

# **CHAPTER 1**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **1.0 THE STUDY CONTEXT**

Zimbabwe was experiencing strong socio-economic development challenges partly linked to the dearth of appropriate human skills within its population ten years after independence in 1990 (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991; 1998 and 1999; World Bank, 1989). The country's population census for 1992 revealed that fifty-three percent of all those classified as unemployed in the country were holders of either certificates, diplomas or degrees from tertiary institutions, suggesting a mismatch between technical and vocational education (TVE) policy growth and development and socio-economic development. The efficient production and effective utilisation of a nation's human resources for socio-economic growth and development is linked to the country's timely implementation of TVE policy reform initiatives (Wilson, 1992; Bennell, 1991). Wilson (1992) suggests that it is important that TVE policy is regularly reviewed so that the TVE system produces the most ideal quality and quantity of human resources needed for sustainable socio-economic development. This researcher believes that implementing timely and appropriate human resources development policy reform initiatives leads to TVE policy growth and development matching socio-economic development reform initiatives.

Even though Zimbabwe's technical and vocational education (TVE) policy reforms soon after independence in 1980 produced a large number of graduates with skills intended for use in most sectors of the economy, the rate of utilisation for most of the graduates was worrying from about the mid 1980s onwards (Munetsi & Simango, 1994; Government of Zimbabwe, 1991). This under-utilisation of TVE system graduates suggested a mismatch between the country's TVE policy growth and development and its socio-economic development. Thus, by 1990, there was a strong need for determining how Zimbabwe's TVE policy should have grown and developed over the years to create the nation's skilled human resources necessary for sustainable socio-economic prosperity.

The apparent mismatch between Zimbabwe's TVE policy growth and development and socio-economic development prompted this researcher to carry out this study. The thesis of the study was that a high level of TVE system graduate underutilisation was a consequence of a mismatch between TVE policy growth and development and socio-economic development. Analysing past TVE policy growth and development trends has been shown to provide suitable information for understanding existing policy reform initiatives and for predicting an idealistic policy growth and development direction for the future (Borg and Gall, 1989; Weiss, 1977). This means that Zimbabwe can learn from the past so that it understands the present TVE policy shortcomings and avoid making mistakes of yesterday in future. Failure to learn from history leads to philosopher George Santayana's oft-quoted axiom, "Those who forget the past are doomed to repeat it" (Santayana, 1905;p284). As a young growing African third world country, Zimbabwe cannot afford ignoring past TVE policy growth and development lessons for future prosperity. This study, therefore, analysed

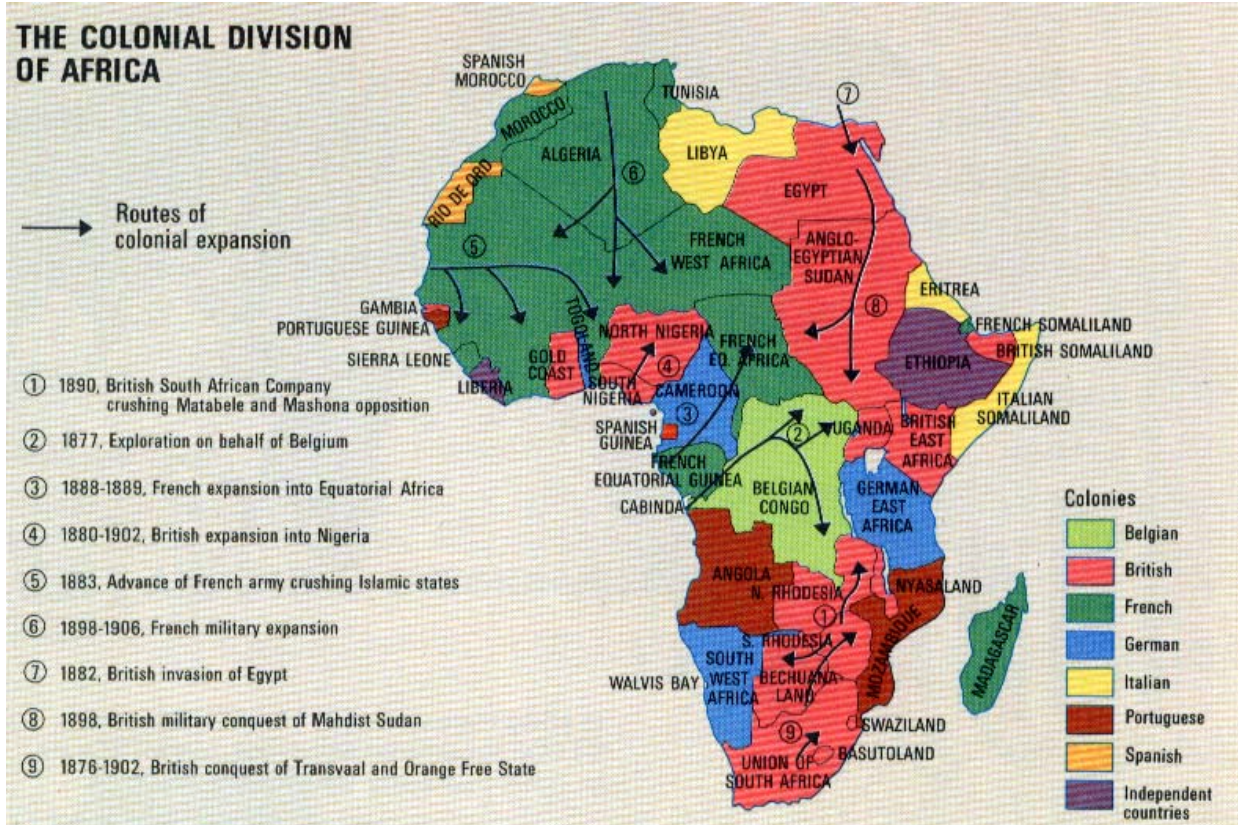
the country's TVE policy growth and development between 1890 and 1990 with the aim of identifying policy lessons from the past that could be useful in harmonising future TVE policy and socio-economic development.

Technical and vocational education policy growth and development was defined as quantitative and qualitative changes within the policy framework that resulted in increases in the number of policy documents, policy provisions and areas covered, and in increases in the education and training system's ability to contribute towards national socio-economic development (UNESCO & ILO, 2002; van Schalkwyk, 1993; Hanekom, 1987). The researcher agrees with the view that a critical factor within policy growth and development is the need for establishing and maintaining clarity and focus within the policy (Flower & Flower, 1990; Hanekom, 1987; Weiss, 1983). Clarity relates to the lucidity, preciseness and lack of contradictions within the policy, while focus relates to the policy being intended to guide activities towards a specific national objective, or focal point. Thus, if the national objective for social-economic development shifted from mining to agriculture, or from agriculture to manufacturing, as what happened in Zimbabwe from about 1900 to 1920 and from about 1930 to 1970 respectively, then the technical and vocational education policy should have grown and developed to align itself with the new economic thrust. Critical policy analysis was, therefore, the process of identifying major TVE policy and its provisions from colonisation onwards, then evaluating the underlying assumptions, the actual implementation and the consequences of the policy. This was done with the view of giving an estimation of the policy's growth and development with respect to quantity, quality and relevancy for achieving national socio-economic development objectives.

Having participated in the country's technical and vocational education system over a period of about thirty years, first as an apprentice trainee, then as a trainer and a postgraduate trainee, and finally as an administrator, this researcher believes that national policy plays an important role in determining how a system contributes towards individual and national socio-economic development. The researcher's philosophical lenses for the critical analysis were heavily biased towards adult education principles that promote the dignity of the individual and the practical application of new knowledge. Even though other researchers have studied the development of this country's education and training policy within the period chosen for this study, this researcher did not identify a study analysing Zimbabwe's TVE policy over the entire one-hundred years. The studies identified were either for shorter periods (for example, Zvobgo, 1994; Mumbengegwi, 1985) or they focused on the general education system (for example, Kapfunde, 1997; Atkinson, 1974). Thus, the importance of this study was chiefly for two reasons. Firstly, studying the country's TVE policy growth and development over a one-hundred year period gave a more comprehensive picture that provided a stronger basis upon which to recommend an improved future situation. Secondly, the study provided new information that may be used for TVE policy reform initiatives.

### **1.0.1 A Brief History**

Zimbabwe was colonised by the British South African Company (BSAC) on behalf of the Queen of England in 1890. Map I shows how Africa was divided among European nations during the period 1880 to 1914, hence the extent of foreign influence on the continent at the time Zimbabwe was colonised (Zimbabwe is labeled S Rhodesia on the map).



**MAP I: The Colonisation of Africa: 1880-1914 (Munowenyu & Murray, 1990; p39)**

While the actual process of colonising Zimbabwe was unique since the responsibility was given to a private company, the BSAC, Map I gives the impression that TVE policy growth and development in the country should have had strong similarities to that which occurred in other African countries that were colonised by Britain. Thus, the country should share common elements in its TVE policy growth and development with fourteen other African countries that are former British colonies.

The BSAC had the mandate to rule Zimbabwe for twenty-five years and had the responsibility to establish a foundation for formal TVE policy in the country. This responsibility was discharged through the issuing of legislation affecting TVE activities within the country. The BSAC subscribed to a Capitalist philosophy based on strong Victorian principles (Hone, 1906; Challiss, 1968). As a private commercial company itself, it promoted the interests of company shareholders. Thus, the BSAC laid a foundation for an elitist, academic oriented and racially segregated TVE policy that favoured Capitalist European interests and disadvantaged indigenous Africans (Mungazi, 1994; Zvobgo, 1994).

After BSAC rule, a responsible government was established in 1923 to take over the running of the country. This new government put in place TVE policy reform initiatives aimed at achieving its own socio-economic objectives that were slightly different from those of the BSAC. For example, the BSAC had largely adopted policies similar to those in South Africa, yet the responsible government favoured policies from Britain. However, the responsible government seems to have perpetuated the Capitalist philosophy and Victorian principles that had been established by the BSAC, maintaining the elitist nature and bias towards academic subjects, and the racial segregation within the policy.

At independence in 1980, the majority rule government that came into power introduced its own TVE policy reform initiatives with a Pan-Africanist-Socialist orientation. The government's new TVE policy included the principles of decolonisation, abolition of racial structures, democratisation of access to education, localisation of curriculum and examinations, vocationalisation of the secondary school curriculum, promotion of Socialism

and promotion of social transformation (Zvodgo, 1997; Mutumbuka, 1981). This means that TVE policy in Zimbabwe soon after independent was seen as a vehicle for social transformation for Africans for the first time. Thus, Zimbabwe's TVE policy went through significant changes from colonisation to ten years after independence and this study sought to analyse the nature of these changes.

