need to consult what is taught and share experiences with university supervisors when students are on attachment. If this gets done, graduates can be employable although the problem would be that currently in the country there are fewer job opportunities.
- R8 When lecturers go for attachment visits and they are given feedback on programmes and student performance, it is a sure sign that industries engage universities to promote employability.
- R16 Yes, industries do link up with universities. Students go on attachment before graduation.

On the one hand, the contradiction by the 32% of the targeted population who said that there is no meaningful engagement can be represented by R1. R14, while on the other hand, claims that there is a limited engagement, because of the top-down approach. There is no consultation by policymakers to relevant stakeholders which ends up affecting the working together of universities and industries in order to produce employable graduates who are also able to create jobs and also become productive entrepreneurs. R1 and R14 said:

- R1 There is no engagement by the industry to universities still happening now. That used to happen during our time when I was still at university in the 90s.
- R14 I think there is a limited engagement, and most decisions are just made at a ministerial level without consultation, without consulting stakeholders. There is a need for stakeholder involvement. I was once involved in the university strategic plan document research. What I noted was that universities are producing what is far removed from what industry is looking for. Basically, policy and development must start from the grassroots levels and the end user than just being dictated from the top which is currently being used, a top-down model. Industries are supposed to assimilate whatever products universities produce. There is a need for improved engagements between industry and universities in order to tailor make education systems that are relevant to the industry.

Out of a population of 20, only 8% of the population as presented in Figure 5.5b and Table 5.5, spoke of the involvement in career fairs. Involvement is expected to be high in career fairs between the industries and universities where students can be given career guidance. The industries and universities could come up with ways of making the students self-reliant, employable and also become job creators. R18 and R19 highlighted this clearly by saying:

- R18 Through students' exhibitions and symposiums, industries and universities get to talk about employability issues.

- R19 The industries and universities are supposed to work together in order to tackle the problem of unemployment. However, the efforts are when both invite each other for seminars and workshops to discuss the expectations and each time hope to improve on areas where there are weaknesses, causing the strain in the issue of employability.

The emphasis is on consultation and expectation of high engagement between industries and universities. The universities could engage the industry boards in dialogue in order to ask about the needs of industries. The industry system in Zimbabwe has been paralysed and there has been no fruitful implementation since most industries are closing down due to the harsh economic crisis.

However, with all the efforts of the country, there is hope that there would be a great change and restoration in the economy. The universities could create think tanks with industry, who could advise on new developments that should be addressed through college degrees. The industry should be part of the graduate-making process. The managers should contribute in the drawing up of education policies with the emphasis on meeting the requirements or expectations of their industries in terms of performance. This concurs with literature in a review of graduate employability by Lowden et al. (2011), Ndapewa (2012), Garwe (2014) and Makoshori (2017), who conclude that the problem with the issue of employability is that there is always a discrepancy between what academics view HEIs are for, and how the government views the institutions.

The employers and HEIs always have different understandings of employability and the concept of relevant skill. The employers see graduate attributes as more important than the degree subjects and this affects the progress in promoting graduate employability measures (Garwe, 2014; Lowden et al., 2011). Many of the education strategies are drawn up in order to ensure that the economy is stabilised. New jobs are being added as long as the strategies are implemented appropriately in order to get the graduates involved in job-creating activities. The efforts in Zimbabwe for such an opportunity to create jobs have not been that fruitful since the unemployment rate has remained high over a period of time as observed by Chipunza (2017), Sande (2018) and Chakaza (2018).

These ideas are also supported by the studies carried out by Mawere (2013) and Bentley (2018), who reveal that some policies are only in favour of those that are still in universities without considering what will happen to them when they graduate. The graduates are expected to be absorbed into the industry. For example, the government allocated funds that were currently used by universities to support industrial attachment. In most cases, it was in work-related learning in disciplines that are neither technical nor vocational. The extended employment towards industrial attachment in humanities and the classics from certain universities were not a technical or vocational activity. The

results of the studies show that the students were not helped much during the industrial attachment since the majority did work that was not really related to their programmes. Zimbabwean students face almost a similar scenario in most industries where they go for industrial attachment.

Full engagement and consultation between industries and universities would be essential at such a stage to come up with ways of assisting the students so that they get groomed to be employable later, and also become good and productive and self-reliant job creators and entrepreneurs. Despite certain policy challenges affecting the formal and informal sectors of the economy, a good policy framework designed through consultations with relevant stakeholders should look at the supply of human resources (Bentley, 2018; Mawere, 2013; Waghid, 2014). Graduates become the human resource available for industries, therefore, a good policy framework should be in favour of graduates. The degrading of institutions which do not at all favour graduates has caused the graduates to leave for other countries. Qualified personnel has left the employers of the country in search of greener pastures inside or outside Zimbabwe as they try to escape the proportionate lowering of remuneration for professional staff. As a result, many have left the industries (companies and government institutions), either for local universities and the private sector that pays more, or for better-paying jobs outside the country (Guha, 2018; Mawere, 2013; McGill, 2018; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011).

On the other hand, when policy strategies for job creation are suggested well through proper consultation with relevant stakeholders, the industries and universities involved can favour the graduates. One of the strategies suggested would be putting into place a policy whereby a job is created without displacing any economic activity. Such kinds of policy strategies are made in favour of graduates so that, as they graduate, they have employment opportunities. Many of the strategies made are to make sure that the economy is stabilised and new jobs are being added as long as the strategies are implemented appropriately in order to get the graduates involved in job-creating activities. The efforts in Zimbabwe for such an opportunity to create jobs have not been that fruitful, since the unemployment rate has remained high over a period of time. The truth of this statement was substantiated as shown in the results from the targeted population who continue to indicate that the education policies in place do not favour the graduates (Guha, 2018; Mawere, 2013; McGill, 2018; Shizha & Kariwo, 2011). The new policies have been presented in order to promote the production of self-reliant employees and employers. So far these new policies do not seem different from the policies that were presented during the colonial period, and this caused stigmatisation of those that had left colleges in search of employment (Shizha & Kariwo, 2011).



Figure 5.6a Role of stakeholders involved in the development of quality education

Source: Research results

Figure 5.6a presents a word cloud with text search query results showing the responsibility of stakeholders involved in the development of quality education. The key issue is that all relevant stakeholders such as universities, industries, students, and graduates should be involved in decision-making. The decision-making concerns the issues of student internships, industrial attachment, curriculum design, training courses, and education policies. Quality education can be expected and employable graduates that are self-reliant and job creators can be produced.

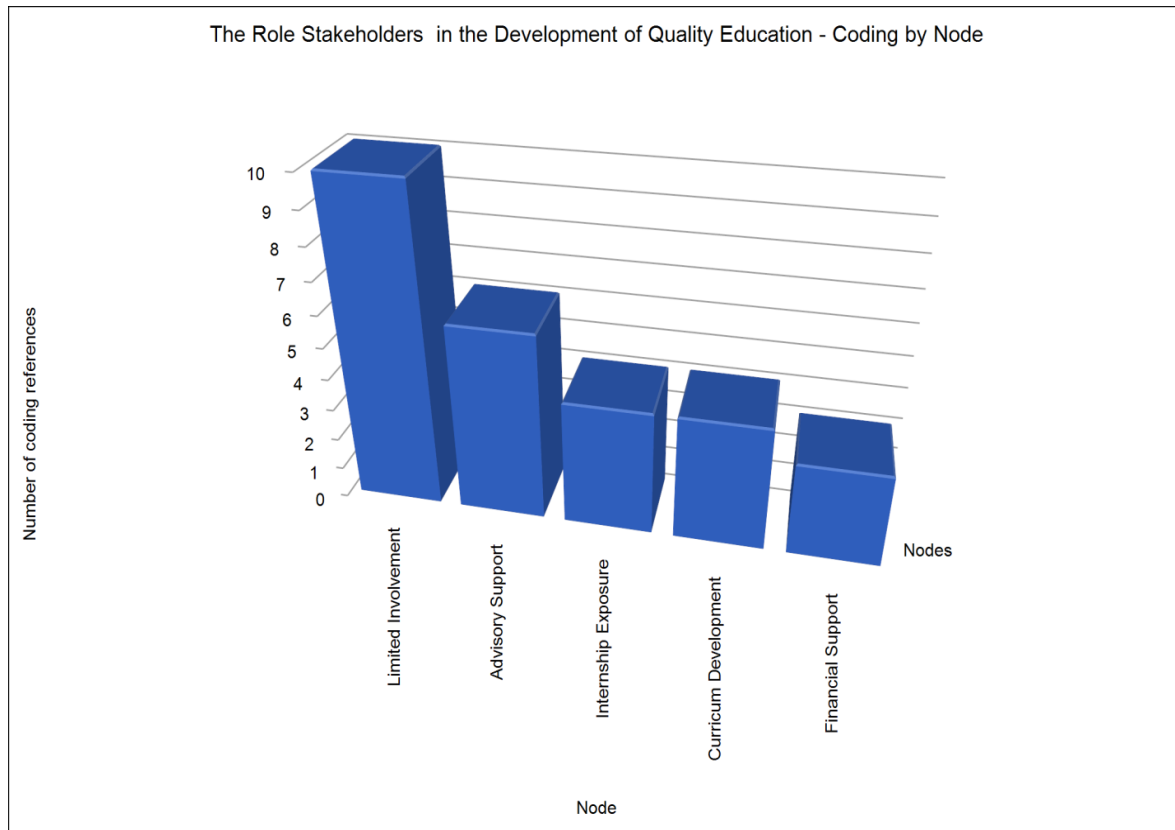


Figure 5.6b Role of stakeholders involved in the development of quality education

Source: Research results

According to Figure 5.6b the majority of responses indicate that there is limited involvement of stakeholders in the development of quality education. However, low percentages of responses indicated the role played by stakeholders in the development of quality education. For example, stakeholders do offer advisory support, internship exposure, curriculum development programmes and financial support.

Table 5.6 Role of stakeholders involved in the development of quality education

NVivo node	Number of coding references	Coding reference percentage
Limited stakeholder involvement	10	37.1
Offer advisory support services	6	22.2
Internship exposure for students	4	14.8
Involvement in curriculum development	4	14.8
Financial support services	3	11.1

Source: Research results (column for the number of coding references total more than 20 due to multiple responses).

Table 5.6 shows that 37.1% responses reveal that stakeholders have a limited involvement in the production of quality education. They agree that it can be difficult for stakeholders outside of the education field to influence quality. Yet if they work together, they could offer better quality education through the synergy as confirmed in the voices of R11, R19 and R20.

- R11 Unfortunately, not all stakeholders get involved or are given chance to be involved. We tend to put the cart before the horse here. Quality education should focus on all education from primary to higher education with industry as the final goal, so should focus on an educational fit for industry. The industry is not as involved as it should be. The different stages of education are fragmented in their policies and are usually not fit for purpose if there is any purpose at all. It should always be borne in mind that people get an education to get jobs so the industry should be a key stakeholder in this.
- R19 Not all stakeholders are fully involved due to a number of reasons; among others, lack of or minimal resources where they end up being forced to not being involved, never being involved to participate in strategies or activities that lead to the production of quality education.
- R20 All stakeholders are supposed to be involved in the education and training of students: students themselves, parents, community, government and its education ministries and industry. The linkage is mostly compromised when the stakeholders who are mostly at the implementation level get left out as decision-makers, merely bring down directions and policies in order to be implemented.

The 22.2% of the consultants as summed up in Table 5.6 state that stakeholders offered advisory support services. They mention that lecturers, industry players, and other stakeholders are given a chance to form committees that often meet to create education policies. These respondents also mention the meeting of law societies in Zimbabwe who engage the Faculty of Law at different universities. The Zimbabwean institution of engineers also campaigns for engineering graduates to be offered advisory support about curriculum issues. R7 and R8 go further by encouraging universities to use the triple helix theory (Luna & Velasco, 2010; Vaivode, 2015).

- R7 This should be a tripartite involvement: government, universities, and industry.
- R8 The triple helix theory talks about government, industry and university relations. The university should take advantage of this framework, as the interactions guarantee uptake of research and graduates. As inputs, the university gets ideas (commissioned research) and exchange programmes with both industry and government. Quality education is seen in its relevance to the needs of its stakeholders.

The responses above are collaborated in the literature by Luna & Velasco (2010), and Vaivode (2015) who agree that the triple helix model assumes that the production and dissemination of socially organised knowledge drive economic development in a country. The institutions are encouraged to play a role of networking the relations among the key actors: universities, industries and the government. R7, as noted above, voiced that the tripartite involvement of government, universities, and industry was key and all the other stakeholders seem to branch from the three key actors. Luna & Velasco (2010) and Vaivode (2015) see the purpose of innovation policy as to select a desirable future and facilitate its realisation. Innovation is defined as what comes out when science, technology, and

innovation have a common linkage. Policy planners, therefore, need to involve all stakeholders in order to get the involvement of all relevant key players. In this instance, the universities, industries and the government are key players. The universities, of course, would require the involvement of parents, teachers, students, etc. If all key players get involved and come up with basic innovations, such as having entrepreneurship as the driving force of innovations for the education policies, Zimbabwe can be assured of economic growth, welfare and an improved standard of living for the citizens (Atkinson et al., 2012; Sande, 2018).

On the other hand there were respondents who said that stakeholders are involved in internship exposure for students (Figure 5.6a and Table 5.6.). Other respondents revealed that stakeholders are involved in curriculum development and offered financial support services. Although all stakeholders may want to be involved in the production of quality education, not all of them are involved in decision-making. Only administrators, teachers and elected officials, such as the school board, are involved in the production of quality education as confirmed in the voice recordings for the respondents: R1 and R2 who said:

- R1. Not all stakeholders are involved in the production of quality education; some are, of course, contributing in various ways.
- R2. Stakeholders may want to contribute to the production of quality education. Not all of them are involved in the production of quality education. Only administrators, teachers and elected officials such as the school board are involved in the production of quality education.

Also, some stakeholders are involved in the production of quality education by financing some of the students undergoing industrial attachment. Some train the students during the industrial attachment period as revealed by R6 and R7.

- R6. Students are attached to the industries during the training process. Most industries contribute financially to the training of graduates through ZIMDEF.
- R7. Attachments are a good feedback platform, but unfortunately, only a few companies are taking students on attachment.

The emphasis is that industries are active because they take interns for the practical aspect and to help them gain exposure in particular fields studied by students. When students get attached in the industries, the industries also give feedback on their performance to universities and get involved in the designing of the curriculum. Various programmes of skills development have suffered from obstacles such as the lack of knowledge among instructors and lecturers on operations in the industry, lack of placements for students, inexperienced lecturers and instructors, poor funding, obsolete and inadequate equipment and an inability to attract partners. The challenges which are faced in the education sector are caused by political, economic and social factors. Many of the constraints are

determined by the budgetary cuts in the education sector that have occurred due to inadequate government revenues. These budgetary cuts are affecting the capacity of the MHETESTD and the Ministry of Education to plan and implement policies, as well as monitor the education system (Chakanyuka, 2015; Garwe, 2014; Mawere, 2013).



Figure 5.7a Who should be involved in the development of educational policy?

Source: Research results

Figure 5.7a displays a word cloud to answer the question: who should be involved in the development of educational policy in Zimbabwe? This question was developed further here after the issue of who should be involved in policy planning and development featured a lot from almost all respondents during the presentation, analysis, and interpretation of the semi-structured interviews in Chapter 4. The respondents had been asked to respond to what their expectations were in the issues of policy planning and development and the issue of involvement was raised. The respondents reflected that in the word cloud of Figure 5.7a and listed the following: industries (with business people and the management), universities (including academics and researchers), government and ministries, all stakeholders and communities, students, graduates, and parents. Clearly, all students, industrialists, curriculum planners and innovators, government officials, parents, and the community should be involved in policy issues. The list also referred to the politicians, members of parliament, chief executives and senior administrators, powerful people in national associations representing a variety of interest groups, employers, associations, chambers of commerce and trade unions and the researchers from universities or other tertiary institutions.

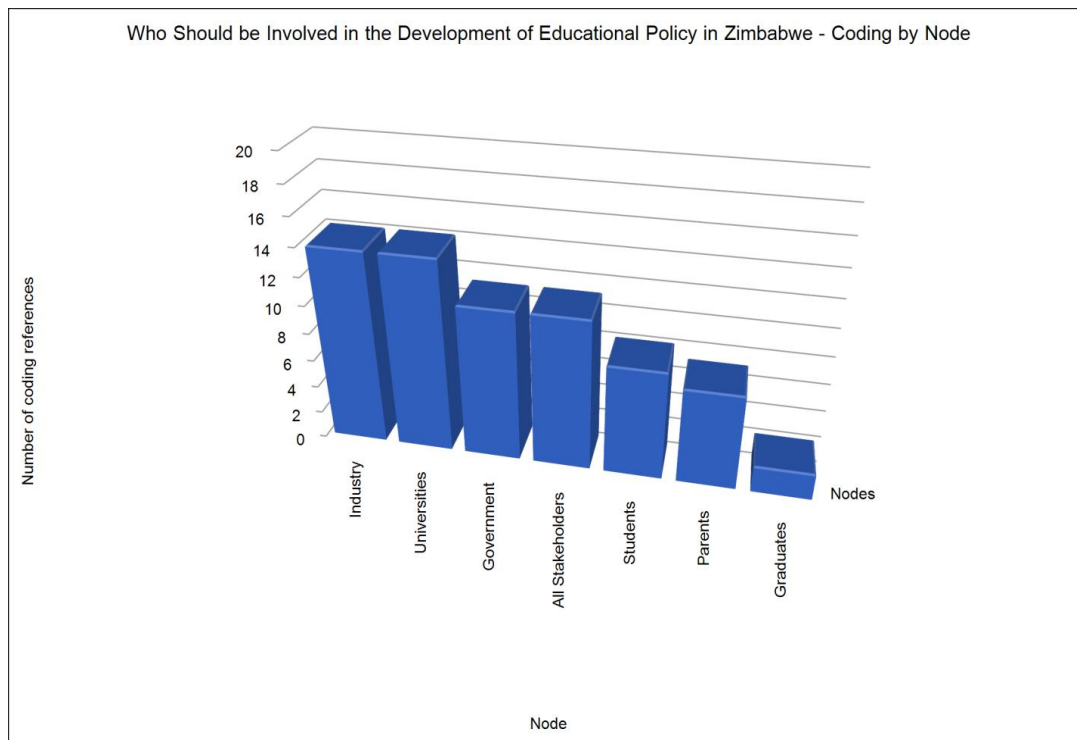


Figure 5.7b Who should be involved in the development of educational policy?

Source: Research results

The analysis bar chart in Figure 5.7b provides responses that depict that universities, industries, government, students, parents, graduates and all stakeholders should be involved in the development of educational policy in Zimbabwe.

Table 5.7 Who should be involved in the development of educational policy?