### **1.0.2 Membership of International Bodies**

In addition to similarities in TVE policy growth and development with former British colonies, Zimbabwe is a member of regional groupings, such as the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA) whose aims include poverty alleviation through economic cooperation in the development of natural and human resources for the good of all their people (SADC, 2003; COMESA, 2003). The country is now part of The New Partnership for Africa's Development (NEPAD), a strategy for Africa's development adopted by the Organisation of African Unity (now the African Union) during the Lusaka Summit on 11 July 2001. One of the five priority areas for NEPAD is human resource development, with a focus on health, education and skills development (Government of South Africa, 2001; SADC, 2003). Membership into these regional groupings means that the country's TVE policy growth and development should have an influence on the socio-economic activities of its neighbours through shared strategic human resource development activities, including shared utilisation of human skills developed in these countries' TVE systems. Thus, a study of TVE policy

growth and development in Zimbabwe should provide information that should benefit its SADC neighbours and other Sub-Saharan African countries.

### **1.0.3 Zimbabwe's Socio-Economic Challenges**

Ten years after independence (in 1990), the major challenges facing Zimbabwe, and most Sub-Saharan African countries, included underdevelopment characterised by widespread poverty, a high youth unemployment rate, the flight of TVE system graduates to other countries, rising inflation, the HIV/AIDS pandemic, dwindling export earnings and negative economic growth rates (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991; Bennell, 1991). As a way of addressing these challenges, Zimbabwe adopted economic policy reform initiatives supported by donors. For example, the World Bank supported five-year Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) was adopted in 1991. When ESAP ended in 1995, the government adopted the Zimbabwe Programme for Economic and Social Transformation (ZIMPREST) as the second phase of the socio-economic reform initiatives. In adopting these socio-economic reforms, the government of Zimbabwe highlighted the importance of TVE policy reform in order to strategically refocus human resource development activities for the success of the initiatives (Government of Zimbabwe, 1998; 1991). ZIMPREST ended in 2000 and the Government of Zimbabwe stopped adopting any other World Bank supported socio-economic policy reform initiative, declaring them a failure. It then adopted the National Economic Revival Programme (NERP), formulated by a Zimbabwean forum composing industry, government and labour organisations, in 2003. NERP was replaced by the National Economic Priority Programme (NEPP) in 2006. It is crucial, therefore, that

important information on TVE policy growth and development in the country be made available so that Zimbabwe's latest socio-economic reform initiatives do not fail due to a mismatch between human resources development policy and economic development policy.

## **1.1 PURPOSE OF THE STUDY**

The major purpose of this study was to critically analyse TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe during the period 1890 to 1990 with the view of providing information useful in shaping its future course. The study sought to determine whether Zimbabwe's TVE policy growth and development had similarities between the period of colonial rule and that of soon after independence, and whether the growth and development was influenced by international trends and by identified human resource needs for socio-economic development. In addition, the study sought to determine the aspects of the policy growth and development process that are important lessons for policy reform initiatives within the country, and to identify from Zimbabwe's history lessons that were useful in suggesting a more suitable and idealistic policy growth and development direction within the country beyond ten years after independence. This research study, therefore, was aimed at providing a resource for use in future TVE policy reform initiatives in Zimbabwe, through an analysis of the one hundred years of the policy's growth and development. The other important aim was to provide information to fill the existing knowledge and information gap identified by other researchers, such as Nherera (1999) and Bennell, Bendera, Kanyedze, Kimambo, Kiwia, Mbiriyakura, Munetsi, Muzulu, Parsalaw and Temu (1999).

## **1.2 THE RESEARCH QUESTIONS**

The following specific questions guided the study:

- a) How did technical and vocational education policy grow and develop in Zimbabwe during the period 1890 to 1990?
- b) What social, political and economic factors influenced the growth and development of Zimbabwe's technical and vocational education policy between 1890 and 1990?
- c) To what extent did international trends affect the growth and development of technical and vocational education policy in Zimbabwe between 1890 and 1990?
- d) Was the growth and development of technical and vocational education policy in Zimbabwe between 1890 and 1990 aimed at providing the human resource needed for achieving national social-economic development objectives?
- e) What legacy of the growth and development of Zimbabwe's technical and vocational education policy between 1890 and 1990 is apparent in the current initiatives for policy reform within the country?
- e) How should the country's current technical and vocational education policy grow and develop in response to social and economic developmental challenges of the twenty-first century?

## **1.3 JUSTIFICATION FOR THE STUDY**

This study is important chiefly for two reasons. Firstly, this researcher concurs with the view that TVE policy growth and development analysis research provides useful information that

may aid policy makers in coming up with more effective and efficient human resource development policies (Bennell, et al., 1999; Kapfunde, 1997; UNIDO, 1984). TVE policy reform has been a major concern for decision-makers in Government, commerce and industry, in SADC, in COMESA and in other regional bodies in which Zimbabwe is a member. For example, the SADC Protocol on Education and Training signed by the heads of member states in Blantyre, Malawi, on 8 September 1997, stresses the need for TVE policy review so that member states achieve optimum results from national human resource development efforts (SADC Report, 2003; p4). Thus, studying the history of TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe should enable one to fully understand its current state and suggest an idealist policy growth and development direction for the future. In line with this view, Beauchamp's (1987) historical policy analysis of Japan's educational policies provided a very valuable basis for understanding that country's policy-making initiatives, for making predictions about the outcomes of those initiatives, and for suggesting the significance of the initiatives to policy-makers in other countries.

The second reason why this research was important concerns its filling the knowledge gap on research-based information on Zimbabwe's TVE policy growth and development issues. Studying Zimbabwe's TVE policy growth and development over a period of one hundred years was unique in that no study over the entire period was identified, yet the period provided a rich source of information. This information should be useful to academics, researchers and policymakers as accurate research based information on Zimbabwe's education and training system is needed for informed decisions and actions on the entire TVE system. For example, Kapfunde (1997), Zvobgo (1994), Mungazi (1990), Mumbengegwi

(1989) and Atkinson (1972) have provided very useful information on Zimbabwe's education and training policy growth and development through historical studies that have influenced researchers and policy makers in this country. Other examples are studies by Matshazi (1986), Cuerden, (1981), Mothobi (1978) and Passmore (1972) that focused on TVE policy in specific sectors of the economy. At regional level, SADC, COMESA and NEPAD documents have expressed the importance of TVE policy review among member states and the need for research in guiding the reform initiatives. This study of Zimbabwe's TVE policy growth and development over a period of one hundred years was, therefore, important in that it provided useful new information for understanding the country's present challenges in vocational education and training and the direction that future policy reform initiatives might take. Thus, this study provided information that filled a knowledge gap. The information should be useful to Zimbabwe and other African countries in TVE policy reform initiatives.

#### **1.4 SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY**

The significance of this study chiefly lies in its provision of information that may be used for policy review initiatives and in the study's filling the existing knowledge gap. Zimbabwe shares a common colonial past with fourteen other African countries that are former British colonies. This study should provide evidence that a clear and focused TVE policy growth and development creates the right environment for an effective and efficient TVE system to flourish within a country. Such evidence should be significant to researchers, academics and TVE policy makers in Zimbabwe and other African countries currently experiencing very strong socio-economic challenges that include a high TVE system graduate unemployment

rate and a shortage of the critical human skills necessary for economic recovery and growth (Government of Zimbabwe, 1998; Zimbabwe Congress of Trade Unions, 1996).

The provision of high quality TVE at national level is an essential precondition for economic growth in the modern era (Bennell, Bendera, Kanyenze, et al, 1999; Wilson, 1992). Thus, the need for a detailed investigation of TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe becomes significant in providing the information required for understanding the country's TVE policy growth and development in a historical perspective and for initiating a future TVE policy growth and development that adequately meets the human resource and economic challenges facing the nation. Further, the study's significance also lies in the fact that it attempted to highlight crucial new knowledge on TVE policy growth and development issues embedded in the immediate colonial past and the early stages of the post independence period. This information provides a basis for a home-grown problem solution, enabling policy makers and other stake-holders involved in TVE policy formulation and implementation to improve on TVE policy in Zimbabwe (and its neighbours) in order to meet the challenges of global competitiveness in the new millennium.

## **1.5 SCOPE AND DELIMITATION OF THE STUDY**

The study covered TVE policy growth and development within Zimbabwe during the period 1890 to 1990. This is the period from the time the country was colonised by the British to ten years after gaining political independence. The year 1890 was a significant starting point because it marked the beginning of the period when a modern, western system of government

was introduced in the country. It is also the period when a formal TVE system started to emerge. Before this period, traditional African systems of government, education and training, were practiced. Ten years after the attainment of political independence is a logical cut off point because by then, the consequences of post independence TVE policy could be adequately assessed.

Specifically, the study focused on TVE policy in Zimbabwe relating to the training for employment in government departments, industry and commerce but did not cover policy on training in the uniformed forces. The institutions looked at for this study were secondary schools, universities, technical colleges, polytechnics, agricultural colleges, vocational training centres, colleges of nursing, teachers' colleges and youth training centres. In addition to the training in the institutions mentioned above, the study discusses the training of workers employed in Zimbabwe's key industries and the civil service.

## **1.6 ASSUMPTIONS GUIDING THE STUDY**

The main assumption of the study was that Zimbabwe's TVE policy growth and development over the years from when the country was colonised in 1890 to ten years after independence in 1990 has left a legacy and influence on present policy. It was assumed that this legacy and influence is both positive and negative, requiring that future growth and development be guided in a specific direction to reduce the influence of negative aspects. The study also assumed that history plays an important role in shaping our present and future activities. This is why a critical analysis of the historical underpinnings of Zimbabwe's TVE policy growth

and development was seen as leading to the provision of useful information for the formulation of a home-grown clearer and more focused future TVE policy for the country. The second assumption was that information from documents, manuscripts and official records, and responses by key stakeholders to specially designed questions that could provide information that may be used for an analysis of TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe. This information should then fill a knowledge gap and assist policy makers in hammering out a more idealistic future TVE policy growth and development direction.

## **1.7 LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY**

This study relied heavily on data from documents available in libraries and government departments, and data from interviews. The data from the recent past were sourced through a survey and responses to questions during face-to-face interviews. Because of the nature and size of the topic, that is TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe over a period of one-hundred-years, it was very difficult for the researcher to fully explore all the content within large volumes of documents situated in libraries, archives and government department registries and repositories. However, a serious effort was made at being as exhaustive as possible. The researcher noted that a lot of official documents relating to the pre-independence era were missing, either destroyed or removed from various repositories soon before and after independence. Librarians confirmed this fact during the researcher's search for information at the National Free Library in Bulawayo, the National Archives in Harare and at the University of Zimbabwe's Government Publications Section.

The second limitation related to the availability of people who were credible sources of information on TVE policy formulation during the colonial period. Most of the key players, who were white, were likely to have died, left the country or were not easily accessible for political reasons. A third challenge related to economic difficulties the country was going through during data gathering for the study. The serious cash and fuel shortage that was affecting the country at the time of data gathering in libraries, and during interviews, adversely curtailed the journeys that could be undertaken. For example, face-to-face interviews were not done with two former Higher Education ministers because of this problem. Nevertheless, the researcher was convinced that the research contributed useful new knowledge to the field of TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe.