NVivo node	Number of coding references	Coding reference percentage
All stakeholders	11	16.4
Government	11	16.4
Universities	14	20.9
Industry	14	20.9
Students	8	11.9
Parents	7	10.5
Graduates	2	3

Source: Research results (column for the number of coding references total more than 20 due to multiple responses)

Generally, for all the 20 respondents of the targeted population according to Table 5.7 all stakeholders should be involved to a greater extent in the planning and developing of educational policy. The universities, industries, government, students, parents and graduates should be involved in the development of educational policy in Zimbabwe. The relevant ministries should be involved in the development of policy and need to do that with the relevant stakeholders. Based on the above discussion, the use of the element of voices for all 20 responses has been confirming the list of all different stakeholders to be involved. Although different responses highlight one or more stakeholders, it is safe to say that all stakeholders should be involved in the planning and development of educational policy. R2, R3, R6, R10, R17, R18 and R19 expressed it clearly and said:

- R2 Students and parents, together with all other stakeholders, should be involved in policy and development.
- R3 The state (government) stakeholders and non-state actors, university lecturers, industry management and ministerial policymakers should be involved.
- R6 Everyone should be involved. They should have intensive consultation from the grassroots. The industry should be involved, since they will employ the graduates.
- R10 All stakeholders should be involved in policy and development. For example, the industry has specific requirements from students after they graduate, hence, if both the industry and the education system are involved, the education policies can better prepare and equip graduates to obtain qualifications required. The qualifications should help them find employment and become effective in the industry. Stakeholders such as the government should consult all other stakeholders like employees, educators, and students in making policies related to employment so that the policies are determined in such a way that does not disadvantage any of the other stakeholders.
- R17 Policy development should involve staff, industrialists and commerce, alumni, government, non-governmental organisations, and local communities.
- R18 Government, industry, tertiary institutions, traditional leaders, students, and the media should link up on policy planning and development.
- R19 All stakeholders are supposed to be involved in policy planning and development: both the managers and those at the implementation level, for example, students, parents, industry, university staff and management, ministries and government, etc.

The importance of collaboration and the involvement of many players in policy planning and development is upheld by Luna & Velasko (2010), Waghid (2014), Vaivode (2015) and Bentley (2018). Weight is given to all stakeholders, but more weight seems to hinge on government, universities, and industry. This emphasis on tripartite involvement is what R7 and R8 concentrated on and said:

- R7 This should be a tripartite involvement: government, universities, and industry.
- R8 The triple helix theory talks about government, industry and university relations. The university should take advantage of this framework, as the interactions guarantee uptake of research and graduates. As inputs, the university gets ideas (commissioned research) and exchange programmes with both industry and government. Quality education is seen in its relevance to the needs of its stakeholders.

Universities need to involve students as well because their satisfaction determines and measures quality education. The students would then be guided to choose courses and careers wisely. The

importance of involving many key players in the issues of policy planning and development is emphasised more by Garwe (2014). In his writing, Garwe (2014) collects the opinions of the parents and the community concerning an important observation that massive education in Zimbabwe led to huge investments in education. This led to a decline in public funding, hyperinflation and economic mismanagement. The highly educated labour amongst the parents and community population were also heard demanding high salaries and incentives as cited by Shizha & Kariwo (2011), and Mawere (2013). All these cries from students, parents, and community considered by policy planners would assist in coming up with strategies on how to handle the education and training challenges and barriers and work together towards bringing solutions. In agreement, Waghid (2009a), and Waghid & Davids (2017), promote the partnership of key players in order to bring lasting change.

A creation of universities where cosmopolitanism is a virtue to be taught in universities in order to eradicate political dictatorship and mass enslavement is created. In such a scenario friendship is developed and an experience of freedom and quality is created as ideas are being suggested. Different stakeholders get to have a say and contribute to stabilising the financial system and adding new jobs, if ideas are implemented properly. Partnerships can be formed between universities and private colleges, and other universities, businesses, and civil society organisations. By tailoring curricula and training programmes to local market needs, African HEIs, and of course, Zimbabwean institutions included, can develop new funding streams and respond directly to the unemployment problem (Bentley, 2018; Hogan, 2016).

5.2.3 Theme C: University education and the development of entrepreneurship skills

This section seeks to present, analyse and interpret the responses to questions relating to entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe. The changes that should be implemented in the university curriculum to produce entrepreneurs in order to meet the expectations of industries are suggested. The effect of how graduates' access to industries was affected by their training and development in industries during the process of implementing broken down education policies into courses and programmes is reviewed. The four questions that were asked during the interview were based on Objective 3 and sub-question 3 (see 1.10 and 1.12) that guided the current study. All the interview questions responded to the issue of entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe and also aimed at showing how the university curricula were implemented in order to produce entrepreneurs that meet the expectations of industry. The questions were as follows:

Question 8: What are your views on the changes that should be implemented in the university curriculum to produce entrepreneurs that meet industries' expectations?

Question 9: Explain whether there is capacity and willingness to develop, organize and manage a business venture in Zimbabwe or not?

Question 10: What is your view on starting a new business?

Question 11: Do you think the current situation in Zimbabwe prepares students with skills to start a new business?

Figure 5.8a, Figure 5.8b and Table 5.8 illustrate the interrelationship between curriculum reforms needed to produce entrepreneurs, and expectations of industry.



Figure 5.8a Curriculum reforms needed to produce entrepreneurial graduates

Source: Research results

Figure 5.8a illustrates a word cloud to provide a summary of the text search query results. The text search query results reveal the interrelationships of curriculum reforms that can produce entrepreneurial graduates that meet industry expectations. The curriculum reforms are broken down into programmes and courses that are offered to students in universities. The purpose is to meet the needs of industry and produce employable graduates and individuals that are self-reliant, job creators and are entrepreneurs. Universities need to shift the emphasis of their programmes and courses towards imparting soft skills, practical skills, entrepreneurship skills, mentorship contact period and curriculum development.

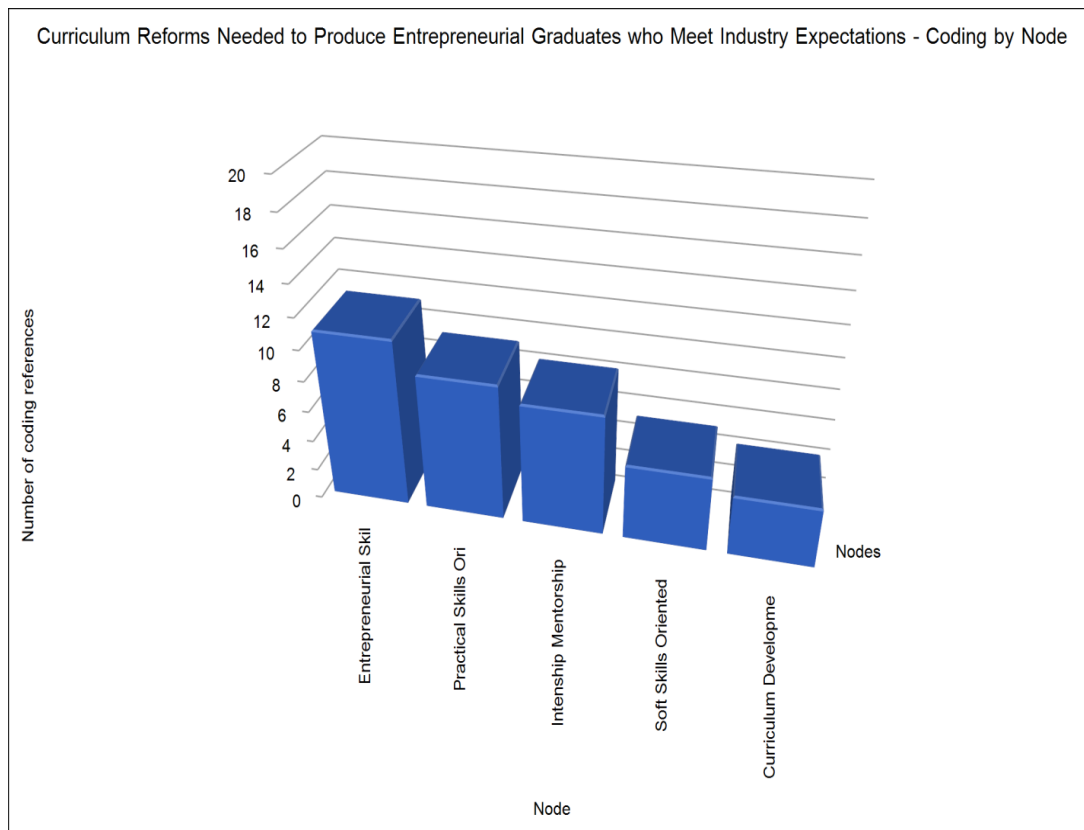


Figure 5.8b Curriculum reforms needed to produce entrepreneurial graduates that meet industry expectations

Source: Research results

Figure 5.8b illustrates the number of responses that show the different curriculum reforms that are needed to produce entrepreneurial graduates that meet industry expectations. The curriculum reforms are impartation of entrepreneurial, practical and soft skills, increase of the length of internship mentorship contact period and the involvement of employers in the curriculum development.

Table 5.8 Curriculum reforms needed to produce entrepreneurial graduates

NVivo node	Number of coding references	Coding reference percentage
Shift emphasis towards imparting soft skills	5	13.5
Shift emphasis towards imparting practical skills	9	24.4
Shift emphasis towards imparting entrepreneurial skills	11	29.7
Increase the length of internship mentorship contact period	8	21.6
Involve employers in the curriculum development	4	10.8

Source: Research results (column for the number of coding references total more than 20 due to multiple responses)

Table 5:8 accounts for five responses (13.5%) by respondents who felt that there was a need to shift emphasis towards imparting soft skills. The examples of soft skills are goal setting, communication skills, teamwork, etc. Nine responses (24.4%) were recorded for the respondents that said the shift should be towards practical/technical skills, 11 responses (29.7%) were mentioned towards entrepreneurial skills, whilst eight responses (21.6%) reveal that internship and mentorship contact periods should be longer than it is currently. The four responses from the 20 respondents, forming 10.8% of the responses from a targeted population as presented in Table 5.8 were recorded as saying that employers should be involved in the curriculum development. R5, R7, R8 and R15 said:

- R5. Industrialists should be involved not just as invitees to graduation ceremonies but at stakeholder meetings. The senate of the university must have progressive individuals who are industrialists and who are not corrupt. The universities should invite successful companies to come present job creation strategies, for example, present on how successful they were and their experiences in starting businesses, through workshops, talk shows, etc.
- R7. There is a need to move with speed the review of the curriculum because so many degrees on offer in a number of universities are just useless.
- R8. There is a need for increasing exchanges between industry representatives and universities. Thorough hands-on practices and exposure (mentorship) with renowned businesses and leaders with funding from either of the institutions would help universities to realise job creators.
- R15. Universities should invite professionals in the industry to come and give short talks to students regularly and also engage with established locally based entrepreneurs to motivate students. They should work with government policymakers and encourage them to create policies that are favourable for job creators.

These issues of skills were raised in Figure 5.4b and Table 5.4 when the respondents were required to rank the skills. The ranking was based on three skills that the responses had highlighted as very important; soft skills with 43.2%, followed by technical skills which can also be referred to as practical skills with 40.9% and entrepreneur skills had 15.9%. Then it showed respondents ranked entrepreneurial skills as of less importance than the soft and technical or practical skills. This thought pattern is corroborated in literature through discussions by Ekore & Okekeocha (2012) and Bentley (2018) who claim that university graduates have a notable fear of being entrepreneurs. The graduates do not consider it as a viable or desirable career option. Due to the lack of employment, most end up buying and selling wares in order to earn a living without much effort to improve their entrepreneurship skills. Actually, entrepreneurial skills require both soft and technical skills in order to make one employable and able to create jobs for others.

The responses displayed that the respondents appreciated the entrepreneurial skills. In Figure 5.8b and Table 5.8 the entrepreneurial skills are ranked higher meaning that the introduction of subjects with these skills was becoming one of the highly recommended strategies in curriculum reforms. The country needed to produce entrepreneurial graduates who would meet industry expectations. It seems

so obvious from the respondents' ideas that elements of entrepreneurial skills are imminent in each strategy recommended. The strategies that were listed were practical subjects, internship opportunities, soft skills and curriculum development as presented in Figure 5.8b and Table 5.8. These and other strategies came from respondents in interviews, especially R6, R9, R11, R14, R15 and R17 had this to say:

- R6 Courses should be designed to produce graduates who have entrepreneurial skills that enable them to start their own businesses in order to expand the industry. There should be the revival of the Zimbabwean Manpower Development Fund (ZIMDEF) thereby identifying companies that are active and can assist in developing in the curriculum and attachment so as to develop skills before completion.
- R9 Universities should offer entrepreneurship courses and do projects that are based on real business ideas. There is need to encourage accountants and those studying Bachelor of Business Studies to work on a real business idea that they want to launch and work through the market research not just for academic purposes but to really create a tangible output for life. Industrial attachments should be mandatory for all universities and all degrees and incentives should be created for companies that offer solid internships. The universities can also do the following: create real internship programmes, not just parking students in one corner of the business where they learn nothing and introduce coaching and mentorship programmes. Every degree should include life skills, financial education, and creativity or innovation courses. Students should also be placed in situations where innovation is required for them to manage.
- R11 Entrepreneurial and creative skills need to be compulsory modules for all degrees. This will see more professional teaching alongside academics. Courses should be for the job market, not just an academic's area of interest. But this should start way back in secondary education or even at elementary level, primary school and pre-school or crèches.
- R14 The universities must incorporate entrepreneurship skills in their curricula in order to create job creators.
- R15 Universities should invite professionals in the industry to come and give short talks to students regularly and also engage with established locally based entrepreneurs to motivate students.
- R17 Lectures on entrepreneurship are not enough in university programmes. They should be increased. Industry must constantly and persistently present problems to faculties to help in solving them. Through this way, students can become familiar with the industry's problems and graduates can avoid starting in life by selling tomatoes and airtime, but instead will be job creators and successful business people. Students should be encouraged to research on industries and know the needs that are substantial.

It is critical at this stage to mention that Zimbabwe has a success story in the sense that most education institutions find it important to incorporate entrepreneurship concepts in every course and in all the spheres of life through empowerment drives. This is a great effort to enhance graduate employability, embrace the academic plan, university-industry linkages, and government and private sector initiatives. The studies by Mawere (2013), Garwe (2014), Chakanyuka (2015) and Guha (2018) support the respondents' views on entrepreneurship. The conclusion here is that Zimbabweans have the quest to enhance graduate employability and their ability to become independent entrepreneurs is a shared responsibility among all stakeholders. The recommendation is that continued success should hinge on co-operation among all stakeholders. This point is explained by Luna & Velasco (2010), and Vaivode (2015) who emphasise that government, universities, and industries should work together in

order to improve universities. These researchers reveal that work-related learning introduced by universities is proof of an effort to minimise the gap that exists between education policy and industry.

Usually, most of the graduates manage to get jobs at the companies where they were attached during the work-related learning. However, due to the increasing number of students requiring placements, some students had to postpone the completion of their studies. This has been due to the programme regulations that do not permit students to proceed with studies before effectively completing at least eight months of work attachment and passing the assessment. Despite this misgiving, the findings overwhelmingly showed that employers, students, and graduates value the work-based learning. They consider the approach to promote the employability of graduates to be effective. The only challenge comes when the graduates later look for jobs and they fail to get jobs for which they had been prepared (Chakanyuka, 2015; Garwe, 2014; McGill, 2018). Those who manage to get employed face a number of challenges as had been alluded to earlier. For example, poor remuneration and companies expressing that employees are not performing as expected. At this stage, the requirement for students to be trained to become entrepreneurs and job creators becomes a great necessity.

From my work experience as a university administrator, it has been quite interesting to witness some efforts in Zimbabwe to develop entrepreneurship skills in students and graduates. There were two activities amongst many that I had attended, firstly, as a participant on 2–5 March 2016 at NUST in Bulawayo when an entrepreneurship workshop was conducted. Secondly, I attended a NUST Career Fair that was held on 16 March 2016. During the entrepreneurship workshop that was held on 2–5 March 2016, there were 50 participants made up of graduates, university students on attachment and some who were doing their second year and were preparing to go for industrial attachment in the next four months. The participants were drawn from different universities in Zimbabwe. The workshop was organised by the Career Guidance and Employment Office at NUST and the Zimbabwean mentorship, Harare-based organisation called The Boost Fellowship 2016 (McQuirk, 2013). The organisation prepared students and graduates to be job-seekers, job-creators, and entrepreneurs. This was a very important workshop especially at that time of my research. The Harare-based organisation, The Boost Fellowship 2016 was guided by McQuirk's booklet (2013) entitled "Map for Life" which prepares and empowers individuals to be purpose driven and is guided to have a master plan/map for life during and after their university training. They are groomed to be able to be job creators and entrepreneurs. I had a chance to gather information from the participants and the presenters on the issues of graduates, the workplace and employability.

Generally, the presenters and participants were indicating that they had tried to recommend university graduates or students for attachment to companies. The response of the companies had always been that the recommended individuals were unemployable. The Boost Fellowship 2016 became one of the organisations who carry out the mandate of making an effort to bridge the gap by getting the graduates and students together and train them over a period of time. The participants were encouraged to register for club membership. They also got the chance to express themselves about being frustrated when they get a chance to be employed in the industries as they are judged to be underperforming. I gathered that they feel that their talent were underutilised. The Boost Fellowship, 2016 offers programmes like financial literacy, entrepreneurship training, ethics and social responsibility, community engagement, and the employability programme. These are some of the efforts in Zimbabwe that work with the hope that the students and graduates will, in the long run, be able to create jobs and become entrepreneurs.

The NUST Annual Career Fair was held on 16 March 2016, and was also organised by the Career Guidance and Employment Office at NUST. The purpose of the fair was to provide final-year students and those preparing for attachment with a networking platform with potential employers. Twenty companies and organisations from Bulawayo and Harare attended the Career Fair. In addition, representatives from twenty high schools from Bulawayo were invited in order to provide the university departments an opportunity to interact with the pupils and market their degree programmes. Clearly, universities can use such strategies of conducting entrepreneurship workshops and career fairs that promote networking in job creation. Mainly, macroeconomic job creation does not address how job growth happens unequally across worker populations, geographic locations, and industry sectors. Secondly, place-based employment creation strategies, such as business attraction and enterprise zones can be implemented. Thirdly, business-based strategies that try to create jobs in certain business types or industries, such as green jobs and small businesses can be implemented. Finally, there are worker-based strategies that deal with job quality and targeting jobs for disadvantaged workers. All these approaches contribute to stabilising the economy and adding new jobs if put into place appropriately (Bentley, 2018; Garwe, 2014; Kariwo, 2011).