## **1.8 DEFINITION OF TERMS**

The key terms in this study are defined below.

1.10.1 Critical analysis in this study means the process of identifying the major provisions of technical and vocational education policy and evaluating the underlying assumptions, the actual implementation and the consequences of the policy. This is done with the view of giving an estimation of the policy's growth and development with respect to quantity, quality and relevancy.

- 1.10.2 Technical and vocational education refers to any planned acquisition of the skills, knowledge and attitudes intended to develop certain identified precise competencies needed for use by participants in specific occupations or work related activities.
- 1.10.3 Policy is the officially stated position that provides guidelines or rules for those involved in the planning, decision making, implementation and evaluation of technical and vocational education activities (UNESCO and ILO, 2002; Atchoarena, 1996). The policy gives a course or principle of action adopted by the government and other human resource development stakeholders, presenting a set of ideas or plans that should be used as a basis for making decisions in technical and vocational education activities.
- 1.10.4 Technical and Vocational Education Policy Growth and Development is taken to mean quantitative and qualitative changes within the policy that result in increases in the number of policy documents, policy provisions and areas covered, and in increases in the education and training system's ability to perform certain functions, adapt to the socio-economic environment and to changes within that environment.
- 1.10.5 Growth is the process in which the policy becomes larger, more numerous or more important as shown by the inclusion of new policy guidelines, provisions or requirements (Flower & Flower, 1990; Hanekom, 1987). It is simply an expansion of the policy to enable it to cover new areas.

- 1.10.6 Development is the process in which the education and training policy passes, by degrees, to a more advanced or mature stage, that is, it changes from a simpler to a more complex form enabling the system to have the ability to improve on the relevancy and quality of graduates (Heraty, Morley & McCarthy, 2000; Good, 1973). This means that while policy growth analysis focuses on quantitative increases, analysis of policy development focuses on qualitative improvements to the system and its products.
- 1.10.7 Human Resources Development refers to the education and training of employees within organisations aimed at enhancing their knowledge, skills and attitudes enabling them to perform to expectations within their current and future jobs (Nadler, 1995). In this study, the term is used with reference to the nation as the organisation within which HRD takes place, and is used interchangeably with the term TVE.
- 1.10.8 Generic skills are the range of new skills encompassing of problem solving, teamwork, communication (including computer literacy) and work related attitudes that have been identified as cutting across all jobs or profession and are important in current and future occupations (Gow & McDonald, 2000; Stasz, 1997). It is this study's view that TVE policy should ensure that all TVE programmes incorporate elements of generic skills into the curriculum.
- 1.10.9 Socio-economic development means an improvement in all aspects of human well-being encompassing a sustainable increase in the living standard of a nation's

population that implies increased per capita income, better education and health and a sustainable utilisation of modern technology as well as environmental protection (Wikipedia, 2007; Solow, 1956).

1.10.10 Colonisation refers to the occupation of territories by foreigners, and, in this study, it is the process by which Britain occupied Zimbabwe and set up Anglo-Saxon institutions and culture.

Throughout this document those terms that require clarification within the context in which they are used will be explained within the text.

## **1.9 SUMMARY**

This introductory chapter has given the background to the study. It has expressed the researcher's view that a study of TVE policy growth and development over a period of one hundred years should provide useful information for policy review and for filling a knowledge gap. Identified studies on education and training policy in Zimbabwe seem to place a heavy bias towards the formal general education system, hence the decision to attempt to fill-in the knowledge gap by providing information on TVE policy growth and development. The study was based on the assumptions that Zimbabwe's current TVE policy has not been clear and focused because of its historical growth and development. The problem that led to the undertaking of this research was the researcher's view that TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe did not seem to have been in tandem with

socio-economic growth and development as evidenced by persistent critical shortages of important skills and a high unemployment and underemployment of TVE system graduates. By analysing TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe, the study sought to give a useful insight into how the nation's TVE policy as at 1990 was guided by policy developed from soon after colonisation in 1890 to ten years after independence. Such an analysis should form a basis for understanding how the TVE policy evolved over a period of one hundred years, and provide a useful guide for developing a better future TVE policy for Zimbabwe. Thus, this study is significant because of its detailed analysis of a hundred years of TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe that provides useful information for the formulation of an idealistic future TVE policy growth and development for the country's needs in the twenty-first century.

## **CHAPTER 2**

### **THE TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION POLICY GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT ENVIRONMENT**

#### **2.0 INTRODUCTION**

Having discussed the background to the study in Chapter 1, this chapter focuses on the literature on TVE policy growth and development. It starts with a discussion on the concept of technical and vocational education policy growth and development, before moving on to look at the relevant philosophies, colonial and post-colonial TVE policy in Africa and the future for TVE policy growth and development. The discussion supports the view that a link exists between TVE policy growth and development and socio-economic development. A link is also seen as existing between the philosophical views of the policy makers and the TVE policy that emerges. Having established these links, the chapter then discusses colonial and post-colonial TVE policy growth and development in Africa and the ideal skills for the worker of tomorrow. The chapter ends by concluding that TVE policy growth and development is best in the direction that produces a multi-skilled worker who may specialise as the need arises, but has to be an active learner throughout one's working life.

## **2.1 CONCEPT OF TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION POLICY**

The education and training aimed at enabling people to create and generate wealth (or for occupations) has been referred to using a variety of different names. For example, the Southern African Development Community (SADC) refers to the concept of developing skills within nationals as Technical and Vocational Education and Training (TVET) in its Protocol on Education and Training (SADC, 2003). There is an American 'Journal of Vocational and Technical Education' (JVTE) and a British 'Journal of Vocational Education and Training' (JVET). However, UNESCO (1989, p.2) defines TVE as:

All forms of and levels of the educational process involving, in addition to general knowledge, the study of the technologies and related sciences and the acquisition of practical skills, know-how, attitudes and understanding relating to occupations in the various sectors of economic and social life .... (It is) provided in institutions or through co-operative programmes organised jointly by educational institutions... and industrial, agricultural, commercial or any other undertaking related to the world of work (p.2).

In the UNESCO (1989) definition, TVE acquires a broad meaning encompassing the entire education process and incorporates a tripartite participation involving government, the worker and the employer. This all-embracing view of TVE is in line with this research study's definition for TVE policy growth and development since they share the common element of encompassing all human resource development initiatives.

It is interesting to note that at times, various bodies within one country, community, or organisation refer to TVE using different names. This confirms the problem of lack of universality in defining sociological phenomena such as education and training, even within a defined small community. This is typical of philosopher Emmanuel Kant's view that "We see things as we are not as they are" (quoted in Ziniewicz, 1996), leading to people viewing TVE differently. Ziniewicz (1996) notes that Kant was of the view that there is a difference between the way things are in themselves (reality) and the way things appear to us, and we cannot know things as they really are in themselves (noumena) but we only know them as appearances (phenomena). This means that what we "see" is a product of our interpretation that is based on what we know and our perception, which are products of our experiences. Our experiences depend on the socio-cultural environment(s) in which we grew up. Thus, it is not possible to come up with a universally common definition of concepts within TVE because the way we view and define these concepts depends on issues such as our socio-cultural background, our ideology, philosophical perspective and the conceptual models we adopt. However, comparison of practices within the TVE systems in countries and situations where different terms are used in reference to TVE suggests that these different names refer to basically the same thing. This study adopted the term 'TVE' in line with the common usage of the term in the United Kingdom (Zimbabwe's former coloniser) and in Zimbabwe.

This study's definition of Technical and Vocational Education Policy Growth and Development is any quantitative and qualitative changes within the policy that result in increases in the number of policy documents, policy provisions and areas covered, and in

increases in the education and training system's ability to perform certain functions, adapt to the socio-economic environment and to changes within that environment. The TVE policy affects all levels of the education and training system. However, the focus of this study was on the TVE policy that affects the post secondary school level. For consistency, the term TVE was used in reference to the education and training policy aimed at the development of occupation or work related skills in other countries, even if the official term used to refer to it in those countries was not TVE.

### **2.1.1 Human Resources Development and Adult Education**

Linked to the concept of TVE policy are the concepts of Human Resource Development (HRD) and Adult Education (AE). HRD is concerned with management and development of human resources in organisations that is primarily concerned with the education, training and development of employees within organisations (Storm, 1996). This means that HRD policy is concerned with the development of work related competencies and its primary focus is to enhance the skills, knowledge, and attitudes that enable workers to perform in their current and future jobs while monitoring, maintaining and improving the productivity of workers at various levels within the organisation (Pace, Smith & Mills, 1991; Storm, 1996). Thus, HRD policy is the part of TVE policy focusing on enhancing productivity within organisations and affects all levels of the organisation employing the individuals. In this study, the term HRD has been used interchangeably with TVE, adopting its meaning in the broader context in which the country becomes the organisation in which HRD takes place.

In comparison, adult education is seen as the educational activities intentionally designed for the purpose of bringing about learning among those whose age, social roles, or self-perception, define them as adults (Nafukho, Amutabi and Otunga, 2005; Knowles, 1980). Adult education occurs where-ever adults are learning from their environment, making it an integral part of TVE. Knowles (1980) argues that methods in the teaching of adults (*andragogy*) should be different to those used for the teaching of children (*pedagogy*). His theory of andragogy is based on five important assumptions about the differences between children and adult learners. These differences relate to self-concept, experience, readiness to learn, orientation to learn and motivation to learn. In general, adult learners are different from children because, as people mature, their self-concept changes from one characterised by dependence to independence and self-direction. Older people benefit from experiences that assist in the learning process. Maturity also brings with it developmental tasks and social roles and responsibilities that focus people's readiness to learn. The need within adults to immediately apply what is learnt makes their focus shift from subject orientation to problem orientation (Nafukho, Amutabi & Otunga, 2005; Knowles, 1980). Thus, adult education principles and practices should be important components of TVE, hence TVE policy should grow and develop in a direction aimed at enhancing andragogy rather than pedagogy, even if it is meant for children.

### **2.1.2 Vocational Education, Technical Training and General Education**

At times a distinction is made between "vocational education" and "technical training" within TVE (Sanders, 1966; Lauglo & Lillis, 1988; Allen, 1990). While vocational education is seen

as focusing on training for employment directly into a trade or profession, technical training is seen as focusing on the acquisition of specific skills through practice. The term vocational education is then commonly used when referring to the TVE provided in schools and in private and government institutions meant for community development education and training, while technical training is usually used in reference to the TVE provided in tertiary level institutions recruiting secondary school graduates (UNESCO, 1989; Allen, 1990). This education and training may be obtained either formally in trade schools, technical secondary schools or in on-the-job training programmes, or, more informally, by picking up the necessary skills on the job without actual supervision. This suggests that vocational education's emphasis tends to be on the development of psychomotor, cognitive and related skills required for effective operation within a chosen work related occupational area. Thus, vocational education does not normally require minimum academic entry qualifications and includes technical subjects within the general education system and on-job-training meant for the skills upgrading of those already working. Lauglo & Lillis (1988) note that when referring to the general education system, the term "Vocationalisation" is commonly used to refer to changes in the school curriculum in a practical or vocational direction. Such changes are part of TVE policy growth and development since they are aimed at developing the appropriate knowledge, skills and attitudes within the workers of tomorrow.