The universities have a mandate to make sure that all graduates are trained enough and skilled to curb any economic challenges after graduation; to become job creators and become entrepreneurs. The universities that can achieve this role are what Waghid (2010b) in his visitation of education and democracy, express as revived universities. These are the universities that have rebirth, renewal, have a sustainable transformation, support pedagogy (research, teaching, learning, management, and governance), are spheres of critical learning and allow people to speak authoritatively on democratic

processes. The education that students receive in these revived universities develops the whole person, has no limits and is free from injustice (Waghid & Davids, 2018). Following the issue of entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe, the respondents responded to the questions 9–10, which were based on showing whether there were capacity and willingness to develop, organise and manage a business venture in Zimbabwe.

The respondents were expressing their views on starting a new business and related to the current situation in Zimbabwe, on whether it prepared students with skills to start a new business. All these responses are presented and discussed using Table 5.9. The respondents were prompted further on the entrepreneurship strategies to express their views on the issue of a capacity and willingness in Zimbabwe to develop, organise and manage a business venture. The respondents during the process gave their views, showing whether it was either easy or difficult to start a business in Zimbabwe. Table 5.9 shows a summary of the responses. Out of the 20 targeted respondents, four responses, forming 20% of the population, agreed that there exists a capacity and willingness in Zimbabwe to develop, organise and manage a business venture. The possible solutions that featured most in the responses were based on the concepts of indigenisation, economic empowerment, and promotion of entrepreneurship among students and graduates. R2 was heard saying:

- R2 Zimbabwe has the capacity and willingness to organise and manage a business venture as Zimbabweans starting programmes which aim at teaching and supporting entrepreneurs. There are programmes like the Zimbabwean Capacity Development Programme (ZCDP) which serves the purpose of strengthening the economic management capabilities of the government of Zimbabwe. One may view this as a sign of willingness among Zimbabweans to develop their own country.

This ZCDP (2012) project had a strategy of rebuilding Zimbabwe's economy as it wanted to enhance critical capacity for transformational change where a grant was signed for on the 6th of June 2012. The reason for the project was to finance the economic management capabilities of the government of Zimbabwe and the two strategies were targeted: to consolidate economic managing through building capabilities of economic management ministries and related institutions. This was one among other projects which came as a strategy to rebuild Zimbabwe's economy. Another strategy to help individuals to own business ventures was legalised through the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act that was passed from the bill into law in September 2007 by the then President of Zimbabwe, Mugabe. The law was aimed at giving people of Zimbabwe a right to take over and control most of the foreign-owned companies in Zimbabwe. In the country, over 51% of all the businesses were transferred into local African hands. This was a strategy to empower individuals to develop, organise, run and manage business ventures. Although the capacity and willingness would be there, as long as there were unaddressed economic challenges, Zimbabweans still felt incapacitated to run businesses. For this reason, the country needs to rethink this indigenisation and economic

development policy in this new Zimbabwe. This strategy to help individuals to own business ventures through the Indigenisation and Economic Empowerment Act surely was supposed to help at a time when industries had closed, but the challenges faced raise eyebrows (ZCDP, 2012). One of the responses in the 20% population as displayed in Figure 5.9 said:

- R6. In my view starting a business is a noble idea for graduates, especially at a time when most industries have closed. A new business requires skills, money, and space for it to run. It becomes, difficult to start a business when the market is so small. The local market is shrinking due to the proliferation of cheap import goods. There are no fresh ideas but only recycling of ideas, services, and products. It requires a lot of patience and determination for those who are not connected, because the bureaucracy is pathetic in some of the organisations. Starting a business depends on who you know socially and politically.

The promotion of entrepreneurship has been on the rise in Zimbabwe in order to encourage Zimbabweans in the process of job creation and forming self-reliant businesses. Kwenda (2008) states that entrepreneurship is a panacea to economic transformation, poverty alleviation, and empowerment, especially in most developing countries like Zimbabwe. Its role in economic development is to ensure employment creation. However, it is a highly risky venture. During the interviews, R1 was heard agreeing with this view.

- R1. Few people in Zimbabwe have the capacity to organise and manage a business venture. They lack the capacity due to lack of exposure. In addition, few are risk takers. They would rather get paid on time put in work, rather than get paid on performance.

This implies that entrepreneurship thoughts, focus and action needs to be taken care of promoted and supported. It is important to have a national entrepreneurial policy which is extensively communicated to encourage people to venture into innovations and creations. Table 5.9 reveals that only one (5%) says that the capacity and willingness does not exist at all, because of the belief that there is a mind-set that many people only think of white people to be company owners and are to employ black people. The majority 70% of the population, had mixed feelings. One respondent was not even sure of the question, due of lack of exposure.

Table 5.9 Capacity and willingness for business ventures

NVivo node	Number of coding references	Coding reference percentage
There are capacity and willingness for business ventures in Zimbabwe	4	20
There is no capacity and willingness for business ventures in Zimbabwe	1	5
Mixed feeling about the capacity and willingness for business ventures in Zimbabwe	14	70
Not sure	1	5
Network marketing would assist in order to have a viable business	0	0

Source: Author's own compilation

The majority of the responses present that respondents have mixed views about the capacity and willingness for business ventures in Zimbabwe, as has been mentioned and displayed in Table 5.9 forming 70% of the population. These respondents mention that although the capacity and willingness is there, the country is facing a lot of challenges, thus making the view of easiness or difficulty of starting a new business in Zimbabwe debatable. They generally commend the strategies of developing entrepreneurs and the STEM initiative, but realise that the challenges of a lack of exposure, constrained financial resources, and tight regulations faced by those who want to start businesses, drag the process of development and success of business ventures down.

The capacity for business ventures will be evident in years to come. This is because the few risk takers who start businesses, are faced with the harsh economic situation in the country that would need time to be restored. The economy is too volatile for most business ventures in Zimbabwe. Therefore, not all businesses can be successful after being set up. Funding is not readily available for new ventures. Some risk takers end up being stuck on focusing on small businesses as opposed to growing big from the SMEs because of the current economic state. The willingness and intellectual capacity might be there but there are many obstacles. Financial institutions require collateral before one starts a business which the graduates do not have. Interest rates are high for those who can borrow money. There is competition with imports. Most things are imported, and they are cheaper than the locally made things because of the cost of production. The environment is harsh with many regulations and scarce or no affordable capital thus stifling the economic and political capacity with grey areas on legislation and other policies. Young graduates with ideas find themselves hamstrung by these unfavourable conditions and get shrouded by legacy and ethical issues. R1 said:

- R1 Regulations in the country for businesses actually hinder progress in starting of businesses. As a result, individuals do shortcuts in running their businesses. There are shoddy business deals and many of those involved in businesses had a wrong entry point. There are too many policies regulating businesses, including the state procurement registration process. Therefore, individuals choose to take shortcuts in entering into business ventures. The environment itself is not good to start a properly registered business. It is like a crime to start a business. That is why many start small businesses which bypass the tax system.

It has been noticed over the years in Zimbabwe that most graduates believe that they are trained to be employees instead of being employers. Government policies should allow skilled industry workers to contribute to allowing products or skills to be marketable and the curriculum must be set up in a way that encourages and teaches them to be not only employers but to be open to starting up new ventures. R3, R11, R14, R17, R19 and R20 were heard expressing mixed feelings.

- R3 The current situation does not prepare students with skills to start a business. It trains them to look for a job. The first aspect is that the school and university system do not offer financial literacy and the business skills as explained on question 9. But it would be too much to blame it all on the school system. Few parents teach their children about business at home. The majority want their child to get good jobs. There could be entrepreneurs that are trained to start new businesses, but the students currently do not have internship opportunities, so they do not have the skills to start up a business.
- R11 All students are taught algebra and solving equations, measuring angles. One wonders how many will use these skills in their lives. I believe that the skill should be taught to those who are inclined that way. But financial education and entrepreneurial skills should be compulsory, so more can leave education and start viable businesses. Such skills should not be learned at a tertiary level, they should be consolidated at that level. Take a count of businesses that started in Zimbabwe and look at the reasons for their demise after a very short stint on the market and also because of lack of sufficient training.
- R14 The willingness is there, but the capacity is shrinking due to the harsh economic environment, which is restrictive in many ways. It is becoming difficult to manage business ventures in Zimbabwe. The current environment is not accommodative to start a new business. For someone to start a business, the most critical resources or factors are capital, technology, technical expertise, markets, and proper regulatory framework. In the current environment, the cost of capital is prohibitive coupled with stringent conditions militating against new players. The markets have various barriers to entry because of existing restrictive practices from dominant firms. Over and above this, there are various regulations one has to satisfy before the business can stand, such as tax, labour laws, city council by-laws, etc.
- R17 Capacity is there for the skills set that are necessary for entrepreneurship. As for willingness, I doubt it because many of us are compelled to start ventures due to circumstances rather than an inborn determination to be entrepreneurs. It is just not part of the common culture. However, when we try, we achieve some level of success that betrays a capacity, although we fail to manage our bounded rationality by hiring smarter people or consulting or developing ourselves. Also, there are not enough teachers to teach entrepreneurial skills in schools, colleges and universities. The world is evolving, thus new needs are emerging, new necessities should have new inventions. New businesses create jobs, not add more graduates to the long queues lining up for the same number of jobs.
- R19 As long as the students are trained with the skills required for one to engage in a business venture when he/she completes training, there could be great capacity. However, for now, the capacity is low and hopefully, with the introduction of STEM, there could be in the long run a greater capacity and willingness to develop business ventures. STEM is not new in schools, colleges, and universities but the approach for the initiative has made it an enrichment programme even in the world causing people worldwide to make noise about it.

- R20 As long as graduates are trained, groomed and encouraged starting businesses and become job creators and employers, not just employable, the capacity and willingness to develop, organise and manage business ventures can be promoted. The challenge has been that those who get encouraged starting businesses have always wanted to stand alone thus fail to perform well in such an economy. There is a need to come together and work cooperatively as much as possible in order to boost one another.

In spite of these challenges, entrepreneurial skills and empowerment of individual to start businesses and be job creators should be promoted at all times. There exist mixed feelings, as expressed by Kwenda (2008) and Guha (2018). The scholars feel that individuals should not give up, one day they will achieve development and be free Zimbabweans. They should be open to the fact of becoming wealthy as their talent, creativity, and hard work can take them for as long as they do not steal or commit fraud against customers. The hope is that the transition from the old government would focus on new policies and new reforms that will bring a renaissance to the Zimbabwean economy (Else, 2017; Wertheimer, 2017; Wild, 2017). The prevailing economic reality and all other challenges the job creators and business people face make it clear that supporting entrepreneurship is critical for the growth of the economy and betterment of the Zimbabwean citizens.

Entrepreneurship changes the way people live and work in a tremendous way through job creation and wealth for everyone who is willing to work, thus giving others a leg up in achieving their career and business objectives. The issue of entrepreneurship is promoted by Waghid (2010b), as has been alluded to earlier on. He suggests cosmopolitanism is a virtue that is taught in universities in order to create revived universities. If universities are revived, they produce employable graduates with scientific knowledge that can be used to respond to societal needs, problems and demands. Most graduates expect employment after coming out of school, which, in most cases, is not there. Universities can involve students in business activities whilst they are still on campus. This allows students to improve their skills and experiences enough to be able to start their own projects immediately after leaving university. Accordingly, universities should understand the meaning of job creation. The universities can adopt strategies that help graduates create jobs especially in times of economic downturn. If Zimbabweans could adopt these strategies, this could minimise or curb the unemployment rate after a period of time.

According to Garwe (2014) and Makou & Wilkinson (2018), the concern is that efforts had been made to adopt the strategies, but there have been other forces that affect the process. The unemployment rate has remained high. These forces are the economy and the politics of the country, and these form a large gap in the research field, hence, the need for further researchers in order to close gaps. This desire I have for Zimbabwe has motivated me to pursue the study of examining the

relationship between education policy and the graduate entry into the industry. I came up with what I hope are realistic recommendations that can be adapted to bring about a lasting change at the end of this research in Chapter 6. Just as Zimbabwe suffers from a high rate of unemployment, South Africa also faces a similar problem, as confirmed by Waghid (2010a), and Waghid & Davids (2013; 2018). Many other African and international countries experience the problem of unemployment of graduates. The claim has been that university graduates have a notable fear of being entrepreneurs. In their studies, Ekore & Okekeocha (2012) engage in a study that made known that, in 2008 alone, Nigeria produced more than 300 000 graduates from its 104 universities yet many of them remained jobless and would not go into entrepreneurship with some choosing to accept jobs that are less than satisfactory. The main reason for mentioning these examples is to serve as an encouragement to Zimbabwe.

If other countries who went through similar hardships of unemployment, underemployment and economic recession can now tell a different success story, Zimbabwe too will hopefully tell a different success story in the few months or years to come. The new regime of leaders, with effect from 21 November 2017, is expected to bring a transition from the old government to the new Zimbabwe that would focus on new policies, new reforms and new jobs as promised by Mnangagwa (2018), and confirmed by Else (2017), Wertheimer (2017) and Wild (2017). The hope is that the Zimbabwean economy will be revamped and resuscitated and more employment opportunities created. The job creation and entrepreneurship issue can be meaningful than theoretical. My research seems to end at the beginning of a new era in Zimbabwe. This is a good opportunity for a call on more research on topics relating to the transitional period as from 20 November 2017. More topics to compare Zimbabwean experience with other countries that have success stories and also learning from the mistakes of others during the transition period for economic recovery and its effects on the education system can continue to be written.

According to Chipunza (2017) and Guha (2018), trying to make a transition from the academic world into industry or to become an entrepreneur, is a challenge and it is accurate that not many graduate schools prepare their students to do so. For example, they are just taught the theory and the students have no idea on how to do it practically. Whenever the university degree becomes much valued and employment opportunities in the industry become almost guaranteed, the individuals get motivated to embark on degree programmes. Whenever most of the graduates are highly qualified, but are not employed, some individuals are not motivated to study further. Most graduates emigrate to neighbouring countries and overseas in order for their qualifications to be recognised. One wonders if these graduates' qualifications get recognised when they get to those countries or they end up doing

any job in order to earn a living (Chipunza, 2017; Guha, 2018; McGill, 2018; Nziramasanga, 1999; Zhou & Hardlife, 2012). This causes the issue of the brain drain to be a topic that needs further investigation by future researchers.

The research concentrated much on university students, graduates and their entry into the industry. However, it can be noticed that primary and secondary education also has a great impact on HE quality. There has been a great need in the research field to fill a gap of seeing how primary and secondary education has a great effect on HE quality, a task I could not achieve in this research. Many researchers have made efforts to tackle the question, but there is still a need for more studies to fill the gap. Attempts have been made (Birchler & Michaelowa, 2016; Mazumdar, 2017; Michaelowa, 2017) to fill the present gap in the educational literature. The writers provide some empirical confirmation for the theoretical argument that quality university education needs a sound basis for students to draw from.

The researchers agree that a good foundation at secondary or even primary school from sufficient quality-oriented schools would go a long way in producing quality graduates from colleges and universities. The worrying issue of the graduates entering the industry for employment, for being job creators and entrepreneurs would be solved easily. Hence, there is a need to recommend the topic of the primary and secondary education that has a great impact on HE quality in Zimbabwe, to future researchers. This is because there can be various issues affecting the primary and secondary education of pupils which end up affecting the development of functioning in higher education (colleges and universities). The Zimbabwean focus on expanding educational opportunities for primary and secondary education for the past 38 years since the 1980 independence, has led to national accomplishments, including the high literacy rate of 90%, as confirmed by Makou & Wilkinson (2018) and Sande (2018). Once there are quality students, so the quality levels of graduates, as well as the industry will improve. This chapter presented, analysed, interpreted and discussed the responses for Stage 2: semi-structured interviews based on the observations discussed in this chapter. In the last chapter, summary of findings, conclusions, recommendations and new areas for future research are highlighted.

CHAPTER 6

Summary of findings, conclusions, recommendations and areas for future research

6.1 Introduction

This chapter focuses on a summary of chapters, summary of findings, conclusions, contributions of the study to the body of knowledge, recommendations and areas for future research. The strategy was to come up with unbiased conclusions and recommendations. This was evident from my approach in the collection of data, process of its presentation, analysis, interpretation and discussion. From the background of the participants it was clear that my intention was to have a comprehensive coverage with a geographic breakdown of the Zimbabwean cities, targeting universities in Bulawayo, Lupane, Gweru and Masvingo namely NUST, LSU, MSU and GZU, and industries in and around these cities. The balanced coverage helped in addressing the social inequalities and fighting against exclusion. Once the population base was determined well, it became possible to make policy decisions that can be applied to a larger number of beneficiaries. My study showed that a knowledge gap causes deficiencies between graduates and the workplace. The attempt was made to answer the question of how university programmes contribute to meeting expectations of the industries and their preparation of graduates for work.

The research focused on elaborating on the experiences of twenty participants including university students and managers of industries. The research was conducted using an interpretive approach. Semi-structured interviews were conducted in two separate stages of approximately 50 minutes each with all the participants. Analytic induction was used to uncover categories and themes in the data set. Three themes were used to analyse data collected during the interviews. Firstly, the major concern was to engage the participants on whether university programmes were tailored to produce graduates that were employable and suitable for the industry. Secondly, the issue of democracy was pursued in order to determine whether there existed democracy in the university programmes. The focus was on education, training and development in order to establish whether the curriculum was suitable to produce employable graduates or not. The issue of stakeholder involvement was considered. Thirdly, entrepreneurship in Zimbabwe was discussed with the intention of determining whether the graduates had received enough training and development to promote employability, business ventures and job creation opportunities. The various arguments throughout this thesis and the discussions of the results obtained from the data collected seem to exert pressure not only on universities to produce employable graduates, but also on the country to have a sustainable economy that would assist the

universities to run well. The arguments also posed a responsibility on employers to give their input on how to handle the complicated transitions in the journey of graduates during and after their period of study.

6.2 Summary of chapters

The focus in **Chapter 1** was on giving a study background. The chapter concentrated on the purpose of the study, statement of the problem, objectives of the study and research questions.

Chapter 2 concentrated on the literature review that was divided into three sections. Each section was answering a research question. The three questions were stated in 1.12. The sections were as follows:

2.1 dealt with graduates' access to industry and examined the relationship between education and employment in Zimbabwe in order to add to an already existing body of knowledge. The factors that affect education, training and development in Zimbabwe were identified and public policymaking strategies examined. A review into education during the colonial period, education reforms at independence in 1980 and post-independence reforms was made.

2.2 identified the effects of democratic citizenship university education on issues of employability. An investigation into these issues was done in order to establish a solution to close the gap between graduates and industry. The topics on quality education were also discussed in detail. The issue of involvement of stakeholders in the development of education and the economy of the country were discussed.

2.3 examined the efforts of the government of Zimbabwe to link university education to the development of entrepreneurship skills needed in industry, business ventures and employment creation. The key issues discussed were based on the 1980 reforms which came after independence. Two key issues that were high on the agenda of the Zimbabwean media, the Nziramasanga Report of 1999 commonly known as the Commission of Inquiry into the Education and Training, and the STEM initiative provided valuable indicators to new research. Stakeholder involvement and more government initiatives were also revisited.

Chapter 3 focused on the presentation of the research methodology used to gather data. The research methodology comprised of the following facets of the study: philosophical anchors, methods, units of analysis and data analysis, and ethical considerations. The research philosophy that was adopted was that of an interpretive qualitative research: a framework of describing, predicting, controlling and explaining relationships in order to get to the truth using a strategy of a small scale interview study.

The data research instruments that were used in data gathering and collection on 36 respondents were semi-structured interviews during the first stage. Semi-structured interviews with the guide of an interview schedule were also conducted with 20 respondents during the second stage. The respondents were managers of industries and university students and these were all purposively sampled.

The focus in **Chapter 4** was on the presentation, analysis and interpretation of the findings of the data collected during Stage 1: Semi-structured Interviews. The results of this stage displayed the background of participants, the challenges they faced, the barriers encountered and the expectations that they had. Stage 2: semi-structured interviews were conducted with 10 managers and 10 university students. The method that was used for data analysis was qualitative and presented in graphs and tables. All the responses of interviews were captured in the Excel template, and then later transcribed to the SPSS template and the NVivo Version 20 to produce the highest frequencies of occurrences. The interpretations were based on thematic analysis.

Chapter 5 presented, analysed, interpreted and discussed the results of Stage 2: semi-structured interviews, based on the research objectives and research questions. The respondents were comprised of 10 managers from industries and 10 university students who were the key informants of the study. The NVivo Version 20 data analysis software was used to analyse data collected from the respondents with the interpretations based on thematic analysis. Graphs, pictures, pie charts and tables were used to summarise responses which were also confirmed with literature.

In **Chapter 6** the focus was on the summary of chapters, summary of findings, conclusions, contributions of the study to the body of knowledge, recommendations and areas for future research.

6.3 Summary of findings

Generally, the results of the interviews exerted pressure and posed a responsibility on universities to produce employable graduates and on the country to have a sustainable economy that can assist universities to run well. Pressure was also exerted on the employers to input on how to handle a complicated transition in the journey from graduation to industry. As a result the findings revealed that there was a need for dialogue and collaborations amongst universities, industries and government. The three need to agree on how they can work together to produce graduates who are skilled enough to contribute to meeting the challenges of the economy and also improve universities (Vaivode, 2015). It can be noted that the weight of involvement is given to all stakeholders, although more weight seem to hinge on government, universities, and industry collaborations. The dialogue and

collaborations are revealed in the summaries below under three themes that were developed during the process of responding to the research objectives and the questions that informed the study:

Theme A – Examining the relationship between education and employment

- Sixty-three percent (63%) of the responses indicate that the education policies do not meet the needs of graduates. The respondents were noticing that the education system was facing challenges which affected graduate employment thereafter, but would not shift the blame to policymakers and universities. They mentioned that universities made efforts to involve the industries and sent their students for industrial attachment.
- Sixty percent (60%) of the responses state that the education policy, employability and graduate performance have no relationship. The respondents express their dismay over little or no consultation in the whole process by the policymakers and universities with the employers and students. As a result, this affects the issue of employment and performance of graduates after they complete their studies. This results in a lack of a relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance in industry. The concern is that policymakers and universities do not seem to bother about preparing students for the world of work and are not concerned about what happens to the students after graduation. Forty percent (40%) of the responses point out that there is a relationship especially that students engage in industrial attachment. However, on completion the graduates face unemployment even by companies where they did their attachment.
- An average of fifty-seven percent (57%) of the responses have proven that current university programmes are irrelevant and do not meet the needs of industries, but focus on theory and no practice. University programmes are not adequately meeting the expectations of the industry and the courses lack what is happening in the industry. The programmes are tailor-made to address industry expectations on some theoretical input, but the economic situation has made it difficult for universities to meet expectations. Most graduates are seen as not innovative and analytical in their thinking; they are spoon-fed during their education and training, not exposed to global trends and might not be effective problem-solvers.

Theme B: The effects of DCE on employability

- Sixty-eight percent (68%) of the responses acknowledge that there is engagement between industry and universities to promote employability. The emphasis is on consultation and expectation of high engagement between industries and universities. The universities could engage the industry boards in dialogue in order to ask about the needs of industries. However, the challenges are faced in the implementation of ideas as a result there would appear as if there exists no meaningful engagement and consultation to relevant stakeholders.

- Sixty-three percent (63%) of the responses acknowledge the roles for stakeholders in the development of quality education. The roles include decision-making concerns in the issues of student internships, industrial attachment, curriculum design, training courses, and education policies. If all key players get involved and come up with basic innovations, such as having entrepreneurship as the driving force of innovations for the education policies, Zimbabwe can be assured of economic growth, welfare and an improved standard of living for the citizens (Atkinson et al., 2012; Sande, 2018).

Theme C: University education and the development of entrepreneurship skills

- One hundred percent (100%) of the responses reveal that the curriculum reforms are needed in order to produce entrepreneurial graduates that meet industry expectations. The examples of reforms suggested include the impartation of soft, practical and entrepreneurial skills and the increase of the length of internship mentorship contact period.
- Seventy-five percent (75%) category of the responses emphasize that although there is capacity and willingness for business ventures in Zimbabwe, the country is facing a lot of challenges thus making easiness or difficulty of these ventures debatable. The challenges range from the economic instability, corruption in business practices, lack of exposure, tight regulations, etc. Although the capacity and willingness would be there, as long as there were unaddressed economic challenges, Zimbabweans still felt incapacitated to run businesses.

Generally, the findings overwhelmingly show that employers, students, graduates and all stakeholders value the work-based learning. They consider the approach to promote the employability of graduates to be effective. The only challenge comes when the graduates later look for jobs and they fail to get jobs for which they had been prepared (Chakanyuka, 2015; Garwe, 2014; McGill, 2018). Those who manage to get employed face a number of challenges, for example, poor remuneration and companies expressing that employees are not performing as expected. At this stage, the requirement for students to be trained to become entrepreneurs and job creators becomes a great necessity.

6.4 Conclusion

Zimbabwe is facing two scenarios regarding employment: unemployment and underemployment of the educated. This shows a glaring mismatch between graduation and employment. The issue has been in the spotlight for a long time with the topic high on the agenda in Zimbabwean media. From the presentation, analysis and interpretation of data collected from the interviews, it can be concluded that the majority of graduates have remained unemployed and the figures in media reports show a

high rate of unemployment. Statistics show that approximately 30 000 students graduate every year from the universities in the country. The graduates are measured as the health of the economy. However, many have been underemployed. Underemployment has been defined as many in the labour force not employed full time, or highly skilled workers who are paid low wages. There are few opportunities to utilise the skills that are acquired at school in the university.

There have been labour market shocks as companies closed down, or with many companies no longer employing extra workers as a result of the freezing of posts, especially in colleges, universities and government institutions. Many part-timers are working for fewer hours than they would prefer. There is a mismatch between what students learn and are trained in, against what is wanted in the job market. Whilst the figures of the unemployed in the past could include some who voluntarily are not working, it can be now noted there is involuntary idleness of graduates. A number of these were laid off, but are still waiting to be called back to work.

The economic downturn that started in 2005 led to low investment and affected graduates' chances of employment in industry (Burke, 2018; CIA, 2017; World Factbook, 2017). Therefore, unemployment has soared, leading to high levels of unemployment and underemployment in Zimbabwe. The high levels of a brain drain to neighbouring countries, especially to South Africa and Botswana, and other countries have been a matter of concern. There has been a continued mass production of graduates with skills not matching industry demands, causing a gap between graduate training and industry. The massive enrolments of students have caused huge investments and demanded large budgets, so that institutions cannot sustain themselves, cannot account for funds, but at the same time are expecting huge returns. The knowledge gap causes a deficiency in the required skills of graduates, causing poor work performance. The graduates are not displaying scientific, technological, social, problem-solving and creative skills as expected in the market.

On the other hand, in industry there has been passive, non-transparent supervisors and poor remuneration. The massive expansions in education also led to a decline in public funding, hyper-inflation and economic mismanagement. The universities continue to churn out graduates without input from industry. There is also need for a good foundation at secondary or even primary school. Enough quality-oriented schools would go a long way towards producing quality graduates from colleges and universities. The worrying issue of the graduates entering industry for employment, and then become job creators and entrepreneurs, would be solved easily. Generally, from the findings in this study it is clear that Zimbabwe is not alone in the struggle of a high rate of unemployment of graduates. Other nations also face pressure to prepare graduates for the world of work. Some nations,

as had been discussed before in the research, now have success stories. Zimbabwe is encouraged to learn from them and also learn from their mistakes. She should also learn from her own mistakes.

Since curriculum content is key in developing the attributes of graduates, Zimbabwe is encouraged to create democratic education in order to produce graduates that are employable. The emphasis is on creating democratic education and contributing to making Zimbabwean education democratic, fair, equitable, non-racial and non-sexist. Zimbabwe needs to achieve fairness and equity in education. Clearly, from the Nziramasanga documents and other policy, education and curriculum documents, there is a need for continuous emphasis that the universities need to shape up and produce graduates that are employable. The STEM initiative has been strongly recommended and is being implemented in Zimbabwe, and the hope is that more skilled workers would be produced in order to develop the national economy in an improved Zimbabwe.

6.5 Contributions of the study to the body of knowledge

My study contributes towards advancing knowledge in theory and practice. Based on the findings, conclusions and recommendations of my study, I have made a contribution to knowledge of value to the field of education. The process of writing has been an advancement to the knowledge in my field in order to improve education practice and improve human conditions. Administration, decision-making and programme planning can be made possible by reference to my study. The current study was a collaborative research which came in during the revisions of the Nziramasanga Report of 1999, or the Commission of Inquiry into Education and Training in Zimbabwe by the ministries of education. The revisions were in line with the 2015–2022 strategic plans in order to develop curriculum reforms (Nziramasanga, 1999). My findings and recommendations will contribute to the initiatives of new reforms of the government, and close the knowledge gap. The current study is hoped to motivate more education leaders and policymakers to emerge and spearhead the implementation of STEM and come up with new curriculum initiatives with an ideological thrust.

My findings increased existing knowledge about the national skills audit process, the government's mandate to shift HEI's role from Education 3.0 to Education 5.0 and for universities to be uni-cities operating as industrial and innovation hubs. Firstly, the study contributes the new knowledge informing the National Credit Skills Audit (NCSA) Report of 2018. According to the NCSA (2018), Mngagwa (2018) comments that for Zimbabwe to attain the vision of a middle income economy by 2030, a holistic skills development plan to empower graduates with necessary skills and knowledge is required. HEIs need to provide the opportunity for individuals to master how the skills contribute their talents to the economy and societal needs. The call is to invest in relevant education and training with

skills and achieve the vision of industrialization and modernization which is the agenda of the country.

Secondly, the title of my study is current to level off not just a topical subject in Zimbabwe. The MHTESTD is reviewing its education from Education 3.0, that is, basically lecturing, teaching and community engagement to Education 5.0 to include skills training and production, that is, innovation and entrepreneurship skills. My findings have pointed the HEIs to ways how they can equip their students especially in universities to be employers, producers of goods and relevant to the industry. My theory has been able to show the crisis that is in the university systems where there are issues of legitimacy, institutional crisis and issues of hegemony. Concerning the issue of legitimacy my study showed that universities as respected institutions of higher learning come from the old school of doing business by addressing issues from a capitalist approach, where solutions are prescribed rather than developed by the institution. My thesis was exposing these shortfalls. As far as institutional crisis is concerned, the change from Education 3.0 to Education 5.0 is the awareness by higher authorities to notice that a university must be situated in locations where it is serving the right people that need its services. Like NUST it is situated in Bulawayo where the industries in Zimbabwe are supposed to blossom. Then it becomes relevant. On the issue of hegemony, a university must be relevant. This is the thrust of my thesis. This is where my core arguments are and where the existing of new knowledge and the generation of the body of new knowledge is grounded (Zimbabwe Situation, 2019).

Education 5.0 is the new government policy on HEIs. Zimbabwe's state universities' traditional tripartite mission of teaching, research and community service (Education 3.0) has been revised to align to the urgent national ambition to attain middle income status by year 2030 (Zimbabwe Situation, 2019). Under Education 5.0, Zimbabwe's state universities must launch into outcomes-focussed national development activities towards a competitive, modern and industrialized Zimbabwe. It is now all about problem-solving for value-creation. To the level-headed, Education 5.0 is a bold statement to the effect that Zimbabwe's modernization and industrialization champions must be state universities and with good reasons. State universities, by their nature and character, are better positioned to grasp and decipher the threatening disruptive technologies such as the Internet of Things (IoT), advanced robotics, and the automation of knowledge work that continue to dramatically reshape the global business and social landscape. These institutions, by combining critical thinking, creative thinking, innovativeness and an entrepreneurial mindset to the technological knowledge can provide national economy impacting industrial solutions (Zimbabwe Situation, 2019).

The immediate must-do for Zimbabwe's committed Education 5.0 subscribed state universities is adopting and nurturing a job-creator mode mindset. The job-creator mindset demands close interaction with their host communities to identify economic opportunities to not only inform their curriculum trajectory but, most important, innovation research and development agenda. In the job-creator mode the state university is exploiting the identified economic opportunities in their host communities to realize university-linked start-ups and ultimately companies that contribute to the national purse ((Zimbabwe Situation, 2019). This requires that state universities take advantage of the provincial economy concept being actively promoted in the second republic. This subject simply refers to the fact that Zimbabwe state universities must also be open for business. Education 5.0 also subscribes state universities to immediately operate in the industry solutions provider mode. Here, the universities reach out to industries in their host communities, learns of their problems, works out and provides the industry solutions. Education 3.0 Model, made up of three core areas — teaching, research and outreach, was inherited from a colonial system which was structured to produce a pool of labourers to service the settler-economy while, in contrast, the new Education 5.0 model ensures production of goods and services. Universities are encouraged to engage in research that comes out with tangible solutions to current problems in industry and the community.

6.6 Recommendations

The purpose of my study was to engage in research that encourage innovation and to play an advisory role to my readers which comprise the policymakers in government education ministries and the industry. I also wanted to assist future researchers to come up with further questions for further study. Based on the findings of my study, the following recommendations are made:

- Since most graduates face the risk of unemployment, there is need for the policymaking and development process to include graduates, so that they get prepared for what to face in the world of work.
- Universities should form partnerships with private colleges, businesses, other universities, and civil society organisations to tailor curricula and training programmes to meet local market needs.
- To reform higher education and be able to develop new funding streams and respond directly to the unemployment problem.
- To usher an approach to higher education that fosters critical thinking and creativity in order to prepare students for the diverse range of challenges and opportunities for the world of work.
- Universities need to prepare graduates for the challenging, changing global economy and have an ethical obligation to assist in solving society's problems.

- To abolish the top-down approach to policy formulation and development as it shows no consultation by policymakers and universities.
- To create an impartial body to monitor the relationship and ensure that universities do not focus on making money ventures but should instead balance the preparation for students for employment, job creation and for entrepreneurship.
- Entrepreneurship skills should be incorporated as part of the university curriculum across the board, instead of the curriculum being mainly academic in most disciplines.
- A creation of universities where cosmopolitanism is a virtue to be taught in universities in order to eradicate political dictatorship and mass enslavement to be created.
- To promote curriculum reforms to impart entrepreneurial, practical and soft skills, and increase the length of internship mentorship contact period in every course and in all the spheres of life through empowerment drives.
- To incorporate industrial attachment component on final year university students in education policies to help close the gap of unemployment by creating jobs.
- Universities need to shift the emphasis of their programmes and courses towards imparting soft skills, for example, goal setting, communication skills, teamwork, etc. in order to enhance graduate employability, embrace the academic plan, university-industry linkages, and government and private sector initiatives.
- To increase dialoguing, continuous and vigorous collaboration and partnering for industries, universities, government and its line ministries and all stakeholders to be agents of change is encouraged.
- To facilitate Zimbabwe's graduates by encouraging them to spearhead the formation of small and medium enterprises (SMEs), and creating self-employment and/or enter into freelance work
- Finally, better remuneration of educators who are the implementers of the initiative by the government and incentives for continuous training and development of the educators would also go a long way to motivate them.

6.7 Areas for future research

The following are areas for further research:

- Investigation into the functioning of Zimbabwean university programmes.
- Assessment of the issue of gender imbalance in employment and promotion.
- A review of STEM subjects, courses and programmes in schools, colleges and universities.

- Evaluation of the new policies and new reforms aimed at bringing a renaissance in the Zimbabwean economy.
- Assessing the revamping and resuscitation of the Zimbabwean economy through open-door-policies to create more employment opportunities.
- Assessing the effects of the brain drain in Zimbabwe.

The above proposals are the research areas that I felt could be pursued by other researchers in the future.

By way of concluding, this chapter focused on a summary of chapters, findings, conclusions, recommendations, contributions to the body of knowledge and areas for future research. The hope is that the government, universities and industries, with all relevant stakeholders, would have constructive consultations and be able to come up with new education policies and new reforms that will bring a renaissance in the Zimbabwean economy. The hope is that the Zimbabwean economy will be revamped and resuscitated and more employment opportunities created. The disruption from the old system to the new order is hoped to develop the nation and revive the economy. Job creation and entrepreneurship efforts should be more meaningful, than theoretical. The leaders would be in a position to listen to the voice of the people, and then present alternative viewpoints amicably. Change should be managed appropriately. The importance of involvement of all stakeholders has been stressed as very important throughout the study. The different stakeholders' contributions in education and economic policy issues are expected to produce new language, posture, position and direction that Zimbabwe could take to stabilise the economy. A new stable season would be seen. This would be a season when values are corrected and projected towards economic recovery, industrialisation of the economy and creation of employment.