On the other hand, 'Technical training' (sometimes also referred to as Industrial Technical Training, ITT) commonly refers to the TVE provided outside the general education system. It is directed towards a broad category of occupations in which success is dependent largely on technical information and understanding of the laws of science and technology as applied to

modern design, distribution and service (Allen, 1990). 'Training' is a term that was popularised by Frederick Taylor and his doctrine of Scientific Management. Taylor was of the idea that for business to operate efficiently, managers had to be able to have total control over the actions of their workforce. According to him, the less initiative and originality displayed by the workers the better (quoted in Allen, 1990). Training, therefore, was the name given to the process of preparing people for this sort of work environment, but modern methods of production, and contemporary work practice generally, have made this narrow definition obsolete.

In comparison to the definitions of technical training and vocational education given above, general education is defined broadly as the process designed to enable one to develop the knowledge, skills and attitudes necessary for coping effectively with one's environments (Levin, 1997; UNESCO, 1989). General education is seen as one of the principal means available to foster a deeper and a more harmonious form of human development and, thereby, to reduce poverty, exclusion, ignorance, oppression and war (Delores, 1996). General education, therefore, is an essential component of TVE since it provides the foundation for the understanding of the theory and practice of the professions. An effective general education base is seen as establishing a good foundation for effective TVE since it lays the foundation for people to understand the scientific principles relevant to the particular job or occupation (Bennell, et al., 1999; David, 1992).

From the discussion above, it is clear that there are common elements in vocational education, technical training and general education since they all aim at developing relevant

skills, knowledge and attitudes in learners. This researcher's definition of TVE as any education or training that is intended to develop predetermined skills needed for use by participants in specific occupations or work related activities includes elements of vocational education, technical training and general education. One of the strong prevailing views is that an effective TVE policy growth and development should be linked to a good general education foundation (UNESCO & ILO, 2002; Government of Zimbabwe, 1998; World Bank 1995). The other view is that the world of work is increasingly requiring continuing education and training throughout one's economically productive life and TVE policy is being called upon to respond appropriately (Foster, 2001; UNESCO, 1989). This means that effective TVE policy growth and development should focus on providing the relevant work skills at the various stages in one's working life. From this perspective, it is clear that a certain amount of work related skills should be provided during general education, on entry into a profession and during one's entire working life, especially whenever a new range of skills is necessary when one is still economically productive. Even if this suggests that a limited amount of TVE occurs within the general education system, this study is mainly concerned with tertiary level TVE.

### **2.1.3 Technical and Vocational Education Policy and Socio-Economic Development**

Researchers have struggled to conclusively establish the link between TVE policy growth and development and socio-economic development (Bennell 1991; Riddell, Baron, Stalker & Wilkinson, 1997). However, it is clear that the link between economic development and TVE

policy growth and development has been, in the past, is today, and is likely to remain in the future as, one of the hottest debated issues in all countries of the world. This is mainly because of the perceived close link between TVE policy growth and development and technological development, which in turn is seen as being linked to economic development (SADC, 2003; Psacharopoulos, 1997).

TVE policy growth and development and economic development have been shown to have a strong link by economists such as Kuznets, Schultz, Sallow and Denison (Katedza, 1987). A number of theories linking TVE policy growth and development and economic development have been proposed, one of the most popular being the economic growth model. Ndlela (1981) and Phimister (1988) propose that few models of development have enjoyed the prestige and influence of the economic growth model. They note that this is in spite of the fact that economic growth models are of relatively recent origin, with most having links to 18<sup>th</sup> century theories of economic progress. Economic growth theories have generally moved from the “Residual” to the “Human Capital”, then to the “Social Capital”, the “Learning Society” and now the “Neo-Liberalism” perspectives (Riddell et al., 1997; Fitzsmons, 1995).

The “Residual Theory” suggests that there is a residual in the growth of the gross national product of a country that is not from the widely used factors of production, suggesting a strong link between TVE policy growth and development and the economic development (Riddell et al., 1997; Katedza, 1987). Examples of rising levels of education and training and related economic development from industrialised countries have been used to support the theory (Katedza, 1987). Nevertheless, the link between TVE policy growth and development

and economic development has been difficult to prove empirically, leading to growing criticisms of the Residual Theory and formulation of the 'Human Capital' Theory.

The Human Capital Theory suggests that the education system, and the patterns within it, can best be understood as investments in increasing economic returns and in enhancing the place of individuals in the competitive labour market (Riddell et al., 1997; Phimister, 1988). The theory views the accumulation of capital as contributing positively towards economic growth, and the improvement of the quality of labour (human capital) is a significant component of capital accumulation. The theory is in favour of effective TVE policy growth and development in order to produce the human capital necessary for economic development. However, the Human Capital Theory has been criticised because of inconclusive evidence from research studies on it.

Criticism of the Human Capital Theory led to the development of the concept of "Social Capital". Katedza (1987) proposes that "Social Capital" is developed through an education and training system that promotes shared values and norms, is transmitted through social structures and culture, and develops trust that allows people to work together to achieve shared objectives. Therefore, the production of social capital involves much more than the production of human capital through the active involvement of the wider community. In this perspective, TVE policy growth and development should best aim at reducing the social gap within individual members of the society, a situation that best promotes sustainable economic development in that society.

However, because of changing work environments and the growing global economy, the concept of a learning society is gaining popularity as striking a balance between the human capital and the social capital perspectives. Riddell et al. (1997) suggest that a learning society is one in which all citizens acquire a high quality general education, appropriate vocational training and a job (or a series of jobs) worthy of a human being, while continuing to participate in education and training throughout their lives. In support of this view, Buckingham & Jones (2001) posit that contemporary capitalism is in important ways, a 'Knowledge Economy' and the world seems to be increasingly becoming capitalist with the fall of the Soviet Union, suggesting an increasing influence for capitalist philosophies. The Learning Society perspective, therefore, places importance on the need for continuous learning within societies as a vehicle for adaptation by a wide section of the society for its continued effective participation in a global economy whose rate of change is ever increasing at a rapid pace. In this perspective, TVE policy growth and development should, therefore, be in a direction that places importance on the need for continuous learning within societies.

Another recent economic development theory is neo-liberalism. Fitzsimons (1995) notes that neo-liberalism is a new theory that emerged in the late 1980s and early 1990s when governments in developed and developing nations made efforts to reduce direct state involvement in education systems. It is seen as a science of economics applied to social and political systems. Belief in this theory led to reforms aimed at reducing the size of the state, resulting in the restructuring of public sector, and focusing initially upon changes to educational administration (Fitzsimons, 1995). These reforms seem to have led to a new fabric of relationships between the state and civil society. This new fabric resulted in a form

of deregulation, privatisation, balanced budgets and the restructuring of the operations of the public sector organs to make them function more like business organisations. The changes are seen as having been driven by neo-liberal theory, including Public Choice Theory, Human Capital Theory and the “New Public Management” (Fitzsimons, 1995).

In view of the above, this study adopted the position that the four theories of economic development were pertinent in analysing TVE policy growth and development. This is because the study’s thesis that a high level of TVE system graduate underutilisation is a consequence of a mismatch between TVE policy growth and development and socio-economic development acknowledges a link between the two. As a nation, Zimbabwe has operated a capitalist economy from colonisation to ten years after independence. Even if the independence government took measures to institute a socialist economy in Zimbabwe, local industry and commerce remained basically capitalist (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991; World Bank, 1991). Economic growth theories are consistent with human capital and modernisation theories and with the mechanism of the capitalist mode of production in Western societies (Finlay et al., 1998; Fitzsimons, 1995). It appears that in Socialist economies, state or collective control over the means and modes of production as well as the allocation system of personnel implies not only greater control over economic growth itself, but also of participation by individuals in it. For example, in Russia and in the People’s Republic of China, education and training are more carefully controlled and monitored by the state than in capitalist countries. In the two countries education and training has been seen as essential for economic growth and has been strongly guided by professional and vocational needs (Finlay, et al., 1998).

#### **2.1.4 Functions of Technical and Vocational Education Policy**

Van Schalkwyk (1993:42-43) proposes a number of important education policy functions. According to him, education policy serves as a point of departure for the public functions of the education system. Applied to TVE policy, this means that policy provides the foundation from which the human resources development system is built. TVE policy serves as a guide to action within the human resources development system. It provides the basis upon which the implementers of the policy act within the system and serves as a model and guide for the design and execution of education and training practice. Thus, TVE policy regulates and directs human resources development practice, and serves as a norm or criterion for testing, evaluating and correcting the practice (Van Schalkwyk, 1993; UNESCO & ILO, 2002).

TVE policy should be formulated and the TVE system administered in support of the general objectives for the educational process as well as for national and, if possible, the regional social and economic requirements for the present and the future. UNESCO and ILO (2002) note that TVE policy should guide the TVE system to contribute to the achievement of societal goals for greater democratisation and social, cultural and economic development, regardless of religion, race and age. It should also lead to an understanding of the scientific and technological aspects of contemporary civilisation in such a way that people comprehend their environment and are capable of acting upon it while taking a critical view of the social, political and environmental implications of scientific and technological change. UNESCO and ILO (2002) further note that TVE policy should empower people to contribute to environmentally sound sustainable development through their occupations and other areas of

their lives. This means that the major result of an appropriate TVE policy growth and development is the creation of a TVE system that is appropriately integrated to the general education system and produces the labour resource needed for sustainable socio-economic development in an ever changing world socio-economic environment. TVE policy should facilitate for the individual's effective participation as a responsible citizen in a democratic society and be an instrument for promoting environmentally friendly sound sustainable endogenous community development (Bennell, et al, 1999; Grey-Johnson, 1990). The growth and development of TVE policy should also incorporate a system of lifelong learning adopted to the needs of the particular country and to worldwide technological developments.

### **2.1.5 Why Technical and Vocational Education Policy Changes**

It is said that policy becomes public if it relates to all the people in a country or community (Nagel, 1980; Jennings, 1977). Nagel (1980) observes that public policies are government decisions with regard to ways of handling various problems that are generally considered to require collective rather than individual action. This suggests that public policy includes what government chooses to do and not to do. TVE policy is part of a country's public policy expressing a government's intentions with regards to human resources development issues (Miller, 1985; Hanekom, 1987; Flower & Flower, 1990). Therefore, as part of public policy, TVE policy should give a set of guidelines, or rules, for education and training activities within the context of a political ideology. The operations of the TVE system are directed by this set of guidelines. The guidelines suggest appropriate processes and procedures for activities related to TVE (Miller, 1985). TVE policy is usually contained in an act of

parliament or other forms of legislation with similar authority. Through the act, government determines the direction and character of the TVE system.