REFERENCE LIST

- Abd Razak, A. & White, G. 2015. The Triple Helix model for innovation: A holistic exploration of barriers and enablers. *International Journal of Business Performance and Supply Chain Modelling*, 7 (3). Retrieved from <http://eprints.uwe.ac.uk/27172> [Accessed 31 January 2019].
- Ahmed, S. 2009. *Methods in sample surveys: Cluster sampling*. [ebook] The Johns Hopkins University and Saifuddin Ahmed, p14 Retrieved from <http://ocw.jhsph.edu/courses/statmethodsfor samplesurveys/pdfs/lecture5.pdf/> [Accessed 6 April 2016].
- Akinsaya, A. & Bach, C. 2014. *Narrative analysis: The personal experience narrative approach*. Bridgeport, CT: University of Bridgeport.
- Akrani, G. 2011. *What is industry? Meaning – classification types of industries*. Kaylan-city.blogspot.com. Retrieved from <http://kalyan-city.blogspot.com/2011/03/what-is-industry-meaning-classification.html/> [Accessed 12 October 2018].
- Allison, J., Harvey, C. & Nixon, I. 2002. *Enhancing employability: A long-term strategic challenge*. The University of Newcastle. Retrieved from http://www.ltsn.ac.uk/application.asp?app=resources.asp&process=full_record§ion=generic&id=164/ [Accessed 23 June 2017].
- Alshenqeti, H. 2014. Interviewing as a data collection method: A critical review. *English Linguistics*, 3(1):1–7.
- Amadeo, K. 2018. *Unemployment: Definition, formula, causes, consequences*. *The Balance*. Retrieved from <https://www.thebalance.com/what-is-unemployment-3306222/> [Accessed 28 September 2018].
- Amadeo, K. 2019. *Not everyone who is jobless is unemployed*. *The Balance*. Retrieved from <https://www.thebalance.com/what-is-unemployment-3306222/> [Accessed 28 January 2019].
- Asabere-Ameyow, A., Anamuah-Mensah, J., Sefa-Dei, G. and Raheem, K., 2014. *Indigenist African Development and Related Issues: Towards a Transdisciplinary perspective*. 1st ed. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.

- Assie-Lumumba, N. T. 2006. *Higher education in Africa: Crises, reforms and transformation*. Dakar, Senegal: Council for the Development of Social Science Research in Africa.
- Atkinson, R.D., Ezell, S.J. & Stewart, L.A. 2012. *The global innovation policy index*. Kansas City, KS: Information Technology and Innovation Foundation and the Kauffman Foundation.
- Bada, F. 2019. *The Biggest industries in Zimbabwe*. [online] WorldAtlas. Retrieved from <https://www.worldatlas.com/articles/the-biggest-industries-in-zimbabwe.html> [Accessed 20 May 2019].
- Baskarada, S. 2014. Qualitative case study guidelines. *The Qualitative Report*, 19(40):1–18. Retrieved from <http://nsuworks.nova.edu/tqr/vol19/iss40/3/> [Accessed 22 November 2017].
- Baxter, P. & Jack, S. 2008. Qualitative case study methodology: Study design and implementation for novice researchers. *The Qualitative Report*, 13(4):544–559.
- Baylis, J., Smith, S. & Owens, P. 2011. *The globalization of world politics*. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Bazeley, P. 2009. Analysing qualitative data: More than ‘identifying themes’. *The Malaysian Journal of Qualitative Research* 2(2):6-22. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Pat_Bazeley/publication/237458922_Analysing_qualitative_data_More_than_'identifying_themes'/links/581881f608ae50812f5d9f71.pdf/ [Accessed 19 November 2018].
- Beck, J. S., 2010. Cognitive therapy. In the Corsini Encyclopedia of Psychology. Hoboken. doi: [10.1002/9780470479216.corpsy0198/](https://doi.org/10.1002/9780470479216.corpsy0198/)
- Becker, G.S. 2013. *Economic approach to human behaviour*. Chicago, IL: University of Chicago Press.
- Bentley, D. 2018. *How universities can make graduates employable with connections to industry*. The Conversation. Retrieved from <https://theconversation.com/how-universities-can-make-graduates-employable-with-connections-to-industry-91838/> [Accessed 26 September 2018].
- Bere, S. 2018. Transforming Zim’s higher, tertiary education for better economic performance, *Newsday*, March 27.

- Bhebehe, B., Nair, S., Muranda, Z., Sifile, O. & Chavunduka, M.D. 2015. *The high unemployment problem among educated youths in Zimbabwe: Lessons that can be drawn from other countries*. IOSR Journal of Economics and Finance, 6(5):50-60 www.iosrjournals.org/ [Accessed 12 December 2018].
- Biesta, G. 2010. *Learning democracy in school and society: Education, lifelong learning and the politics of citizenship*. Rotterdam: Sense.
- Biesta, G., Bingham, C. & Rancière, J. 2010. *Education, truth, emancipation*. New York, NY: Bloomsbury Academic.
- Birchler, K. & Michaelowa, K. 2016. Making aid work for education in developing countries: An analysis of aid effectiveness for primary education coverage and quality. *International Journal of Education Development*, 48:37–52.
- Blaxter, L., Hughes, C. & Tight, M. 2010. *How to research*. Berkshire: McGraw-Hill.
- Boylan, H.R., Brown, P.L. & Anthony, S., 2017. The "perfect storm" of policy issues and its impact on developmental education. *NADE Digest*, 9(1): 2-7.
- Bradshaw, P. 2012. What is data journalism? In J Gray, L. Bounegru & L. Chambers (eds.). *The data journalism handbook: How journalists can use data to improve the news*. Sebastopol: O'Reilly, 2-3.
- Brown, K.P.A. 2017. Investopedia. Retrieved from www.merriam-webster.com/ [Accessed 3 June 2017].
- Bryman, A. & Bell, E. 2011. *Business research methods*. Third edition. New York, NY: Oxford University Press.
- Burke, J. 2018. Zimbabwe's economic crisis will deepen without aid, ruling party warns. *The Guardian*. <https://www.theguardian.com/world/2018/oct/19/zimbabwe-needs-aid-to-prevent-further-crisis-warns-ruling-party/> [Accessed 14 December 2018].
- Cairo, A. 2017. Nerd journalism: How data and digital technology transformed news graphics. Unpublished doctoral dissertation. Barcelona: Universitat Oberta de Catalunya.

- Campher, E.J. 2012. *Educational change: A support programme for educators in an inclusive school setting*. Ph.D. Thesis. Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University.
- Cels, S., Jong, J.D. & Nauta, F. 2012. *Agents of change: Strategy and tactics for social innovation*. Washington, DC: Brookings Institution Press.
- Chakanyuka, T. 2015. Industrial attachment for ‘O’ level pupils: Ministry proposes changes to the curriculum. *Sunday News*, 3 May 2016: 1–2. Retrieved from <http://www.sundaynews.co.zw/industrial-attachment-for-o-level-pupils/> [Accessed 9 November 2016].
- Chakaza, L.M. 2018. *Great mistake and mischief in rush to implement new curriculum*. Bulawayo 24 News. Retrieved from <https://bulawayo24.com/index-id-news-sc-education-byo-128905.html/> [Accessed 5 September 2018].
- Chan, S. & Primorac, R. 2013. *Zimbabwe since the unity government*. London: Routledge.
- Chan, Y.M. & McNaught, C. 2009. *Students’ views on learning outcomes in the humanities*. Working paper 6. Hong Kong: Centre for Learning Enhancement and Research, The Chinese University of Hong Kong. Retrieved from https://www.cuhk.edu.hk/clear/research/WP6_C&McN_2009.pdf/ [Accessed 10 November 2017].
- Charamba, T. 2017. Smooth sailing for all education stakeholders. *The Herald*, 6 September Retrieved from <https://www.herald.co.zw/smooth-sailing-for-all-education-stakeholders/> [Accessed 4 February 2019].
- Cherry, K. 2014. How *basic research is observed by scientists*. *Verywell Mind*. Retrieved from <http://verywellmind.com/what-is-basic-research-2794876/> [Accessed 25 November 2015].
- Chikoko, V. 2007. Negotiating roles and responsibilities in the context of decentralised school governance: A case study of one cluster of schools in Zimbabwe. *International Studies in Educational Administration*, Durban: University of Kwazulu-Natal.
- Chikoko, V. 2008. The role of parent governors in school governance in Zimbabwe: Perceptions of school heads, teachers and parent governors. *International Review of Education*, 54(2):243–263.

- Chipanga, S. 2015. *Informal sector panacea to unemployment*. *The Herald*. Retrieved from www.herald.co.zw/informal-sector-panacea-to-unemployment/ [Accessed 16 July 2015].
- Chipunza, V. 2017. Editorial comment: Unemployment no laughing matter, Mr President. *Financial Gazette*. 6 July 2017. Retrieved from www.financial_gazette.co.zw/editorial-comment-unemployment-n-laughing-matter.mr-president/ [Accessed 17 February 2017].
- CIA (Central Intelligence Agency). 2017. *Central Intelligence Agency*. Retrieved from <https://www.cia.gov/library/publications/the-world-factbook/fields/2129.html/> [Accessed 30 November 2017].
- Cohen, L., Manion, L. & Morrison, K. 2011. *Research methods in education*. Seventh edition. Oxon: Routledge.
- Collier, D.R. 2014. *Qualitative research*. Beverly Hills: Sage.
- Connaway, L.S. & Powell, R.R. 2010. *Basic research methods for librarians*. Fourth edition. Santa Barbara, CA: Libraries Unlimited.
- Courtney, J. 2008. Do monitoring and evaluating tools: Designed to measure the improvement in the quality of primary education, constrain or enhance educational development? *International Journal of Educational Development*, 28:546–559.
- Cranmer, S. 2006. *Enhancing graduate employability: best intentions and mixed outcomes*. *Studies in Higher Education*, 31(2)169–184.
- Creswell, J.W. 2009. *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative and mixed methods approaches*. London: Sage.
- Creswell, J.W. & Clark, V.L. 2011. *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Second edition. London: Sage.
- Dauids, N. & Waghid, Y. 2016. Higher education as a pedagogical site for citizenship education. *Education Citizenship and Social Justice*, 11(1):34–43.

- Dawson, C. 2009. *Introduction to research methods: A practical guide for anyone undertaking a research project*. Oxford: How to Books.
- Denscombe, M. 2008. Communities of practice: A research paradigm for the mixed methods approach. *Journal of Mixed Methods Research*. New York: Sage Journals. 2(3):1-14.
- Denscombe, M. 2010. *The good research guide for small-scale social research projects*. Fourth edition. McGraw-Hill. Retrieved from <http://www.worldcat.org/title/good-research-guide-for-small-scale-social-research-projects/oclc/702134616/> [Accessed 11 February 2016].
- Denscombe, M. 2014. *The Good research guide*. 5th ed. Maidenhead, England: McGraw-Hill/Open University Press.
- De Villiers, M.R. 2005. *Interpretive research models for informatics: action research, grounded theory, and the family of design and development research*. University of South Africa. Institutional Repository. Online: URL: <http://hdl.handle.net/10500/13196/> [Accessed 7 December 2018].
- Dich, L., McKee, H.A. & Porter, J.E. 2013. Ethical issues in online course design: Negotiating identity, privacy, and ownership. *Selected Papers of Internet Research*. Retrieved from <https://spir.aoir.org/index.php/spir/article/view/866/> [Accessed 12 August 2018].
- Dinkovski, V. & Markovska-Simoska, S. 2018. *Brain drain as a function of sustainable development in the Republic of Macedonia*. Macedonia. *Research Gate*. Research Centre Academy of Sciences and Arts. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/324488266-brain-drain-as-a-function-of-sustainable-development-in-the-Republic-of-Macedonia/> [Accessed 19 August 2018].
- Division of Research Development. 2016. *Research integrity and ethics*. Retrieved from <http://www0.sun.ac.za/research/research-integrity-and-ethics.html/> [Accessed 5 December 2016].
- Dlodlo, M. 2018. NUST should do more to revive Bulawayo industries. *Chronicle*. Retrieved from www.chronicle.co.zw/nust-should-do-more-to-revive-byo-industries-dlodlo/ [Accessed 5 June 2018].

- Dohm, A. & Shniper, L. 2016. *Employment outlook (2006–2016): Occupational employment projections to 2016*. Bureau of Labor Statistics. Retrieved from <https://www.bls.gov/opub/mlr/2007/11/art5full.pdf/> [Accessed 12 June 2017].
- Dube, S.P. 2018. An investigation of the Science Technology Engineering and Mathematics (STEM) initiative in the Zimbabwean education system. *International Journal for Cross-Disciplinary Subjects in Education*, 9(1):3329–3334.
- Dzinotizei, M. 2013. Education Statistics Report. ZimStat. Available at: <https://www.education.statistics.report.zimstat/> [Accessed 15 May 2019].
- Ekere, N.N. 2012. Students' entrepreneurial skill acquisition through SIWES in Nigeria: An analytical approach. *International Journal of Independent Research and Studies*, 1(3):97–105.
- Ekore, J.O. & Okekeocha, O. C. 2012. Fear of entrepreneurship among university graduates: A psychological analysis. *International Journal of Management*. 29(2): Article excerpt page 1. Retrieved from <https://www.questia.com/library/journal/1P3-2688611611/fear-of-entrepreneurship-among-university-graduates/> [Accessed 21 December 2016].
- Elbadawi, I. & Schmidt-Hebbel, K. 1991. *Macroeconomic structure and policy in Zimbabwe*. 1st ed. Washington, DC (1818 H St., NW, Washington 20433): Macroeconomic Adjustment and Growth, Country Economics Dept., World Bank.
- Else, H. 2017. Zimbabwean scholars: Hope for academic freedom and new leaders. *Times Higher Education (THE)*. Retrieved from www.timeshighereducation.com/ [Accessed 14 July 2018].
- Finlay, L. & Evans, K. 2009. *Relational-centred qualitative research for psychotherapists and counsellors: Exploring meanings and experience*. West Sussex: Wiley Blackwell, John Wiley & Sons.
- Fitzpatrick, F.J. & Kazer, M. 2011. *Encyclopaedia of nursing research*. Third edition. New York, NY: Springer.
- Follmer, K.B. & Jones, K.S. 2017. Mental illness in the workplace: An interdisciplinary review and organizational research agenda. *Academy of Management Journal*. 44 (1): 325-351.

- Follmer, E.H., Talbot, D.L., Kristof-Brown, A.L., Astrove, S.L. & Billsberry, J. 2018. Resolution, relief, and resignation: A qualitative study of responses to misfit at work. *Academy of Management Journal*, 61(2):440–465.
- Fraenkel, J.R. & Wallen, N.E. 2008. *How to design and evaluate research in education*. Seventh edition. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill Higher Education.
- Freire, P. 1992. Pedagogy of the oppressed: *Paulo Freire's Philosophy on Contemporary Education*. Retrieved from <http://www.worldcat.org/title/pedagogy-of-the-oppressed/oclc/25498092/> [24 November 2018].
- Gandawa, G. 2017. Higher education science and technology development. *Southern Eye*. Retrieved from <https://www.southerneye.co.zw//higher-education-science-and-technology-development/> [Accessed 30 January 2015].
- Garwe, E.C. 2014. *Quality assurance in higher education in Zimbabwe*. *Research in Higher Education*: Zimbabwe Council for Higher Education, 23:1–10.
- George, J.S.D. 2000. Rethinking the role of Indigenous knowledges in the academy, *International Journal of Inclusive Education*, 4(2)111-132. Retrieved from <https://doi.org/10.1080/136031100284849> [Accessed 11 December 2018].
- Gibson, M., Thomson, H., Banas, K., Lutje, V., McKee, M.J., Martin, S.P., Fenton, C., Bamba, C. & Bond, L. 2018. *Welfare-to-work interventions and their effects on the mental and physical health of lone parents and their children*. Cochrane Database of Systematic review. DOI: 10.1002/14651858.CD009820.pub3.
- Gill, P., Stewart, K., Treasure, E. & Chadwick, B. 2008. Methods of data collection in qualitative research: Interviews and focus groups. *British Dental Journal*, 204(6): 291–295. Retrieved from <http://www.nature.com/bdj/journal/v204/n6/full/bdj.2008.192.html/> [Accessed 10 April 2016].
- Goldberg, A.I. & Kats, R. 2011. *Migration and research commitments: Long term effects of national socialization*. Retrieved from <https://onlinelibrary.wiley.com/migration-and-research-commitments-long-term-effects-of-national-socialization/> [Accessed 30 June 2018].

- Goredema, D. 2014. Reconciliation in Zimbabwe. *Journal of global peace and conflict*. Retrieved from http://jgpcnet.com/journals/jgpc/Vol_2_No_1_June_2014/11.pdf/ [Accessed 12 December 2018].
- Gorongu, P. 2014. Teachers' and students perceptions of double session schooling on Ordinary Level students' performance in Geography. *The International Asian Research Journal*, 2(1):18–27.
- Grady, C. 2010. Do Institutional Review Boards (IRBs) protect human research participants? *The Journal of the American Medical Association*, 304(10):1122–1123.
- Gray, D.E. 2014. *Doing research in the real world*. London: Sage.
- Green, J. & Thorogood, N. 2004. *Qualitative methods for health research*. 2nd ed. New Delhi: SAGE Publications.
- Grossman, M. 2000. Human capital model. In: Culyer, A. & Newhouse, J.P. Eds. *Handbook of health economics*. Volume 1. Netherlands: Elsevier Science.
- Guha, A. 2018. *Brain drain issue and indicators on brain drain*. In *International migration*, 15(1): 3-20.
- Gupta, S. & Verhoeven, M., 2001. The efficiency of government expenditure: experiences from Africa. *Journal of policy modeling*, 23(4), pp.433-467.
- Gweru, C. 2015. Nziramasanga recommendations: Way to go. *The Herald*. Retrieved from <http://www.herald.co.zw/nziramasanga-recommendations-way-to-go/> [Accessed 30 November 2017].
- Hallinger, P. 2011. *Leadership for learning: Lessons from 40 years of empirical research*. Tai Po: Hong Kong Institute of Education.
- Hallinger, P. & Heck, R.H. 2010. *Collaborative leadership and school improvement*. Tai Po: Hong Kong Institute of Education.
- Hamidifar, F. 2009. A study of the relationship between leadership styles and employee job satisfaction at Islamic Azad University branches in Tehran. Iran. Retrieved from <http://www.assumptionjournal.au.edu/index.php/AU-GSB/article/view/406/358/> [Accessed 4 February 2019].

- Hanushek, E. & Woessmann, L. 2010. *Education and economic growth*. In: Dominic J. Brewer & Patrick J. McEwan Eds, *Economics of Education*. Amsterdam: Elsevier.
- Hayat, N. & Amer, I. 2015. *Entrepreneurship orientation: A key to unlock teachers' potential – a case of Finland and Pakistan*. *Research Gate*. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/entrepreneurship-orientation-a-key-to-unlock-teachers'-potential-a-case-of-Finland-and-Pakistan/> [Accessed 23 November 2017].
- Helakoski, C. 2017. *Spot the differences: Checking your reference list for consistency*. *Waldenwritingcenter.blogspot.com*. Retrieved from <http://waldenwritingcenter.blogspot.com/2018/03/spot-differences-checking-your.html/> [Accessed 22 May 2018].
- Helmsing, A. 1999. *Competitive response, innovation and creating an innovative milieu: the case of manufacturing industry in Bulawayo, Zimbabwe*.
- Hess, D. 2010. *Interrogating 'student voice' approaches to political education: Do they promote democracy or reify inequality*. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association 2010 Annual meeting: Understanding complex ecologies in a changing world, 3 May. Denver Colorado.
- Hoang, H. & Gimeno, J. 2010. Becoming a founder: How founder role identity affects entrepreneurial transitions and persistence in founding. *Journal of Business Venturing*, 25(1):41–53.
- Hodge, D. 2009. Growth, employment and unemployment in South Africa. *South African Journal of Economics*, 77(4), pp.488-504.
- Hoffman, A. M. 2006, *The Capability approach and educational policies and strategies: effective life skills education for sustainable development*, Paris.
- Hogan, M. 2016. *The seven qualities that make great managers so effective*. Retrieved from <https://www.forbes.com/sites/yec/2016/01/26/seven-qualities-the-best-managers-share-and-why-they-matter/> [Accessed 26 July 2017].