As public policy, TVE policy is directed towards the accomplishment of a predetermined human resource development purpose or goal (Good, 1973; Nagel, 1982; Chivore, 1992; van Schalkwyk, 1993). Thus, TVE policy growth and development must align with identified national human resource requirements basing activities on both the philosophical assumptions and the preferred practices of the influential or dominant individuals or groups within the community or the country, making the policy time specific. Van Schalkwyk (1993) notes that political changes in the country are bound to result in a TVE policy growth and development direction intended to bring the TVE system generally in line with the new political environment rather than with the prevailing, or desired, economic environment. Flower and Flower (1990) and Hanekom (1987) observe that this situations seems more evident in the developing world (such as in African states) than in established democracies in the developed world, mainly because divergence in political views in the developed world tends to be rather small when compared to the differences between political parties in the developing world.

The changing TVE policy growth and development environment led Hanekom (1987) to observe that policy is 'jellylike in nature' because of its being based on fragile compromises between influential groups in that society. The jellylike nature makes TVE policy very kinetic and fragile, presenting a strong challenge on how to stabilise it to policymakers and administrators. This is because, being heavily guided by political opinion, TVE policy

growth and development is seen as occurring in an environment influenced by hypothetical, rather than factual, considerations and the policy is subject to revision, alteration or scraping whenever it is considered politically expedient to do so (Weiss, 1980; Nagel, 1982; Hanekom, 1987). TVE policy tends to change whenever the dominant individuals or groups in a society change and other new individuals or groups take their place. Because TVE policy is derived from subjective, politically based judgments representing only one answer among various alternatives, it tends to be subjected to review as soon as it is made (van Schalkwyk, 1993; Hanekom, 1987). This suggests that in analysing TVE policy growth and development over a period as long as one hundred years, one should expect to see policy changes at national level whenever there was a change in government, or in civic leadership, or within politically influential community groups.

## **2.2 ANALYSING POLICY GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT**

The discussion on TVE policy growth and development above, and the obvious link between it and general education, with economic development, and with the prevailing political environment, leads one to attempt to establish the issues and processes in TVE policy growth and development in a country. The researcher's definition of TVE policy growth and development contains elements of quantitative and qualitative changes within policy. In the definition, growth has connotations that are mainly quantitative and entails the notion of enlargement, expansion, increase, intensification and escalation, while development is chiefly qualitative and is synonymous with socio-economic progress, and system

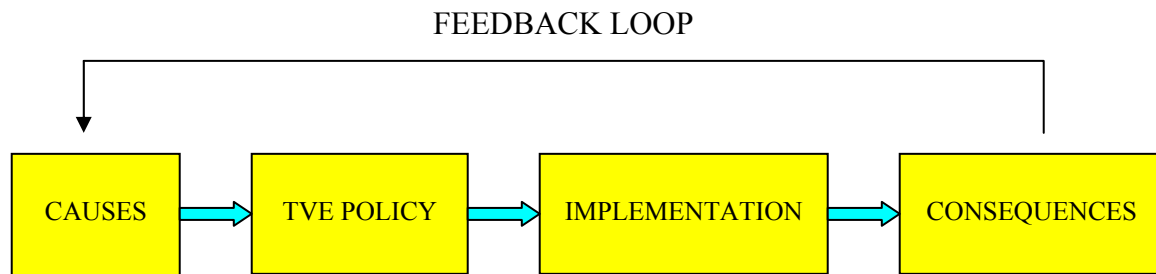
specialisation, advancement and maturity. In the next section, TVE policy growth and development process is discussed.

### **2.2.1 The Policy Growth and Development Cycle**

It has been argued that as people's motives, desires, ideals, outlook and aims change, their TVE policy should also change, leading to policy growth and development. A community's TVE policy, therefore, originates from that community's deepest convictions and outlook on life in general, and the world of work as it relates to economic activities in particular (Katedza, 1987; Hanekom, 1987). These convictions usually translate into new TVE policy in the form of legislation, circulars and instructions. The policy then gives rise to TVE laws, prescriptions, ordinances and rules and regulations that have to be fully understood by those who have the responsibility to implement them. This means that, for effectiveness, TVE policy must be applicable, possible and feasible (van Schalkwyk, 1993; Hanekom, 1987).

TVE policy growth and development, therefore, results from a policy formulation and implementation process involving research, consultation, decision-making, formulation of policy and legislation (van Schalkwyk, 1993; Weiss, 1979; Ball, 1990). The process starts with causes that lead to a formulation of the policy. The causes are generally related to human resource requirements for social and economic activities. The identified human resource needs then lead to the formulation of TVE policy. The policy is implemented, leading to consequences that may meet or fail to meet the identified needs. When evaluated,

the consequences may become causes for a new or revised policy. Figure 2.1 below presents this researcher's illustration of this process.



**Figure 2.1: The Technical and Vocational Education Policy Growth and Development Cycle**

Figure 2.1 presents the TVE policy growth and development processes as proposed by this researcher. Failure to follow this process when coming up with TVE policy has been linked to the policy not producing the desired results (Weiss, 1979; Gaziel & Blass, 1999). The process suggests the involvement in policy formulation of those who have the responsibility to implement it. In addition, adequate resources should be made available for the policy to achieve the desired results. The TVE policy cycle takes a period of about five years in line with recommended curriculum review periods (Weiss, 1979; Foster, 2001).

### **2.2.2 Policy Growth and Development Indicators**

This study is a Critical Analysis of the One Hundred Years of Growth and Development of Technical and Vocational Education Policy in Zimbabwe between the years 1890 and 1990.

Critical analysis is taken to mean the process of first identifying the TVE policy, then the major provisions of the policy before evaluating the underlying assumptions, the actual implementation and the consequences of the policy. This is done with the view of giving an estimation of the policy's growth and development process with respect to quantity, quality, relevancy and consequences, and predicting a future policy direction. TVE policy growth and development analysis is carried out by evaluating this process through indicators. The researcher developed the indicators below from the definitions of the key variables and used them in this study for identifying and evaluating policy growth and development:

- (a) policy was identified in the officially stated position on technical and vocational education activities as expressed in government ordinances, acts of parliament, statutory instruments or circulars from government departments;
- (b) policy growth was evidenced by the policy becoming larger, more numerous or more important as shown by the issuing of new policy guidelines, policy provisions, and areas of activity covered or affected by the policy; and
- (c) policy development was the process in which the policy passed, by degrees, to a more advanced or mature stage as shown by its changing from a simpler to a more complex form, by increasing the system's ability to improve on the relevancy and quality of graduates and by increasing the TVE system's ability to respond to the nation's human resources requirements.

The above indicators were used to analyse TVE policy growth and development. This was in line with the view in which policy growth and development analysis is seen as being

important for guiding policy reforms (McClellan, 1971; Mac Rae & Wilde, 1985; Green, 1994). For example, it has been observed that historical TVE policy growth and development analysis has aided most policy reform initiatives in the developed world (Weiss, 1977; Anderson, 1994). Wilson (1992) notes that every policy reform in the United States of America has been preceded by policy analysis research and a debate of the findings before a new policy is made.

### **2.2.3 Research Findings and Policy Reform**

Weiss (1979) advanced seven models to explain how research should be communicated to aid policy makers, notable among them being the (a) 'engineering model' that presupposes a direct relationship between research and policy; (b) 'political model' that presupposes that research has to support decisions made by politicians; and (c) 'enlightenment model' that emphasises intellectual and conceptual contributions rather than the provision of facts. It seems the view widely shared by politicians, bureaucrats, and scientists alike, implicitly assumes that correct, updated, and extensive information increases the chances to reach better decisions, that is, the probability of fulfilling the stated goals of the policy undertaken will be higher. In this context, the historical methodology has been used extensively in the Zimbabwean situation in studying policy growth and development within the education and training field (for example, by Chivore, 1993; Mungazi, 1993, 1992, 1990; Mumbengegwi, 1989; and Riddell, 1980; Atkinson, 1972). In the studies identified above, the researchers analysed educational policy growth and development over identified periods using information from documents and from interviews with stakeholders. In these studies,

however, a passing glance seems to have been given to TVE policy growth and development, prompting this researcher to attempt to fill the gap. For example, Atkinson's (1972) study of Rhodesian education policy growth and development over a specific period mentions TVE policy while focusing mainly on the general education system. Mumbengegwi (1989) used the historical methodology and studied education policy development in Zimbabwe during the period 1965 to 1985, giving a passing glance to technical and vocational education in his study while the bulk of the thesis was on the growth and development of general education policy. The major current gap in information relates to a single source of comprehensive information on TVE policy growth and development within Zimbabwe over a period of one-hundred years as covered by this study.

However, Zvobgo (1997, 1994) warns that the Zimbabwean policy makers seemed not to utilise the numerous dissertations and theses by Zimbabwean scholars that lay in the libraries of the universities of the world, the sort of research that was suitable to influence educational policies. He observed that the government of Zimbabwe did not demand copies from all its citizens who engage in education and training policy growth and development studies both locally and abroad. In addition, various Zimbabwean Governments have set up committees of inquiry into education and training yet they ignored some of the important recommendations on TVE policy growth and development directions from these committees. For example, the recommendation on TVE policy growth and development from the Education Commissions of 1911, 1925, 1952 and 1962 seem to have been generally ignored, or were implemented long after they were made. The recommendation on the establishment of facilities for technical education for Africans in the reports by the Education Commissions of 1925, 1952

and 1962 were largely ignored. The most recent example is the recommendation on the setting up of a National Training Council, the setting up of a new education structure that vocationalises education and the carrying out of regular labour market research on training to reflect labour market realities from the Nziramasanga Education Commission of 1999 that have not been implemented by the end of the year 2004. Nevertheless, this researcher shall submit a copy of this research report to the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education with the hope that policy makers in the Ministry may utilise the information in it for charting a future idealistic TVE policy growth and development direction.

This study employed the historical policy analysis methodology within Weiss's (1977) three conceptual models mentioned above. This was through the study's desire to provide a direct link between research and policy by making recommendations that may be used to formulate new policy. The study also makes recommendations that support existing policy, for example the establishment of the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education. Finally, the study hopes to make intellectual and conceptual contributions rather than merely present facts. The research procedure is discussed in detail in Chapter 3.

## **2.3 HISTORY OF TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION**

As is common with most social phenomena, formal TVE policy tends to change with time as discussed above. The change results in TVE policy growth and development which depends on a number of factors, the socio-political environment, the level of economic development

of the community and the theoretical model(s) adopted. The discussion below looks at some examples of TVE policy growth and development within various socio-economic settings.

### **2.3.1 The Roots of Policy Growth and Development**

Early forms of TVE systems are found in ancient parent-offspring apprenticeships that are still prevalent in most traditional settings, especially in rural areas. In this setup, the offspring learnt the rudiments of the vocation from the parent, or from other skilled members of the community, generally by pickup methods, involving observation, imitation, and personal initiative (Venn & Marchese, 1965; Fafunwa & Aisiku, 1982). Training periods and the conditions of training varied greatly between vocations and between locations, and the training environment varied from favourable to exploitative (Kelly, 1962; Paulter, 1993). For example, Fafunwa and Aisiku (1982) note that one could take as little as one year and as much as ten years to train and become a traditional healer in Africa. This type of TVE seems to have been suitable for a society whose religious, political, cultural, economic and social institutions were based on permanency. However, changes to TVE systems were inevitable and the rate of change increased with time. With modernisation, the parent-offspring method of vocational preparation seem to have been threatened by urbanisation, specialisation and the spread of technological innovation, leading to TVE policy reforms.

Formal apprenticeship developed with the rise of specialised occupations that required carefully planned and long continuous training (Good, 1960; Paulter, 1993). Good (1960) notes that an example of early formal TVE policy is the Code of Hamurabi written more than

four thousand years ago that had provisions to ensure that skilled artisans taught their skills to the young on the job, indicating that apprenticeship was at an advanced stage both as a customary practice and as a legal institution. Paulter (1993) gives the famous Benedictine Rule governing the training of monks where at least seven hours per day of manual labour was incorporated as another example of early TVE policy. Thus, apprenticeship training and manual labour were built into the foundations for Christianity, giving rise to early forms of TVE policy (Good, 1960; Paulter, 1993; Kelly, 1962). Creating the right conditions for formalised apprenticeship training was, therefore, the earliest form of TVE policy growth and development, suggesting it to be the international foundation for later TVE policy reforms.

### **2.3.2 Vocational Education in Nineteenth Century Europe**

Venn and Marchese (1965) note that at the turn of the nineteenth century in Europe, formal employment had taken over the function of the home with respect to vocational education and training. They give the example of factories that were employing large numbers of workers, and foremen were initially responsible for training. Nevertheless, the foremen themselves also needed training and, as jobs became more specialised, and more and more people required training, the school was seen as the most logical place where training for vocations would take place (Venn & Marchese, 1965). Trade competition among European states led to the realisation that the nations that had better trained workers tended to produce better quality products and services (Smith, 1999).

Vocational education programmes are noted to have began early in the nineteenth century in Prussia and Germany (Venn & Marchese, 1965; Good, 1960). Venn & Marchese (1965) note that the Germans developed one of the earliest dual system of education in which one stream followed the academic route and the other the vocational route. Those following the vocational route then trained in trade schools (called *Technikums*) where they would be trained by artisans employed in industry. This system is said to have produced good quality graduates and their products were very competitive on the market (Wilson, 1990). By the mid nineteenth century, the British, Australians, Swedes, Italians, French and Russians are said to have adopted the German model to their own needs (Good, 1960; Venn & Marchese, 1965). Venn & Marchese (1965) note that, by the end of the nineteenth century, the German *Technikum* was a model for vocational educators around the world. This is in line with this thesis's view that TVE system graduates should effectively contribute towards economic development. TVE policy growth and development in Europe influenced what happened in Africa because of colonisation. The examples of TVE policy growth and development in the United States of America (USA) and in Britain given below provide a basis for comparing with developments in Zimbabwe.

### **2.3.3 Vocational Education in the United States of America**

TVE policy growth and development in the USA has a long history that dates back to the early days of the establishment of settlements by emigrants from Europe more than three hundred years ago. Bierlein (1993) states that in these early settlement days, Christianity played the dominant role in education and training. He observes that the 1830s witnessed a

rise of the 'common school' belief that led to the development of a publicly financed elementary education system for the masses. Smith (1999) notes that this development gave local communities the authority and responsibility for the operation and financing of education and training institutions whereby property taxes became the major means of support. As a result, education and training became available to more of the country's citizens than was the case before, laying the foundations for a strong USA state involvement in human resource development.

In the nineteenth century, manual training and apprenticeship were still the cornerstone of TVE policy in the USA (Smith, 1999; Wilson, 1992). Smith (1999) notes that, even if apprenticeship was the main method of skills training, the rapid changes into industrial type societies in America called for the training of more of the population, placing strong challenges to the traditional apprenticeship method. Wilson (1992) observes that the American Depression of 1892-93 revealed the weaknesses of apprenticeship as a strategy for training the manpower needed for competitiveness in the developing technological society. Thus, the nineteenth century closed with America coming to terms with the realisation that apprenticeship was an ineffective system that could not cope with the rapidly developing industrial technological advances of the nation, calling upon TVE policy to grow and develop to meet the nation's socio-economic challenges.

Before the depression of 1892-93 and at the World's Fair in Paris in 1867, English and American manufacturers had already discovered that their wares were inferior to those produced on the continent of Europe (Good, 1960; Smith, 1999). Smith (1999) observes that

they blamed the education system at secondary school level for continuing with its traditional academic orientation, such as the teaching of Greek and Latin to students. The American Federation for Labour (AFL) that was already organized by 1886, and the American National Association of Manufacturers (NAM) that was formed in 1895 had set themselves to influencing TVE policy growth and development within the country.

John Dewey (1916) was critical of the existing TVE system that seemed to validate class stratification by accepting an educational philosophy of social predestination. Mounting criticism from the associations and others stakeholders led to the passing of the Smith-Hughes Act of 1918 that provided Federal support for vocational education for the first time (Drost, 1967; Smith, 1999; Hyslop-Margison; 2001). The Act specified particular vocational programmes, created administrative procedures, and prescribed skills-based training programmes for instruction in agriculture, trade and industries, and home economics (Hyslop-Margison, 2001; Bierlein, 1993). The major weakness of the Smith-Hughes Act of 1918 was, however, that the programmes included in it were not compulsory, leading to its criticism. Nevertheless, the Act brought the Federal Government into an alliance with the states to offer free vocational education to students attending secondary school, to older persons not attending secondary school, and even to persons already in the workforce (Venn & Marchese, 1965). These were the beginnings of a strong school or college based TVE system in the United States of America.

The depression era of 1930 to 1941 and the second World War and its aftermath led to various socio- economic challenges that prompted yet another major round of debate leading

to USA TVE policy growth and development. In 1943, the National Education Association (NEA) produced its 42<sup>nd</sup> yearbook that featured vocational education as the topic of greatest importance in American schools (Smith, 1999). The following year, the NEA's Education Policies Commission introduced *Education for ALL American Youth*, a programme that advocated a full range of vocational education and training to prepare high school students for perceived labour force needs (Hyslop-Margison, 2001).

Smith (1999) notes that the launching of the Russian satellite Sputnik in 1957 sparked yet another round of heated debate on TVE policy in America. The debate ranged on until the second legislation affecting vocation education, the Vocational Education Act of 1963, was passed into law. Tanner and Tanner (1980) suggest that the Act was the single most influential piece of vocational education legislation since the Smith-Hughes Act of 1918. This is mainly because of its inclusion of a wider range of players, leading to the involvement of the majority of the target population.

The Manpower Development and Training Act of 1962 created the first major federal job training programme initiated at national level. The programme was followed by another under the Economic Opportunity Act of 1964 (the Job Corps Programme) and then the Work Incentive Programme (WIN) of 1967, that provided training to welfare recipients (Smith, 1999). Nevertheless, these various acts presented a disjointed TVE policy within the nation and the first attempt at consolidating TVE policy in the USA was through the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973, that transformed a number of population specific job training programmes into block grants, which were then given to the states (Hyslop-

Margison, 2001). The 1973 Act devolved the responsibilities for job training to the states and localities. The process of devolving job training responsibilities to the states was consolidated by the Job Training Partnership Act of 1982 that replaced the Comprehensive Employment and Training Act of 1973. One of the most recent TVE policy in the USA is the Workforce Investment Act of 1998, which became from 1 July 2001, that established a national workforce preparation and employment system to meet the needs of business, job seekers and those who want to further their carriers (United States Department of Labor, 2001). This Act suggests a shift towards better coordination and focus in TVE policy, leading to a better utilization of human resource.

The above discussion shows that TVE policy growth and development in America was characterized by increases in the provisions for education and training activities, the inclusions of local government, central government and of industry as a key players in TVE programmes coordinated at national level, and the funding of TVE activities by the federal government. Quantitative aspects of USA TVE policy growth and development included the inclusion of key players and involvement of the federal government in TVE activities and institutional or organizational level, while qualitative aspects included making TVE activities relate to the requirements of the job market, and the consolidation of federal funded job training programmes to remove duplication and optimize utilization of education and training resources. The major triggers for TVE policy growth and development in the USA seem to have been economic performance and fluctuating levels of employment.

### **2.3.4 Vocational Education in the United Kingdom**

Traditional apprenticeship and technical training in schools and colleges seem to have been the cornerstone of TVE policy in the United Kingdom (UK). Kelly (1962) observes that the apprenticeship system has a very long history dating back to the passing of the Statute of Artificers of 1564 that can be considered the first formal TVE Policy statement in England (Kelly, 1972; Good, 1960). This inaugural statute sought to regulate the training of artisans through laying down conditions under which the training could be done.

Within the schools system, education and training in the UK started from uncoordinated private enterprise then gradually became government controlled through local authorities. Voluntary societies, chiefly made up of religious bodies and the rich, were the main providers with sons of wealthy parents being sent to expensive public school in which the curriculum was dominated by Greek and Latin (Good, 1960; Ensor, 1968). However, the education received at non-conformist schools was more closely linked to the world of work and included subjects such as science and accountancy. A government Privy Council Committee was formed in 1839 to administer grants to the voluntary societies, thus gaining supervisory powers. To assist the Privy Council, an Education Department was set up in 1856. Ensor (1968) suggests that the powers of the Education Department were enhanced by the Elementary Education Act of 1870, that divided the country into about 2500 school districts, set up School Boards with powers to build new schools and make their own by-laws, thus creating healthy competition in education and training between local authorities.

The 1870 Act was followed by the Education Act of 1880 that made attendance at school compulsory for children up to the age of 10 (Ensor, 1968). Good (1960) states that the Privy Council Committee was replaced by a Board of Education in 1899, whose work, particularly in secondary education, was extended by the Education Act of 1902 and subsequent legislation. The 1902 Act abolished all 2568 School Boards and handed over their duties to local borough or county councils. These new Local Education Authorities (LEAs) were given powers to establish new secondary and technical schools as well as developing the existing education and training system. The Education Act of 1918 increased central grants to at least fifty percent of expenditure by the LEAs. A Ministry of Education replaced the Board of Education through the Education Act of 1944 (Wilson, 1992; Ensor, 1968). The Act envisaged education as a continuing process and established the principle of secondary education for all, and the school leaving age was increased to 16. The permissive powers of local authorities were replaced by compulsory powers (Ensor, 1968; Good, 1960).