- Hulme, D. 2009. *The Millennium Development Goals (MDGs): A short history of the world's biggest promise*. Retrieved from <https://www.unidev.info/Portals/0/pdf/bwpi-wp-10009.pdf/> [Accessed 1 February 2019].
- Infographics. 2017. *Research and insights*. Retrieved from <https://www.iie.org/en/Research-and-Insights/Google/> [Accessed 3 July 2017].
- Infoplease Atlas, 2018. Map of Zimbabwe. Retrieved from <https://www.google.co.za/search?q=Infoplease+Atlas/> [Accessed 12 October 2018].
- Kanyenze, G., Kondo, T., Chitambara, P. & Martensno, J. 2011. *Beyond the enclave towards a pro-poor and inclusive development strategy for Zimbabwe*. Avondale: Weaver Press in association with Alternatives to Neo-liberalism in Southern Africa.
- Kariwo, M. 2014. *The impact of Zimbabwean higher education policies*. In: A Comparative Analysis of Higher Education Systems. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Kariwo, T. 2011. *Education and development in Zimbabwe: A social, political and economic analysis*. Rotterdam: Sense Publishers.
- Katusiime, D. 2014. *An enhanced human development capability approach to education: implications for technical vocational education and training policy in Uganda*. Doctor of Philosophy. Kent State University College of Education, Health and Human Services.
- Kerrey, B. 2013. *Students: Closing the skills gap has to begin with you*. WSJ. Retrieved from <http://blogs.wsj.com/experts/2013/10/09/students-closing-the-skills-gap-has-to-begin-with-you/> [Accessed 10 November 2017].
- Khumalo, R. & Ngwenya, B. 2009. *Grounded theory: Research for master's and PhD students*. Bulawayo: Creative Design and Technical Editing Hub.
- Koerber, A. & McMichael, L., 2008. Qualitative sampling methods: A primer for technical communicators. *Journal of business and technical communication*, 22(4), pp.454-473.
- Krugell, W. 2014. Micro-evidence on day labourers and the thickness of labour markets. Retrieved from www.scielo.org.za/scielo.php?script=sci_arttext&pid=S2222/ [Accessed 16 December 2018].

- Kwaira, P. 2017. Students applying their knowledge of material science in problem-solving: Implications for competence based-learning at the University of Zimbabwe. *Tuning Journal for Higher Education*.4(2):353-387. Retrieved from <http://www.tuningjournal.org/article/download/1218/1565/> [Accessed 4 February 2019].
- Kwenda, S. 2008. *Zimbabwe's school system crumbles*. Retrieved from <http://www.ipsnews.net/2008/11/education-zimbabwersquos-school-system-crumbles/> [Accessed 3 February 2019].
- Lourens, E. 2016. *From graduate to employee: Exploring the journeys of first-time entrants into the labour market*. Doctor of Philosophy dissertation. Stellenbosch University. Retrieved from <https://docplayer.net/62819681-From-graduate-to-employee-exploring-the-journeys-of-first-time-entrants-into-the-labour-market.html/> [Accessed 5 December 2016].
- Lowden, K., Hall, S., Elliot, D. & Lewin, J. 2011. *Employers' perceptions of the employability skills of new graduates*. London: Edge Foundation.
- Luebker, M. 2008. *Employment, unemployment and informality in Zimbabwe: Concepts and data for coherent policy-making*. Geneva: International Labour Office.
- Luna, M. & Velasco, J.L. 2010. Knowledge networks: Integration mechanisms and performance assessment. In R. Viale & H. Etzkowitz (eds.). *The capitalization of knowledge: A triple helix of university-industry-government*. Cheltenham: Elgar, 312–334.
- Mabhena, C. 2018. Does Africa have a philosophy- Decoloniality at large, *Sunday News*, 27 May. Retrieved from <https://www.pressreader.com/zimbabwe/sunday-news-zimbabwe/20180527/281668255647085/> [Accessed 12 September 2018].
- Machakanja, P. 2010. National healing and reconciliation in Zimbabwe. *Africa portal*. Retrieved from https://www.africaportal.org/documents/9947/IJR_AP_Monograph_1_Zimbabwe_WEB.pdf/ [Accessed 12 November 2018].
- Machanyuka, M.R. 2016. Citizen engagement and local governments in Zimbabwe: The case of the Mutare City Council. *Amity Journal of Management Research*.1 (2):103-122.
- Madziyire, N. 2009. *Reading materials for Economics of Education*, Bulawayo, Zimbabwe: Zimbabwe Open University Press.

- Majoni, C. 2014. Challenges Facing University Education in Zimbabwe. *Greener Journal of Education and Training Studies*. 2(1):20024.
- Makaniwa, T. 2018. What is the problem with the Zimbabwean education system? *Newsday*, December 5.
- Makoshori, S. 2017. *Workers toil for nothing*. *Zimbabwe Situation*. Retrieved from <https://www.zimbabwesituation.com/news/zimsit-m-workers-toil-for-nothing/?PageSpeed=noscript/> [Accessed 30 March 2017].
- Makou, G. & Wilkinson, K. 2018. *Validating 'the truth' about SA's education system*. *Africa Check*. Retrieved from <https://africacheck.org/reports/validating-the-truth-about-sas-education-system/> [Accessed 24 April 2018].
- Makumbe, J. 2009. *The impact of democracy in Zimbabwe: Assessing political, social and economic developments since the dawn of democracy*. Harare: Centre for Policy Studies, University of Zimbabwe & Johannesburg: Kellogg Foundation.
- Mansfield, C.F., Beltmen, S., Broadly, T. & Weatherby-Fell, N. 2016. Building resilience in teacher education: An evidenced informed framework. *Teaching and Teacher Education*, 54:77–87.
- Mapako, F.P. & Mareva, F. 2013. *The concept of free primary school education in Zimbabwe: Myth or reality*. Masvingo: Department of Curriculum Studies, Faculty of Education Great Zimbabwe University.
- Marume, T. 2016. *The new curriculum and its implications Pachikoro*. Retrieved from <http://www.pachikoro.co.zw/2016/10/the-new-curriculum-and-its-implications/> [Accessed 18 November 2018].
- Mapuva, J. 2015. Skewed rural development policies and economic malaise in Zimbabwe. *African Journal of History and Culture*. Retrieved from http://academicjournals.org/article/article1435335645_Mapuva.pdf/ [Accessed 12 December 2018].
- Mashaya, B. & Tafirenyika, M. 2017. New schools curriculum unworkable. *Daily News*. 15 February. Retrieved from <https://www.dailynews.co.zw/articles/2017/02/15/new-schools-curriculum-unworkable/> [Accessed 23 May 2018].

- Mashininga, K. 2018. Vision of 'university towns' starts to take shape – The global window on higher education. 18 May. Retrieved from <https://www.universityworldnews.com/post.php> [Accessed 23 June 2019].
- Mason, J. & Dale, A. 2010. *Understanding social research: Thinking creatively about method*. London: Sage.
- Masuko, L. 2003. Current performance of the education sector in Zimbabwe: Key policy challenges facing the sector. Harare: University of Zimbabwe.
- Matereke, K. 2012. Whipping into line: The dual crisis of education and citizenship in postcolonial Zimbabwe. *Education Philosophy and Theory*, 44(2):84–99.
- Matondi, P.B. 2012. Zimbabwe's Fast Track Land Reform. Retrieved from <https://www.diva-portal.org/smash/get/diva2:563712/FULLTEXT01.pdf/> [Accessed 12 December 2018].
- Matoti, S.N., Janqueira, K.E. & James, O.R. 2013. Assessing the teaching efficacy beliefs of teacher trainees: A comparison of two institutions of higher learning in South Africa. *Africa Education Review*, 10(4):634–653.
- Matua, G.A. & Van der Wal, DM. 2015. Differentiating between descriptive and interpretive phenomenological research approaches. *Nurse Researcher*. Retrieved from <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26168810/> [Accessed 23 December 2018].
- Mavodza, J. 2010. *Knowledge management practices and the role of an academic library in a changing information environment: a case study of metropolitan college of New York* Doctoral dissertation, PHD thesis, Pretoria: University of South Africa.
- Mawere, D. 2013. Evaluation of the Nziramasanga Report of Inquiry into education in Zimbabwe 1999: The case of gender – *Equality in Education, International Journal of Asian Social Science*, Gweru. 6-12. Retrieved from [http://www.aessweb.com/pdf-files/ijass%203\(5\)-1077-1088.pdf/](http://www.aessweb.com/pdf-files/ijass%203(5)-1077-1088.pdf/) [Accessed 27 December 2017].
- May, T. 2011. *Social research: Issues, methods and research*. Glasgow: McGraw-Hill International.

- Maylett, T. & Wride, M. 2017. *The employee experience: How to attract talent, retain top performers and drive results*. New Jersey, NJ: Wiley.
- Mazambani, I. 2016. *Did children matter? Unprotected children in “protected villages” created by the Rhodesian regime during the liberation struggle for Zimbabwe*, Doctoral dissertation, Gweru: Midlands State University.
- Mazise, A. 2011. *Challenges and prospects of quality primary education in Zimbabwe rural schools: A case study of Kadoma rural schools*. Masters’ Thesis. Eastern Cape: University of Fort Hare.
- Mazumdar, A. 2017. Application of multi-criteria: Decision making approaches on teachers’ performance, evaluation and appraisal. *Research Gate*. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/application-of-multi-criteria-decision-making-approaches-on-teachers-performance-evaluation-and-appraisal/> [Accessed 23 November 2017].
- McCowan, T. 2011. Human rights, capabilities and the normative basis of 'Education for All'. *Theory and Research in Education*. 9 (3):283-298.
- McGill, J. 2018. The migration of international graduates: Intentions, outcomes and implications. *Journal of Studies in International Education*. 22(4): Abstract.
- McLeod, M.R. 2014. Biomedical research: Increasing value, reducing waste. *The Lancet*, 383:101–104.
- McLeod, J. & Gartner, P. 2010. *Governing the local: Community, vulnerable youth and democracy. Paper presentment at the American educational research association*. Annual meeting: Understanding complex ecologies in a changing world 3 May, Denver Colorado.
- McLeod, B. & Urquiola, M. 2019. *Is education consumption or investment? Implications for the effect of school competition*. NBER Working Paper No. 25117. Cambridge, MA.
- McQuirk, G.A. 2013. *Pathfinder: Be purpose driven with Map 4 Life: Your personal GPS*. Pretoria: Map 4 Life.

- Michaelowa, K. 2017. *The impact of primary and secondary education on higher education quality*. *Research Gate*. University of Zurich. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/the-impact-of-primary-and-secondary-education-on-higher-education-quality/> . [Accessed 23 November 2017].
- Ministry of Industry and Commerce. 2016. *The Industrial Development Policy (2012–2016)*. Causeway.
- Mlambo, A. 2008. Zimbabwe’s public education system reforms: Successes and challenges. *International Education Journal*, 6(1):65–74.
- Mnangagwa, E.D. 2018. President with university chancellors and students, Zimbabwe. *Financial Gazette*. Retrieved from www.financialgazette.co.zw/president-with-university-chancellors-and-students-Zimbabwe/ [Accessed 9 January 2018].
- Moore, D.S. 1997. *Remapping resistance: ‘Ground for Struggle’ and the politics of place*. In S. Pile and M. Keith eds. London: Routledge.
- Moti, Z. 2018. *Boost digital: Zimbabwe is open for business*. [Zunaid Moti Blog 08 August] Retrieved from <http://www.zunaidmoti.com/zimbabwe-is-open-for-business> [Accessed 20 October 2018].
- Moyo, J. 2014. *For Zimbabweans, universal education may be an unattainable goal*. Inter Press Service News. Retrieved from <http://www.ipsnews.net/2014/12/for-zimbabweans-universal-education-may-be-an-unattainable-goal/> [Accessed 19 October 2015].
- Mpondi, D. 2004. *Educational change and cultural politics: national identity-formation in Zimbabwe*. Doctoral dissertation, Ohio University.
- Msila, V. 2013. Democratic education through the eyes of the poor: Appraising the post-apartheid experience. *Universal Journal of Educational Research*, 1(3):191–199. doi: 10.13189/ujer.2013.010308.
- Munyoro, F. 2018. Education investment a priority: President. *Chronicle*. [online] Available at: <https://www.chronicle.co.zw/education-investment-a-priority-president/> [Accessed 17 May 2019].

- Murambadoro, R.R. 2015. The politicisation of *reconciliation in Zimbabwe*. *Masters' Thesis*. University of Pretoria-South Africa. Retrieved from https://repository.up.ac.za/bitstream/handle/2263/43770/Murambadoro_Reconciliation_2015.pdf;sequence=3/ [Accessed 12 December 2018].
- Muriisa, R. 2014. Re-thinking the role of universities in Africa: Leadership as a missing link in explaining university performance in Uganda. *JHEA/RESA*, 12(1): 69-92.
- Murwira, A. 2018. *Speech on universities*. In Education investment a priority: President. *The Herald*. 10 March. Retrieved from <https://www.herald.co.zw/education-investment-a-priority-president/> [Accessed 21 May 2018].
- Musingafi, M. 2007. *Improving performance: The case of the Zimbabwean civil service*. Zimbabwe Open University. Retrieved from <https://www.workinfo.com/index.php/articles/item/70-improving-performance/> [Accessed 11 June 2017].
- Mwanaka, T.R. 2015. *Zimbabwe: The urgency of now*. Bamenda: Langaa Research & Publishing.
- Mwenje, J. 2016. Succession plan among Pentecostal churches in Zimbabwe: A qualitative approach using the hidden and public transcripts theory. *International Journal of Development Research*, 6(4):7588–7597.
- Mwenje, J. 2015. The influence of leadership styles on church growth with special reference to Pentecostal churches in Zimbabwe, PhD Theses. Bulawayo: NUST.
- National Critical Skills Audit (NCSA) Report, 2018. Building on the heritage of solid engineering and technology skills to indigenise and modernise. Harare, Zimbabwe: Tisit Media Pvt Ltd. Retrieved from <http://www.mhtestd.gov.zw/download/national-critical-skills-audit-report/> [Accessed 20 June 2019].
- Narman, A. 2003. *Education in Zimbabwe: A Matter of Success?* London: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Ncube, W. 2011. Welshman Ncube's Zimbabwe industrial development policy, *Bulawayo24news*, 22 April. Retrieved from <https://bulawayo24.com/index-id-business-sc-economy-byo-3007.html/> [Accessed 12 June 2018].

- Ndapewa, K.N.R. 2012. *The integration of identified employability skills into the Namibian vocational education and training curriculum*. PhD Theses. Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University.
- Noble, H. & Smith, J., 2015. Issues of validity and reliability in qualitative research. *Evidence-based nursing*, 18(2): 34.
- Nyazema, N.Z. 2010. The Zimbabwe crisis and the provision of social services. *Journal of Developing Societies*, 26(2):233–261.
- Nziramasanga, C.T. 1999. *Report of the Presidential Commission of Inquiry into the education and training*. Harare: Government Printer.
- Onuora-Oguno, A.C., Egbewole, T.E. & Kleven, T.E. (Eds.). 2018. *Education, law, strategic policy and sustainable development in Africa*. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Thomas_Kleven/publication/322169011_Education_Law_Strategic_Policy_and_Sustainable_Development_in_Africa_Agenda_2063/links/5aa96910a6fdccd3b9b97013/Education-Law-Strategic-Policy-and-Sustainable-Development-in-Africa-Agenda-2063?origin=publication_detail/ [Accessed 19 December 2018].
- Pacho T. 2017 *Service-learning in higher education in Zimbabwe*. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Titus_Pacho2/publication/317178430_Service-learning_in_higher_education_in_Zimbabwe/links/592d716d45851553b6452716/Service-learning-in-higher-education-in-Zimbabwe.pdf/ [Accessed 3 October 2017].
- Pallant, J. 2011. *SPSS survival manual: A step-by-step guide to data analysis*. London: Open University Press.
- Pasipamire, N. 2012. *Research support by subject librarians in selected state university libraries in Zimbabwe: Accommodating new trends*. Bulawayo: NUST, Department of Library and Information Science.
- Peters, M.A. & Roberts, P. 2012. *The virtues of openness: Education, science, and scholarship in the digital age*. Boulder, CO: Paradigm.
- Pettinger, T. 2010. *Economics*. Retrieved from <http://www.economicshelp.org/> [Accessed 20 June 2016].

- Pettinger, T. 2017. Human Capital definition and importance. Retrieved from <https://www.economicshelp.org/blog/26076/economics/human-capital-definition-and-importance/> [Accessed 10 December 2018].
- Pindula, 2018. *List of universities in Zimbabwe. Pindula.* Retrieved from https://www.pindula.co.zw/List_of_Universities_in_Zimbabwe/ [Accessed 6 September 2018].
- Plano Clark, V.L. & Creswell, J.W. 2008. *The mixed methods reader.* Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Polit, D.F. & Beck, C.T. 2010. *Essentials of nursing research: Appraising evidence for nursing practice.* Seventh edition. Philadelphia, PA: Lippincott Williams & Wilkins.
- Potts, D. 2011. Making a livelihood in (and beyond) the African city: the experience of Zimbabwe. *Africa, 81*(4): 588-605.
- Quinn, M. 2010. 'Ex and the city': on cosmopolitanism, community and the 'curriculum of refuge', *Transnational Curriculum Inquiry (Forthcoming).*
- Raftopoulos, B. & Savage, T. 2009. *Zimbabwe: Injustice and political reconciliation.* Harare: Institute for Justice and Reconciliation.
- Repper, J. & Carter, T. 2010. *Journal of mental health: A review of the literature on peer support in mental health services.* Nottingham: The University of Nottingham.
- Resnik, D.B. 2015. Unequal treatment of human research subjects. *Medicine, Health Care and Philosophy.* 18(1):23–32. doi: [10.1007/s11019-014-9569-6/](https://doi.org/10.1007/s11019-014-9569-6/)
- Richardson, C.J. 2013. Zimbabwe: Why is One of the World's Least-Free Economies Growing so Fast? Retrieved from <https://scholar.google.co.za/scholar/Zimbabwe-why-is-one-of-the-world's-least-free-economies-growing-so-fast/> [Accessed 17 December 2018].
- Riside, B. 2019. Is our education system right? – *News Day Zimbabwe.* Available at: <https://www.newsday.co.zw/2019/03/is-our-education-system-right/> [Accessed 19 May 2019].