Kelly (1962) and Good (1960) observe that criticism of the employability skills of school graduates and the education of workers during the eighteenth century led to the mechanics institute movement. By 1850, there were 622 Mechanics Institutes in England and Wales with over 600,000 members (Ensor, 1968; Tylecote, 1957). The term 'mechanic' was used to refer to artisans of all trades who were involved in the various industries. However, the institutes eventually passed from the mechanics to the middle class, partly because few artisans had a good elementary education and partly because too few found direct use for a knowledge of science (Wilson, 1992; Ensor, 1968; Kelly, 1962). Ensor (1968) notes that the mechanics institute movement led to the development of national examination systems for

vocational and technical areas. The examination systems thus developed were the College of Preceptors founded in 1853, the Society of Arts in 1856-7, and state examinations from 1859 onwards. Wilson (1992) observes that the City and Guilds of London Institute took over from the Society of Arts in 1879.

By 1880, the existing TVE institutions in the United Kingdom were being criticised for not responding to individual and society's needs (Ensor, 1968; Kelly, 1962). Ensor (1968) notes that these criticisms led to the passing of the Technical Instruction Act of 1889 that established a local authority for technical education (the county, or county borough, council), and it removed the requirement in the previous legislation for payment of grants to 'industrial classes' only, a term that seemed to exclude most of the future masters and managers of factories (Wilson, 1992; Ensor, 1968). The 1889 Act empowered the councils to levy industry and to raise large sums of money through loans for new buildings, leading to the expansion of the TVE system in most metropolises. At that time, general education was under the Department of Education and TVE examinations were under the Science and Art Department and the two departments were united in 1899 and this was legalised by a 1902 Act (Wilson, 1992; Ensor, 1968).

Wilson (1992) notes that, while the government had been responsible for funding post secondary education, the funding of TVE after secondary education was the responsibility of employers up to 1964. The Industrial Training Act of 1964 is seen as being the first major government intervention in the training sector as the British government reversed long-standing laissez-faire policies (Kelly, 1962; Wilson, 1992). The Act created 24 Industrial

Training Boards (ITBs) in a variety of industrial and service sectors. The Employment and Training Act of 1973 introduced central co-ordination and planning of labour force policy, creating the Manpower Services Commission (MSC). The MSC was created to co-ordinate, and later replace the ITBs. The creation of the MSC resulted in the transfer of training administration and operating costs from industry to the government. Nevertheless, economic restructuring of the Thatcher Government during the mid 1970s led to rising unemployment and a decline in industrial training (Wilson, 1992; Ainley and Green, 1996). By the late 1970s, MSC expenditure seems to have shifted from skill training to social programmes with training content. The Employment Act of 1987 reorganised the MSC, renaming it the Training Commission, and effectively dismantled it. With that move, the responsibility for the financing of training was shifted from government back to the employers. The Education Act of 1988 and the Further and Higher Education Act of 1992 are seen as having marked a shift in 'knowledge policy' in the United Kingdom (Ainley and Green; 1996). This is because the previous policy had been based upon imitation of Germany's 'dual policy' of education and training, especially during the days of the MSC. Under this policy, first the Youth Opportunities Programme (YOP) in 1978, and then the Youth Training Scheme (YTS) in 1983, were introduced to replace the apprenticeships that had virtually disappeared with the collapse of manufacturing industry after the end of the long boom in 1973. The current industry led National Vocational Competencies and Qualifications (NVCQs) framework then replaced these schemes. The NVCQ set up is based on the North American model (Ainley and Green, 1996). This seems to have signalled the death of traditional apprenticeship training in the UK, with the major thrust now being on college diplomas and degrees.

The above discussion shows that TVE policy growth and development in the UK occurred in a manner different to what took place in the USA. Even if traditional apprenticeship was the original cornerstone of TVE policy growth and development in both countries, the USA abandoned the apprenticeship system much earlier than the UK. However, the TVE policy growth and development in both countries was linked to identified deficiencies in the human resources skills needed for socio-economic prosperity. The TVE policy reforms that occurred in both countries seem to have been aimed at matching TVE policy growth and development with economic development. This is because the policy growth and development was in response to human resources requirements for sustainable economic development.

## **2.4 PRE-COLONIAL AFRICA'S POLICIES**

Bennell (1991), the World Bank (1989) and Fafunwa & Aisiku (1982) note that African societies have a long and rich history of education and training. Functionality and practical application were the cornerstone of traditional African technical and vocational skills development. Whatever was learnt was seen as being practical and useful for the individual's role within the society. Education and training was noted to have been an ongoing concern from early childhood to until one's passing on to the spiritual world. For example, Murphree, Cheater, Dorsey & Mothobi (1975) suggest that the focus of the informal pre-colonial TVE policy in Zimbabwe was subsistence agriculture, with an emphasis on cattle keeping. Division of labour was simple rather than complex and apprenticeship was the main method of training. The Informal TVE policy for these traditional groups was training using an apprenticeship mode and skills were passed from parent to offspring, or from a

craftsperson to the apprentice. In Zimbabwe, the underlying philosophies in traditional TVE were “*Hunhu/Ubuntu*” and “*Umhizha*”. *Hunhu/Ubuntu* focused on building a unique African identity, and *Umhizha* focused on developing one’s skills to the highest possible level while showing love and pride in one’s creations and products (Government of Zimbabwe, 1999; Chigwedere, 1996). This traditional TVE policy grew and developed with time for it to be evident in present day Africa. An element of this traditional TVE still exists in African countries today, especially in the areas such as traditional medicine, traditional arts and crafts and blacksmithing (Riddell, 1980; Mungazi, 1990 & 1993). One can conclude, therefore, that the TVE policy growth and development that occurred before colonisation was in line with the then prevailing economic and social activities, leading to a reasonable degree of social, economic and military success for the indigenous African peoples.

## **2.5 COLONIAL AFRICA’S POLICIES**

Colonisation refers to the occupation of territories by foreigners, and, in this study, it specifically refers to the process by which Britain occupied Zimbabwe and set up Anglo-Saxon institutions and culture. Map I on Page 20 shows the extent of colonial influence on the continent of Africa during the nineteenth century, and the other countries that share a common colonial history with Zimbabwe. Colonial TVE policy refers to the policy for the education and training provided to Africans during the rule by foreigners from outside Africa. In most parts of Africa, the policy started with the rule by Arabs, followed by either the Portuguese, French, Germans, or the British (Batey, 1955; Fafunwa & Aisiku, 1982).

Colonial powers began their colonisation by introducing into these countries a new range of economic activity that needed workers with a certain new level of education (Lauglo & Lillis, 1988; Mungazi, 1990). The activities included the commercialisation of some of the traditional agricultural crops for export, the establishment of mining ventures in areas where valuable mineral resources existed or some other activity that suited the colonisers' interests. The colonisers also put in place TVE policies that sought to groom a group of loyal "comprador elites" to hold key administrative and supervisory positions for a minority selected from the locals (Lauglo & Lillis, 1988).

Bacchus (in Lauglo & Lillis, 1988) suggests that the 1847 memorandum by Sir James Shuttleworth on education in the West Indies formulated the roots of the British Government's education and training policy for its colonies. This was later reinforced by the adoption of the Educational Policy for British Tropical Africa issued in 1925 that required the teaching of practical subjects in schools in the colonies. The 1925 policy was influenced by the recommendations of the 1923 to 1924 Phelps-Stokes Fund sponsored Commission on African Education. These changes resulted in TVE policy growth and development, regardless of Fafunwa and Aisiku's (1982) suggestion that this policy was not backed in practice, leading to its failure. For example, it is observe that in Sierra Leone it failed as early as in 1926 when the people there carried on preferring classics literary academic education instead of TVE (Bacchus, 1988; Fafunwa & Aisiku, 1982).

Colonial TVE policy was in line with the policy of the European missionaries who were already active in most parts of the continent when colonisation took place at a large scale

after the Berlin Conference of 1870 (Fafunwa & Aisiku, 1982). Missionaries were providing a limited amount of TVE within their mission settlements since their education focused on the teaching of the Africans how to read and write so that they could read the Bible and some would become clerks, secretaries and preachers. The limited amount of TVE provided by the missionaries was within the Liberal philosophy and focused on home craft skills, such as building, carpentry and tailoring. In the face of criticism of missionary education by progressive thinkers within and outside the colonies, the colonialists became involved in the limited provision of TVE to the indigenous Africans, especially after the Second-World War in which African soldiers fought together with European soldiers (Fafunwa & Aisiku, 1982). However, the changes seem to have just shifted the emphasis of education and not the aim. This was because separate provisions for the indigenous locals and for the settlers were generally maintained within colonial education and training systems up to the attainment of political independence by the colonies.

Fafunwa and Aisiku (1982) note that colonial education was characterised by lack of coordination, especially during the early colonial period. This lack of co-ordination was evident within the colonies and within the African continent. For example, each colonial power imposed its own system of education on the colony, regardless of what was happening next door. Even if transforming the lives of the locals through their adoption of foreign cultures was the common aim of colonial education and training, wide differences were evident from country to country, and between schools and colleges supported by different missionaries within one country (Fafunwa & Aisiku, 1982; Mumbwengegwi, 1986). For example, the French focused on “Frenchising” the Africans through a policy of assimilation

and association that made education in their colonies a replica of the education system in France. The British were interested in establishing Anglo Saxon systems in the colonies, with the TVE systems in the colonies seemingly based on policies that were replicas, or were similar, to those in Britain.

Colonial administrations in general tended to provide to the locals education and training that was not aimed at benefiting them within their culture. The curriculum was very narrow and was aimed at placing the African in auxiliary positions (Fafunwa & Aisiku, 1982; Bacchus, 1988). This means that colonial TVE policy grew and developed in a direction that was not meant to be appropriate for the needs of indigenous Africans, but was aimed at placing them in sub-ordinate roles in the formal employment sector. In comparison, TVE policy for colonialists' children in Africa (including Indians and Coloureds) grew and developed in a direction aimed at providing a superior system aimed at preparing them into managerial positions in the public sector, and in commerce and industry (Fafunwa & Aisiku, 1982; Riddell, 1980; Mungazi, 1990). This led to TVE policy growth and development up to independence that facilitated separate and distinct TVE systems, a superior one for the settlers' children, including those for Indians and Coloureds, and an inferior one for the Africans, prompting the Africans to fight for independence to correct the imbalances.