- Robeyns, I. 2006. Three models of education: Rights, capabilities and human capital. *Theory and Research in Education*. 4 (1): 69-84.
- Robson, C. 2017. *Small-scale evaluation*. London: Sage Publications.
- Rodney, D. 1982. How Europe underdeveloped Africa. Georgia: Howard University Press.
- Sahay, A. 2016. *Peeling Saunder's research onion*. Birla Institute of Management Technology. Retrieved from <https://www.researchgate.net/publication/330337480.peeling.the.second.layer.of.saunder's.onion> [Accessed 23 May 2018].
- Sande, T. 2018. *It's my footprint*. Retrieved from <http://www.itsmyfootprint.com> [Accessed 5 June 2018].
- Saunders, M.N.K., Lewis, P., Thornhill, A. & Bristow, A. 2016. Understanding research philosophy and approaches to theory development. In: Saunders, Mark N. K.; Lewis, Philip and Thornhill, Adrian eds. *Research Methods for Business Students*. Harlow: Pearson education.
- Saunders, M., Lewis, P. & Thornhill, A. 2009. *Research methods for business students*. London: Prentice-Hall.
- Saunders, N.K. & Lewis, P. 2012. *Doing research in business and management: An essential guide to planning your project*. Essex: Pearson Education.
- Sawyer, A. 2004, 'Challenges facing African universities: Selected issues' *African studies review*, 47(1):1-59.
- Sen, A. 1997. "Human capital and human capability," *World Development* 25(12): 1959-1960.
- SDG (Sustainable Development Goal), 2015. Sustainable Development Goal 4 and its targets. Retrieved from <https://en.unesco.org/education2030-sdg4/targets/> [Accessed 9 September 2018].
- Sharma, Y. 2014. Universities and employability – Preparing for the demands of work. *University World News: The global window on higher education*. Retrieved from: <https://www.universityworldnews.com/post.php?story=20140904154515222> [Accessed 24 May 2019].

- Shizha, E. & Kariwo, M.T. 2011. *Education and development in Zimbabwe: A social, political and economic analysis*. Sense. Retrieved from <https://www.sensepublishers.com/media/297-education-and%20developmentinzimbabwe.pdf/> [Accessed 6 April 2016].
- Shizha, E. 2006. *Continuity or discontinuity in educational equity: Contradictions in structural adjustment programs in Zimbabwe*. In A.A. Abdi, K.P. Puplampu & G.J.S.Dei (eds.). *African education and globalization: Critical perspectives*. Oxford: Lexington Books, 83-103.
- Shoko, B. 2010. *Education transition fund revives hope for Zimbabwe's children*. Harare: UNICEF Zimbabwe Country Office.
- Slamat, J.A. 2012. *Teachers, assessment and outcomes-based education: A philosophical enquiry*. PhD Thesis. Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University.
- Smith, L. T. 2012. *Decolonising methodologies: Research and indigenous peoples*, 2nd Edition. New York: ZED Books.
- Trust, S. 2008. *Increasing Higher Education Participation amongst Disadvantaged Young People and Schools in Poor Communities, National Council for Education Excellence*. Available at: www.afes.gsi.gov.uk [Accessed 17 April 2019].
- Tavakol, M., Dennick, R. & Tavakol, S. 2009. *A descriptive study of medical educators' views of problem-based learning*. Nottingham: Medical Education Unit, The University of Nottingham.
- The BOOST Fellowship. 2016. *The BOOST fellowship – Building opportunities on student talent*. Retrieved from <https://boostfellowship.org/boost-fellowship-building-opportunities-on-student-talent/> [Accessed 12 May 2017].
- Thomson, R. 2010. *Using biological and longitudinal methods: Researching mothering*. London: Sage.
- Tight, M. 2017. *Understanding case study research: Small-scale Research with Meaning*. 1st ed. Singapore: SAGE Publications.

- Tirivangana, A. 2014. The structural pitfalls of the inherited colonial legal system in a tragedy of lives. *The Patriot*. 29 May. Retrieved from https://www.thepatriot.co.zw/old_posts/the-structural-pitfalls-of-the-inherited-colonial-legal-system-in-a-tragedy-of-lives [Accessed 6 September 2017].
- Together we thrive, 2018. *Accelerating digital transformation: Overcoming the illusion of expertise*. [video file] Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0wZtfqZ271w#t=162/> [Accessed 16 December 2018].
- Tutu, D. 2013. *Who we are: Human uniqueness and the African spirit of ubuntu*. [video file] Retrieved from <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=0wZtfqZ271w#t=162/> [Accessed 24 April 2016].
- UNDP (United Nations Development Programme). 2014. *Youth Strategy 2014-2017, Empower Youth Sustainable Future*, New York: Austin Macauley Publishers.
- UNDP (United Nations Development Programme). 2015. *Assessment of development results evaluation of UNDP contribution Zimbabwe*. Retrieved from http://www.zw.undp.org/content/dam/zimbabwe/docs/key%20documents/UNDP_ZW_ADR_Zimbabwe_2015.pdf/ [Accessed 24 August 2018].
- UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). 2008. *Education for All by 2015: Will we make it?* Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/images/0015/001547/154743e.pdf/> [Accessed 15 July 2017].
- UNESCO (United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization). 2015. *Education for All 2015: National review report – Zimbabwe 2015*. Retrieved from <http://unesdoc.unesco.org/education-for-all-2015-national-review-report-Zimbabwe-2015/> [Accessed 15 July 2017].
- UNESCO Institute for Statistics, 2013. *Adult and Youth Literacy*. Retrieved from http://uis.unesco.org/sites/default/files/documents/adult-and-youth-literacy-national-regional-and-global-trends-1985-2015-en_0.pdf/ [Accessed 16 December 2018].
- UNICEF Zimbabwe. 2011. *Education in emergencies and post-crisis transition: 2010 report evaluation*. Retrieved from www.ibe.unesco.org/fileadmin/user.../2006/.../Zimbabwe/ [Accessed 11 June 2016].

- UsapGlobal. 2008. *Education in Zimbabwe*. Retrieved from <http://www.usapglobal.org/zimbabwe/education.htm/> [Accessed 20 September 2018].
- Vaivode, I. 2015. Triple helix model of university–industry–government cooperation in the context of uncertainties. *Science Direct*. Retrieved from www.sciencedirect.com/triple-helix-model-of-university-industry-government-cooperation-in-the-context-of-uncertainties/ [Accessed 20 November 2017].
- Van der Noordt, M., IJzelenberg, H., Droomers, M. & Proper, K. I. 2014. Health effects of employment: A systematic review of prospective studies. *Occupational Environmental Medicine*. Retrieved from <https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24556535/> [Accessed 3 November 2017].
- Van Manen, M. 2011. *Phenomenology Online » Orientations in Phenomenology*. Retrieved from <http://www.phenomenologyonline.com/inquiry/orientations-in-phenomenology/> [Accessed 20 March 2017].
- Vermeulen, R. 2012. *A Capability approach towards the quality of education*. University of Utrecht. Research Master Human Geography: final paper for course Research Frontiers. Available at: https://www.academia.edu/2566276/A_Capability_Approach_towards_the_Quality_of_Education [Accessed 10 May 2019].
- Waghid, Y. 2003. *Democratic education – policy and praxis*. Stellenbosch: Department of Education Policy Studies, Stellenbosch University.
- Waghid, Y. 2008a. Democratic citizenship, education and friendship revisited: In defence of democratic justice. In *Philosophy of Education*, 27:197–206.
- Waghid, Y. 2008b. *Philosophy of Education Module 739 (study guide)*. Stellenbosch: Department of Education Policy Studies, Stellenbosch University.
- Waghid, Y. 2009a. Patriotism and democratic citizenship education in South Africa: On the (im)possibility of reconciliation and nation building. *Educational Philosophy and Theory*, 41(4):399–409.
- Waghid, Y. 2009b. Universities and public goods: In defense of democratic deliberation, compassionate imagining and cosmopolitan justice in higher education in South Africa. In

- E. Blitzer (ed.). *Higher education in South Africa: A scholarly look behind the scene*. Stellenbosch: SUN MeDIA, 71–83.
- Waghid, Y. 2010a. Challenges for higher education in Africa, ubuntu and democratic justice. In C. Calhoun & D. Rhoten (eds.). *New trends in higher education*. New York, NY: Social Sciences Research Council, on Invitation.
- Waghid, Y. 2010b. *Education, democracy and citizenship revisited: Pedagogical encounters*. Stellenbosch: SUN MeDIA.
- Waghid, Y. 2010c. Re-imagining higher education in South Africa: On critical democratic education. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 24(4):491–494.
- Waghid, Y. 2011. *Democratic citizenship education and an ethics of care*. Milneron: Kenton Association of South Africa.
- Waghid, Y. 2012. The decline of the university in South Africa: Reconstituting the place of reason. In R. Barnett (ed.). *The future university: Ideas and possibilities*. New York, NY: Routledge, 71–83.
- Waghid, Y. 2013a. *Citizenship, education and violence: On disrupted potentialities and becoming*. Rotterdam: Sense.
- Waghid, Y. 2013b. *Educational research methodology*. Stellenbosch: SUN MeDIA.
- Waghid, Y. 2014. *Pedagogy out of bounds: Untamed variations of democratic education*. Boston, MA: Sense.
- Waghid, Y. 2015. *Dancing with doctoral encounters: Democratic education in motion*. Stellenbosch: Stellenbosch University Printers.
- Waghid, Y. & Davids, N. 2013a. *Citizenship, education and violence in schools: On disrupted potentialities and becoming*. Boston: Sense Publishers.
- Waghid, Y. & Davids, N. 2013b. Reflecting on a doctoral supervision: From scepticism to friendship – initiating the debate. *South African Journal of Higher Education*, 27(4):769–780.

- Waghid, Y. & Davids, N. 2014. On the (im)possibility of democratic citizenship education in the Arab and Muslim world. *Studies in Philosophy and Education*, 33(3):342–343.
- Waghid, Y. & Davids, N. 2017. *Education assessment and the desire for dissonance*. New York, NY: Peter Lang.
- Waghid, Y. & Davids, N. (Eds.). 2018. *African democratic citizenship education revisited: Palgrave studies in global citizenship education and democracy*. New York, NY: Palgrave Macmillan/Springer International.
- Waghid, Y. & Smeyers, P. 2010. On doing justice to cosmopolitan values and the otherness of the other: Living with cosmopolitan scepticism. *Studies in Philosophy and Education*, 29(2):197–211.
- Walker, M. 2005. “Amartya Sen’s Capability Approach and Education,” *Educational Action Research* 13(1): 104.
- Walker, M. 2007 “Selecting Capabilities for Gender Equality in Education,” in *Amartya Sen’s Capability Approach and Social Justice in Education*, M.Walker and E.Unterhalter (Eds.), New York: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Walker, M. 2008. “Widening Participation: Widening Capability,” *London Review of Education* 6 (3): 276.
- Walker, M. 2012. “A capital or capabilities education narrative in a world of staggering inequalities?” *International Journal of Educational Development* 32: 384.
- Wenceslas, N. 2016. *Education quality in Rwanda: Factors of success, challenges, and future prospects*. Retrieved from <http://snecrwanda.org/education-quality-in-rwanda-factors-of-success-challenges-and-future-prospects/> [Accessed 9 October 2018].
- Wertheimer, L. 2017. *Zimbabwe’s new president*. [podcast] NPR transcripts. Retrieved from <https://www.npr.org/templates/transcript/transcript.php?storyId=566566897/> [Accessed 4 July 2018].

- Wertz, F.J. 2011. *Five ways of doing qualitative analysis: Phenomenology psychology, grounded theory, discourse analysis, narrative research, and intuitive enquiry*. New York, NY: Guilford Press.
- Wike, T.L. & Fraser, M.W. 2009. School shootings: Making sense of the senseless. *Aggression and Violent Behavior*, 14(3):162–169. doi: [10.1016/j.avb.2009.01.005](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.avb.2009.01.005).
- Wild, S. 2017. *Zimbabwe's researchers hope political change will revitalize science*. *Nature News*. 24 November. Retrieved from <https://www.nature.com/news/zimbabwe-s-researchers-hope-political-change-will-revitalize-science-1.23039/> [Accessed 14 July 2018].
- Wilson, A. 2006. *Marketing Research : An integrated approach*. Prentice Hall/Financial Times.
- William, T. & Turton, V. 2014. *Trading economics*. New York, NY: Wiley.
- Wong, P.W. 2014. A snap shot on qualitative research method: Educational research and reviews. *Academic Journals*, 9(5):130–140.
- Woodhall, M. & Blaug, M. 1965. *Productivity trends in British university education*. Retrieved from https://www.google.com/url?sa=t&rct=j&q=&esrc=s&source=web&cd=2&cad=rja&uact=8&ved=2ahUKEwi1_PbG6qveAhUPsaQKHXnGBx4QFjABegQIBxAB&url=https%3A%2F%2Fwww.jstor.org%2Fstable%2F41821682&usg=AOvVaw2BPpoyxOHTpiUzXJ4OCVdB/ [Accessed 29 September 2018].
- World Factbook. 2017. *Zimbabwe unemployment rate*. Retrieved from www.indexmundi.com/Zimbabwe/unemployment_rate.html/ [Accessed 9 July 2017].
- World Factbook. 2018. *Zimbabwe unemployment rate*. Retrieved from www.indexmundi.com/Zimbabwe/unemployment_rate.html/ [Accessed 8 May 2018].
- Yamamoto, K. 2017. *New Zimbabwe vision*. Retrieved from www.newzimbabwevision.com [Accessed 9 April 2017].
- Yaounde, 2018. Why no progress in defeating youth unemployment. The African Capacity Building Foundation, Cameroon. Retrieved from <https://www.acbf-pact.org/media/news/why-no-progress-defeating-youth-unemployment/> [Accessed 13 December 2018].

- Yin, R.K. 2014. *Case study research design and methods*. Fifth edition. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Zhou, Z. & Hardlife, G. 2012. *Public policy making in Zimbabwe: A three-decade perspective*. Harare: University of Zimbabwe. Department of Political and Administrative. 2(8)212-222. Retrieved from http://www.ijhssnet.com/journals/Vol_2_No_8_Special_Issue_April_2012/26.pdf/ [Accessed 22 September 2018].
- ZimAsset 2013, Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation, Towards an Empowered Society and a Growing Economy, Government of Zimbabwe. *Herald*. Retrieved from <http://www.herald.co.zw/wp-content/uploads/2014/01/Zim-Asset.pdf/> [Accessed 14 December 2018].
- Zimbabwe Situation, 2019. *University of Zimbabwe (UZ) has announced plans to construct a “Uni-City”*. February 11. Retrieved from <https://www.zimbabwesituation.com/news/university-of-zimbabwe-uz-has-announced-plans-to-construct-a-uni-city/> [Accessed 23 June 2019].
- ZCDP (Zimbabwean Capacity Development Programme), 2012. *How we do it*. Retrieved from <https://www.acbf-pact.org> [Accessed 10 January 2019].
- Zivengwa, T. 2012. *Global Journal of Management and Business Research*, 12 (8), USA: Global Journals Inc.
- Zvobgo, J.R. 1996. *Transforming Education: The Zimbabwean Experience*. Harare: College Press.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

The following section describes the significance of various abbreviations, and acronyms used throughout the thesis. Nonstandard acronyms that are used in some places to abbreviate certain phrases are not in this list.

AIPPA –	Access to Information and Protection of Privacy Act
CAQDA –	Computer Aided Qualitative Data Analysis
CIA–	Central Intelligence Agency
CHE –	Council of Higher Education
DCE–	Democratic citizenship education
DHET –	Department of Higher Education and Training
ECEC –	Early Education and Care
ESAP –	Economic Structural Adjustment Programme
GDP -	Gross domestic product
GoZ –	Government of Zimbabwe
GNU–	Government of National Unity
GZU –	Great Zimbabwe University
HE –	Higher education
HEI–	Higher Education Institution
LSU –	Lupane State University
MDC –	Movement of Democratic Change
MDG –	Millenium Development Goal
MHTESTD –	Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education, Science and Technology Development
MSU –	Midlands State University
NCHE–	National Council for Higher Education
NISA –	National Innovation and Science Agenda
NSAR -	National Skills Audit Report
NUST –	National University of Science and Technology

OBE –	Outcomes-Based Education
POSA –	Public Order and Security Act
SMEs –	Small and Medium Enterprises
SPSS –	Statistical Package for Social Sciences
STEM –	Science, Technology, Engineering and Mathematics
UCE –	United College of Education
UNDP –	United Nations Development Programme
UNESCO –	United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
UNICEF–	United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund
ZAPU -	The Zimbabwe African People's Union
ZANU PF –	Zimbabwe African National Unity Patriotic Front
ZimAsset -	Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation
ZIMCHE –	Zimbabwe Council of Higher Education
ZIMDEF –	Zimbabwean Development Fund
ZIMPREST –	Zimbabwean Programme for Economic and Social Transformation
ZCDP –	Zimbabwean Capacity Development Programme

APPENDICES

Appendix A: Interview Guide



NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

NUST Complex,
Mpilo Hospital,
Vera Road,
Mzilikazi, Bulawayo.

P. O. Box AC 939
Ascot, Bulawayo, Zimbabwe.
Telephone: 263-9-203337-9
Fax: 263-9-203309

FACULTY OF MEDICINE

9 April 2017

Semi-structured Interview Guide for Managers of industries and university students (20 participants)

Introduction and Purpose of the Interview

Greetings. My name is Sithobile Priscilla Dube, an Assistant Registrar in the Faculty of Medicine, NUST, Zimbabwe. I am carrying out my studies as a PhD student in the Department of Education Policy Studies, Faculty of Education at Stellenbosch University, South Africa. I am currently conducting a research study on the title **“Examining Relations between Educational Policy and Higher Education Students' Access into Industry in Zimbabwe”**.

I would like to start off by thanking you for taking time to participate today. Please note that you will be requested to participate in two stages of interviews (approximately 50 minutes per stage). Both Stage 1 and Stage 2 will be semi-structured interviews. I would like you to be aware that I might invite you for a follow up interview. The reason we are here today is to gather your opinions and attitudes about issues related to your experiences in your institution. The information will assist in coming out with strategies that could be implemented to enhance universities' programmes in order to make students ready for the workplace and also to become efficient co-workers. Through this interview, I am seeking your views on what you consider as the relationship between educational policy, education and training and higher education students' access into industry in Zimbabwe.

I am going to lead our discussion today. I will be asking you questions and then encouraging and moderating our discussion. I also would like you to know that this session will be tape recorded and notes will be recorded. The identities of you as a participant will remain confidential. The recording allows us to revisit our discussion for the purposes of developing research papers and presentations.

Ground rules

To allow our conversation to flow more freely, I would like to go over some ground rules.

This is a confidential discussion in that I will not report your names or who said what to your colleagues or supervisors. Your name will not even be included in the final report about this meeting. It also means, except for the report that will be written, what is said in this room stays in this room. I stress confidentiality because I want us to have an open discussion. Please feel free to express yourself and comment on my remarks without fear your comments will be possibly taken out of context. There are no “wrong answers,” just different opinions. Say what is true for you, even if you’re the only one who feels that way. Don’t let my viewpoints sway you. But if you do change your mind, let me know. Let me know if you need a break or have any questions.

Stage 1A - Semi-structured interviews: Background Information about Participants

The data on the background of the participants was collected on the basis of their ages, gender, marital status, highest educational status, role played in current status and length of time one had been in that position. This part sought to identify demographics and profiles of respondents. The purpose of this part was to show how these aspects affected the relationship between graduates and their entry into industry. In order to guide further discussion the following questions were used in Stage 1B:

Stage 1B - Semi-structured interviews: further questions

Question 1 – Can you relate to me how education policies favour graduates?

Question 2 – What is the role of universities in implementing policies in order to realize job creators?

Question 3 – What are your views about the link between transition of students to graduate levels and industry?

Question 4 – Please tell me about the outcome of the curriculum on learners.

Question 5 – What are your views concerning the gap between education policy and industry?

Question 6 – What is the relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance in industry?

Stage 2 – Semi-structured interviews (scheduled for a different day)

The appointments were made for 10 managers and 10 university students each one of them at their convenient times and venues. This stage had three sections with questions under each section.

Section A: The relationship between education and employment in Zimbabwe

Question 1: What is your assessment on education policies in meeting the needs of graduates?

Question 2: Would you like to tell me about the relationship between policy, employability and graduate performance in industry?

Question 3: What are your views on university programmes versus expectations of the industry?

Question 4: Please comment on the skills necessary for industry in their order of importance?

Section B: DCE and its effects on employability

Question 5: Can you please explain how the industry engages universities in their approach to promote employability?

Question 6: How do stakeholders get involved in the production of quality education?

Question 7: Who do you think should be involved in the development of educational policy in Zimbabwe?

Section C: University education and the development of entrepreneurship skills

Question 8: What are your views on the changes that should be implemented in the university curriculum to produce entrepreneurs that meet industries' expectations?

Question 9: Explain whether there is capacity and willingness to develop, organize and manage a business venture in Zimbabwe or not?

Question 10: What is your view on starting a new business?

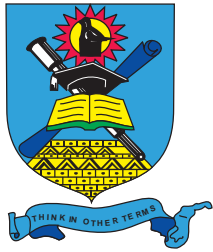
Question 11: Do you think the current situation in Zimbabwe prepares students with skills to start a new business?

Closing (2 minutes)

Thanks for coming today and talking about these issues. Your comments have given me lots of different ways to see this issue. I thank you for your time.

END! THANK YOU

Appendix B: Permission to Conduct an Educational Research



NATIONAL UNIVERSITY OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

NUST Complex,
Mpilo Hospital,
Vera Road,
Mzilikazi, Bulawayo.

P. O. Box AC 939
Ascot, Bulawayo, Zimbabwe.
Telephone: 263-9-203337-9
Fax: 263-9-203309

FACULTY OF MEDICINE

1 April 2017

.....
.....
.....

RE: PERMISSION TO CONDUCT AN EDUCATIONAL RESEARCH

I am Sithobile Priscilla Dube, a PhD student in the Department of Education Policy Studies, Faculty of Education at Stellenbosch University, South Africa. I am currently conducting a research study on the title **“Examining Relations between Educational Policy and Higher Education Students' Access into Industry in Zimbabwe”**. I would like to carry out a research in your institution as from Monday, 1 May 2017. The target groups for this research are the managers and students at your institution. I am requesting to conduct interviews to collect data.

Please find attached my offer letter to study and a consent form from Stellenbosch University. I kindly request that you sign the consent form should you accept that I can conduct the research activities to the target groups in your institution.

I look forward to your favourable response.

Yours sincerely

Mrs Sithobile Priscilla Dube
Assistant Registrar, Faculty of Medicine
Mobile+263782725180
sithobilepriscilla@gmail.com; sithobile.dube@nust.ac.zw

Appendix C1: Consent to Participate in Research (for Industry Managers)



UNIVERSITEIT • STELLENBOSCH • UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvenoot • your knowledge partner

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Title: Examining Relations between Educational Policy and Higher Education Students' Access into Industry in Zimbabwe.

To Industry Manager

.....

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Sithobile Priscilla Dube, from the Department of Education Policy Studies at Stellenbosch University. The results will be contributed to a thesis. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you have been identified as one of the key players in the industry during the selected period of my study. I am seeking your views on what you consider as the relation between the graduates you meet in the industry and your expectation concerning their education and training in Zimbabwe. This will assist me in coming out with strategies that could be implemented to enhance schools, colleges and universities' programmes in order to make students ready for the workplace and also to become efficient co-workers. Please note that I will use semi-structured interviews. As a participant, I would like you to be aware that I might invite you for a follow up interview.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to gather information that will assist in developing a clear understanding of what employability skills are as far as employers in industry are concerned in their pursuit to meet the aspirations and needs of workers. The reality in the process of training graduates and how they are churned into industry to face the world of work will be ascertained in order to examine and bring solutions to the gap that exists between the education and training of students and their entry into the workplace. The information gathered will be used to propose an idealist future growth and development direction with interventions to gauge the impact of strategies to improve graduates' skills for employment and employability and enhance university policies and programmes.

2. PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following things:

Participate in semi-structured interviews

You will be requested to participate in two stages of interviews. Both stages will be semi-structured interviews for approximately 50 minutes each after reading and understanding all procedures and issues of confidentiality and anonymity. You will be required to sign consent forms to accept that you will participate.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

Loss of time can be a discomfort for you. I will ensure that one to one interviews will take approximately 50 minutes at each stage. You will not be subjected to any participation without your informed consent. It may be risky to ask you about sensitive issues in your institutions but your responses will be kept confidential. You can end being involved anytime. You may feel threatened that your identities will become known but no names will be used in order to protect your identity. Your participation is completely anonymous and voluntary and information will be used solely for the purposes of this research.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

My task is to come out with strategies that could be implemented to enhance universities' policies and programmes in order to make students and graduates ready for the workplace and also to become efficient co-workers. New knowledge on existing gaps and possible recommendations on policy design will help program planners and educators to bring thoughts and ideas that will influence policy designers to be proactive about the improvement of students receiving appropriate training. The universities and the industry can work together on the scientific and technological requirements of industry and commerce.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

Since your participation is completely anonymous and voluntary and, you may end this interview at any time you want to, there will be no financial benefits involved. I will ensure that I engage you when are you available during the time of intervention. I will make sure that you read and sign this form for informed consent in order to acknowledge participation without being forced.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you will remain confidential. It will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. The study is conducted purely for research purposes. I will use pseudonyms not names in order to protect you and your institution and also enforce the validity of the study. Full or maximum participation will be expected from you. The numbers and codes will be developed to identify you and you will be assured that your disclosures will be kept in strict confidence. I will keep with me any personal information from other participants and can pass on only the anonymized protocols. I will make sure that I anonymize any information to keep your identity, name, address

or telephone number unknown and strictly confidential to any other person. The names and locations will be documented in field notes but will be coded and eliminated upon entry of the field notes into the computer. I will protect your confidentiality by not disclosing personal characteristics that could allow others to guess your identities.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you don't want to answer and still remain in the study. I may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact me using the following details:

Mrs Sithobile Priscilla Dube, Assistant Registrar

Faculty of Medicine

National University of Science & Technology

Postal address: PO Box AC 939

Ascot Physical address: NUST Complex at Mpilo, Vera Road, Mzilikazi Bulawayo, Zimbabwe

Tel. + 263 9 203336/7/8 Ext 126 Fax: + 263 9 203309, Mobile+263782725180

sithobilepriscilla@gmail.com; sithobile.dube@nust.ac.zw

Should you require the authenticity of my study, feel free to contact my supervisor, Professor Yusef Waghid at Stellenbosch University, Faculty of Education, Department of Education Policy Studies, Private Bag X1, Stellenbosch, South Africa or email him on yw@sun.ac.za.

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE
--

The information above was described to me the industry manager by Sithobile Priscilla Dube in English and I am in command of this language without any need of translation. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study and I hereby consent that the workers in this institution may participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

Name of Subject/Participant

Name of Legal Representative (if applicable)

Signature of Subject/Participant or Legal Representative

Date _____

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to the manager. He/she was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in English and no translator was used.

Signature of Investigator

Date

Appendix C2: Consent Participate in Research (for University Registrars)



UNIVERSITEIT • STELLENBOSCH • UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvenoot • your knowledge partner

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Title: Examining Relations between Educational Policy and Higher Education Students' Access into Industry in Zimbabwe.

To University Registrar

You are asked to participate in a research study conducted by Sithobile Priscilla Dube, from the Department of Education Policy Studies at Stellenbosch University. The results will be contributed to a thesis. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you have been identified as one of the key player in the university during the selected period of my study. I am seeking your views on what you consider as the relationship between the students and graduates, and the industry's expectations and your expectation concerning their education and training in Zimbabwe. This will assist me in coming out with strategies that could be implemented to enhance universities' programmes in order to make students ready for the workplace and also to become efficient co-workers. Please note that I will use semi-structured interviews. As a participant, I would like you to be aware that I might invite you for a follow up interview.

1. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The purpose of the study is to gather information that will assist in developing a clear understanding of the relationship between the education and training of the university students and their entry into industry. The major concern is their employability skills as far as employers in industry are concerned in their pursuit to meet the aspirations and needs of workers. The reality in the process of training graduates and how they are churned into industry to face the world of work will be ascertained in order to examine and bring solutions to the gap that exists between the higher education policies, the training of students and their entry into the workplace. An idealist future growth and development direction will be proposed with interventions to gauge the impact of strategies to improve graduates' skills for employment and employability and university policies and programmes will be enhanced.

2. PROCEDURES

If you volunteer to participate in this study, we would ask you to do the following things:

Participate in semi-structured interviews

You will be requested to participate in two stages of interviews. Both stages will use semi-structured interviews for approximately 50 minutes at each stage after reading and understanding all procedures and issues of confidentiality and anonymity. You will be required to sign consent forms to accept that you will participate.

3. POTENTIAL RISKS AND DISCOMFORTS

Loss of time can be a discomfort for you. I will ensure that one to one interviews will take approximately take 50 minutes. You will not be subjected to any participation without your informed consent. It may be risky to ask you about sensitive issues in your institutions but your responses will be kept confidential. You can end being involved anytime. You may feel threatened that your identities will become known but no names will be used in order to protect your identity. Your participation is completely anonymous and voluntary and information will be used solely for the purposes of this research.

4. POTENTIAL BENEFITS TO SUBJECTS AND/OR TO SOCIETY

My task is to come out with strategies that could be implemented to enhance universities' policies and programmes in order to make students and graduates ready for the workplace. New knowledge on existing gaps and possible recommendations on policy design will help program planners and educators to bring thoughts and ideas that will influence policy designers to be proactive about the improvement of students receiving appropriate training. The universities and the industry can work together on the scientific and technological requirements of industry and commerce.

5. PAYMENT FOR PARTICIPATION

Since your participation is completely anonymous and voluntary and, you may end this interview at any time you want to, there will be no financial benefits involved. I will ensure that I engage you when you are available during the time of intervention. I will make sure that you read and sign this form for informed consent in order to acknowledge participation without being forced.

6. CONFIDENTIALITY

Any information that is obtained in connection with this study and that can be identified with you or your institution, will remain confidential. It will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. The study is conducted purely for research purposes. I will use pseudonyms not names in order to protect you and your institution and also enforce the validity of the study. Full or maximum participation will be expected from you. The numbers and codes will be developed to identify you and you will be assured that your disclosures will be kept in strict confidence. I will keep with me any personal information from other participants and can pass on only the anonymized protocols. Your name, address or telephone number will be unknown and strictly

confidential to any other person. The names and locations will be documented in field notes but will be coded and eliminated upon entry of the field notes into the computer. I will protect your confidentiality by not disclosing personal characteristics that could allow others to guess your identities.

7. PARTICIPATION AND WITHDRAWAL

You can choose whether to be in this study or not. If you volunteer to be in this study, you may withdraw at any time without consequences of any kind. You may also refuse to answer any questions you do not want to answer and still remain in the study. I may withdraw you from this research if circumstances arise which warrant doing so.

8. IDENTIFICATION OF INVESTIGATORS

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please feel free to contact me using the following details:

Mrs Sithobile Priscilla Dube, Assistant Registrar, Faculty of Medicine

National University of Science & Technology

Postal address: PO Box AC 939, Ascot, Bulawayo.

Physical address: NUST Complex at Mpilo, Vera Road, Mzilikazi Bulawayo, Zimbabwe Tel. + 263 9 203336/7/8 Ext 126 Fax: + 263 9 203309, Mobile+263782725180

sithobilepriscilla@gmail.com; sithobile.dube@nust.ac.zw

Should you require the authenticity of my study, feel free to contact my supervisor, Professor Yusef Waghid at Stellenbosch University, Faculty of Education, Department of Education Policy Studies, Private Bag X1, Stellenbosch, South Africa or email him on yw@sun.ac.za.

9. RIGHTS OF RESEARCH SUBJECTS

You may withdraw your consent at any time and discontinue participation without penalty. You are not waiving any legal claims, rights or remedies because of your participation in this research study. If you have questions regarding your rights as a research subject, contact Ms Maléne Fouché [mfouche@sun.ac.za; 021 808 4622] at the Division for Research Development.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT OR LEGAL REPRESENTATIVE
--

The information above was described to me the University Registrar by Sithobile Priscilla Dube in English and I am in command of this language without any need of translation. I was given the opportunity to ask questions and these questions were answered to my satisfaction.

I hereby consent voluntarily to participate in this study and I hereby consent that the managers and students in this institution may participate in this study. I have been given a copy of this form.

Name of Subject/Participant

Name of Legal Representative (if applicable)

Signature of Subject/Participant or Legal Representative

Date _____

SIGNATURE OF INVESTIGATOR

I declare that I explained the information given in this document to the University Registrar. He/she was encouraged and given ample time to ask me any questions. This conversation was conducted in English and no translator was used.

Signature of Investigator

Date

Appendix D: Ethical Clearance Letter



APPROVED WITH STIPULATIONS

REC Humanities New Application Form

21 August 2017

Project number: EPS-
2017-0187-123

Project title: Examining Relations between Educational Policy and Higher Education Students' Access into Industry in Zimbabwe

Dear Mrs Sithobile dube

Your REC Humanities New Application Form submitted on 12 June 2017 was reviewed by the REC: Humanities and approved with stipulations.

Ethics approval period: 21 August 2017 - 20 August 2020

REC STIPULATIONS:

- 1) Data collected should be deleted after 5 years.
- 2) Once all the relevant permissions are obtained, they should be uploaded in the application form.
- 3) The recordings of interviews should be done on a voice recorder, as the researchers phone could get corrupted, a phone call or message could interrupt the flow of the interview.
- 4) The researcher state she will use a question guide for semi-structured interviews, this should be communicated in the consent form, in order for the participant to be aware that the researcher, might invite them for a follow up interview.

The researcher may proceed with the envisaged research provided that the following stipulations, relevant to the approval of the project are adhered to or addressed.

Some of these stipulations may require your response. Where a response is required, you must respond to the REC within **six**

(6) months of the date of this letter. Your approval would expire automatically should your response not be received by the REC within

6 months of the date of this letter. If a response is required, please respond to the stipulations in a separate cover letter titled

“Response to REC stipulations”.

Please take note of the General Investigator Responsibilities attached to this letter. You may commence with your research after complying fully with these guidelines.

If the researcher deviates in any way from the proposal approved by the REC: Humanities, the researcher must notify the REC of these changes.

Please use your SU project number (EPS-2017-0187-123) on any documents or correspondence with the REC concerning your project.

Please note that the REC has the prerogative and authority to ask further questions, seek additional information, require further modifications, or monitor the conduct of your research and the consent process.

FOR CONTINUATION OF PROJECTS AFTER REC APPROVAL PERIOD

Please note that a progress report should be submitted to the Research Ethics Committee: Humanities before the approval period has expired if a continuation of ethics approval is required. The Committee will then consider the continuation of the project for a further year (if necessary).

If you have any questions or need further help, please contact the REC office at cgraham@sun.ac.za.

Sincere

Clarissa Graham

REC Coordinator: Research Ethics Committee: Human Research (Humanities)

Appendix E: Information Sheet for Participants



UNIVERSITEIT • STELLENBOSCH • UNIVERSITY
jou kennisvenoot • your knowledge partner

STELLENBOSCH UNIVERSITY CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN RESEARCH

Title: Examining Relations between Educational Policy and Higher Education Students' Access into Industry in Zimbabwe.

Dear participant

I am Sithobile Priscilla Dube, a PhD student from the Department of Education Policy Studies at Stellenbosch University. You were selected as a possible participant in this study because you have been identified as one of the key players during the selected period of my study. I am seeking your views on what you consider as the relationship between the students, and the industry's expectations and your expectation concerning their education and training in Zimbabwe. This will assist me in coming out with strategies that could be implemented to enhance universities' programmes in order to make students ready for the workplace. If you volunteer to participate in this study, you will be requested to participate in two stages of interviews for approximately 50 minutes at each stage after reading and understanding all procedures and issues of confidentiality and anonymity. Please note that I will use a question guide for semi-structured interviews. I would like you to be aware that I might invite you for a follow up interview. You will be required to sign to accept that you will participate.

It may be risky to ask you about sensitive issues but your responses will be kept confidential and will be disclosed only with your permission or as required by law. You can end being involved anytime without consequences of any kind. No names will be used in order to protect your identity and

information will be used solely for the purposes of this research. I will keep with me any personal information from other participants. Since your participation is completely anonymous and voluntary and, you may end this interview at any time you want to, there will be no financial benefits involved. I will ensure that I engage you when you are available during the time of intervention.

If you have any questions or concerns about the research, please contact me using the following details:

Mrs Sithobile Priscilla Dube, Assistant Registrar, Faculty of Medicine
National University of Science & Technology

Postal address: PO Box AC 939, Ascot, Bulawayo.

Tel. + 263 9 203336/7/8 Ext 126, Mobile+263782725180

sithobilepriscilla@gmail.com; sithobile.dube@nust.ac.zw

Should you require the authenticity of my study, feel free to contact my supervisor, Professor Yusef Waghid at Stellenbosch University, Faculty of Education, Department of Education Policy Studies, Private Bag X1, Stellenbosch, South Africa or email him on yw@sun.ac.za.

SIGNATURE OF RESEARCH SUBJECT

Name of Participant.....

Signature.....**Date**.....

Signature of Investigator.....**Date**.....

END