## **2.6 POST-COLONIAL AFRICA'S POLICIES**

Saunders and Sambili (1995) argue that the equitable distribution of educational opportunities was core to most, if not all, independence struggles in Africa. The failure to

have full access to the education and training system curtailed the Africans' chances of leading a life similar, or equal, to that of the colonialists. Since they had very limited access to TVE during colonial rule, most Africans found themselves failing to access gainful employment and high paying jobs (Atchoarena, 1996; Fafunwa & Aisiku, 1982). This led to a situation where there were widespread policy changes with the attainment of independence by most African governments as they endeavoured to uplift the lives of their people. Thus, TVE policy growth and development was linked to economic development.

### **2.6.1 Trends Soon After Independent**

At independence, the majority rule governments that came into power in African countries acknowledged that colonial systems had natured a TVE policy growth and development that resulted in TVE systems that were inappropriate to the needs of the Africans. Most independent governments then embarked on TVE policy reforms aimed at correcting the imbalances created by colonial regimes (Atchoarena, 1996; Zvodgo, 1994; Fafunwa & Aisiku, 1982). As a solution, most newly independent majority rule governments adopted nationalist, socialist and pan-Africanist policies and made education and training a human right. Atchoarena (1996) notes that the resultant TVE policy was meant to be people centred, seeking to give power to the people by removing all forms of discrimination of the colonial era, and by increasing access into, and the output of the TVE system.

Generally, newly independent governments invested heavily in TVE systems as a way of filling the gaps left by fleeing skilled whites. The heavy investment was also aimed at

correcting the imbalances of the past and bringing indigenous blacks into the mainstream of economic activities. Atchoarena (1996) argues that in spite of the relatively heavy expenditure on TVE systems by African governments, clear evidence of the return on investment was lacking. Saunders & Sambili (1995) note that the educational reforms and the qualifications attached to them were expanded more for political and cultural reasons than for functional propriety. The expansion in post-colonial TVE systems resulted in the overproduction of graduates and rising unemployment (Riddell, et al., 1997; Bennell, 1991). This rapid expansion of the TVE systems in newly independent African countries seems to have resulted in the production of a huge resource of a young trained indigenous people and the rapid Africanisation of key positions in the public service, commerce and industry, creating a generally young establishment through to the highest positions. Bennell (1991) notes that this was more evident in the public sector than in commerce and industry.

However, the long-term effect of this situation seems to have been that many young Africans reached the highest positions of service quickly, so that prospects of promotion were reduced or blocked for those that entered the race a little later. For example, this situation was evident only a few years after independence in Kenya, Zimbabwe, Ghana and many other African countries (Zvobgo, 1997; Saunders & Sambili, 1995; Chivore, 1992). Makau (1985) and Hughes and Mwiria (in Saunders & Sambili, 1995) have suggested that there now exists a syndrome characterising the post-independence period to date in which the number of educated aspirants for employment in the formal sector consistently outstrip the capacity of the sector to create real opportunities. These rising levels of unemployment led to an exodus to developed countries by the graduates of TVE systems in Africa and presented very strong

challenges to African governments. For example, Zimbabwe's National Economic Consultative Forum estimated that nearly one-quarter of Zimbabwe's population had emigrated in search of greener pastures by the end of the year 2003 (National Economic Consultative Forum, 2004). It was clear that there were more African TVE system graduates in the Diaspora than within the continent of Africa. The continent was facing a need for TVE policy growth and development to address the challenges of appropriateness and relevancy of local TVE systems in order to utilise investments in human capital.

The above discussion suggests, therefore, that TVE policy growth and development after political independence in most African states has been in response to perceived imbalances within colonial TVE systems. The resultant post independence TVE policy growth and development tended to be in response to calls for a more people oriented policy through the opening up of opportunities that had been denied to the local indigenous Africans and women. The implementation of the policy reforms enjoyed considerable support from donors, such as the European Union, the Canadian Development Agency (CIDA), the United States Development Aid (USAID), the World Bank and a hoard of Non Governmental Organisations (NGOs) during the early stages of independence. However, this support has tended to wane with time, and resource allocations to the TVE systems declined, leading to an apparent compromise in the quality of service from the systems. It appeared the close of the twentieth century was the time for further TVE policy reform, as acknowledged by the African Union, COMESA and the World Bank. The reform should have been aimed at directing TVE policy growth and development towards addressing the individual, as well as the regional, needs of the African labour markets.

## **2.7 POLICY CHALLENGES FOR AFRICAN COUNTRIES**

By the end of the 1990s, TVE systems in developing countries (especially in Africa) had to respond to the challenges of excessive rigidity, reduced levels of training resources (especially financial allocations from central government), poor teaching quality, isolation from industry and low external efficiency (World Bank, 1999; Atchoarena, 1996; Bennell, 1991). Atchoarena (1996) notes that shrinking donor support and government budgets were leading to a marked deterioration of TVE systems, while privatisation and restructuring of large portions of industry tended to increase unemployment and push a growing part of the urban labour force towards the informal sector. The problem was evidenced by a large number of system graduates failing to be gainfully employed within the formal sector. This means that the informal sector was playing an ever-increasing role in African economies yet the TVE systems had not prepared most of the graduates for this kind of environment (Bennell, et al., 1999; Mandebvu, 1994).

TVE policy and practices at political independence in former colonies discussed above suggests the adoption of the social-demand approach. The philosophy within this approach is the provision of access to the TVE system to all who wish to enroll and have a general ability to do so. Thus, this model is concerned with the adequate supply of TVE in a given society (World Bank, 1989; Bennell, et al., 1999). Since the late 1980s, the World Bank has, however, recommended a shift from supply-driven to demand-driven TVE which is seen as responding more efficiently and effectively to the needs of both individuals and enterprises and other organisations (World Bank, 1995; UNESCO & ILO, 2002). The challenge for post

independence governments now seems to be to move from policies dominated by social and supply objectives, and by programmes funded and provided by government, to policies and programmes that respond to market forces and promote employer and private training. Such a move should result in TVE policy growth and development in a direction aimed at complementing and supporting socio-economic reforms. In addition to a shift from public funding of TVE to on-the-job enterprise training, the World Bank (1995; p.108) proposed TVE reform packages to include a wider participation in TVE activities by all, especially by disadvantaged groups such as labour intensive exporters, small-scale enterprises, the poor, and women. The Bank is advocating for TVE that places greater emphasis on improvements in training quality rather than quantity. In line with the suggested direction for TVE policy growth and development in Africa, and since the early 1980s, World Bank support for post-secondary TVE has fallen from about twenty percent of total lending to the education sector to less than five percent (Bennell et al., 1999). This fall in donor support has negatively affected the operation of tertiary institutions in Africa (Atchoarena, 1996; Bennell, 1991). It is obvious, then, that TVE policy in African countries is being encouraged to grow and develop in response to these challenges that include better utilization of system graduates, reduced donor support and falling government resource allocations.

## **2.8 COMPARING WESTERN AND AFRICAN POLICIES**

TVE policy growth and development in western developed nations seems to have been influenced by modernisation theories, especially the Human Capital theory as evidenced by a desire to enhance the standard of living of the majority of the people through improved

economic performance at global level (Ainley & Green, 1996; Wilson, 1992; Torres, 1991). Wilson (1992) notes that, in the United States of America, the policy makers' concerns were largely to do with the availability of useful work related skills in the majority of citizens through focused state involvement in TVE activities. TVE policy in western nations seems to have generally grown and developed from heavy reliance on the traditional apprenticeship system to competency passed models that aim at developing a broad range of skills within the high school system, then the skills are then refined or further developed at tertiary level. The TVE policy growth and development in Western societies has led to elaborate education and training systems for workers that ensure a sustained upgrading of skills and the continued learning of new skills as required by the ever changing work environment (Smith, 1999; Hyslop-Margison, 2001).

In comparison, TVE policy growth and development in developing African countries has been influence by the need to mould unity, especially with respect to the issues of racial discrimination and access (Fafunwa & Aisiku, 1982; Atchoarena, 1996). Atchoarena (1996) notes that the increased access to the TVE system has, however, not been met by similar increases in the availability of jobs in the formal job market, resulting in high unemployment levels and graduate emigration to more active economies.

TVE policy growth and development in African countries generally seems not to have taken a direction that addresses the needs of the local job markets, tending to maintain the curricula of colonial times. Furthermore, TVE policy growth and development in African countries seems not to have benefited from available TVE policy growth and development analysis

research, even if a considerable amount of this research has been carried out on African TVE systems. This suggests that research on the TVE policy growth and development seems to play a more significant role in guiding policy formulation by policy makers in Western nations than in African countries. For example, policy makers in the United States of America, United Kingdom and Japan have relied on research for reviewing and improving on policy (Borg & Gall, 1989). Even if research on the financing of technical and vocational education in Sub-Saharan Africa by the World Bank led to the review of the Bank's funding policy for TVE programmes in these Africa countries, not much use of research has been implemented across the board in Africa (World Bank, 1990; Atchoarena, 1996). The World Bank sponsored education and training research in Kenya and Nigeria, observing that the countries had serious manpower constraints that impinged negatively on development, leading to the Bank sponsoring the 'Return to the Basics' programme (Katedza, 1987, p.36). The Organisation for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD) has carried out studies in member countries and presented TVE policy reform proposals for member states. For example, the research by the OECD led to large scale and widespread reform and TVE policy growth and development in member countries in the mid 1990s (Levin, 1997; Dwyer and Wyn, 1998). The development of post compulsory education TVE policy in Australia from the early 1980s seems to have been influenced in its beginnings by major OECD reports on youth policy, such as OECD/CETI 1983 and OECD 1984 (Gleeson, 1995; Dwyer & Wynn, 1998). Nwagwu (1998) notes that, in Nigeria, the National Policy on Education that was revised in 1981 marked a radical departure from the inherent British system to the American system of education in response to research having identified inherent weakness in the former system. In a similar manner, the European Union (EU) has produced White Papers

that have highlighted the necessity for increased investment in education and training as a strategy for improved economic performance (Heraty, et al., 2002). The EU has put in place such programmes as Leonardo Da Vinci, Socrates, NOW (New Opportunities for Women) and ADAPT that aim at aiding member states in coming up with new TVE policies that focus on improved economic performance (Lauglo & Lillis, 1988; Heraty, et al., 2000).

The study of TVE policy growth and development seems to have been used in many countries to aid policy makers in coming up with new more focused and effective policies. For example, in his analysis of the expansion of technical education and training in Hertfordshire in the United Kingdom during the 1920s and 1930s, Parker (1995) showed that a well planned and focused TVE policy growth and development contributes positively towards economic growth. In that study, a clear and focused TVE policy was seen as critical for national economic growth and development to take place. Borg & Gall (1989) propose that by studying past educational policies in Japan, Beauchamp provided a strong basis for understanding that country's present problems in education and the possible direction for reform. Weiss (1989) and Wilson (1992) note that every TVE policy growth and development initiative in the United States of America has been preceded by research and a strong national debate on the research's findings.

It is in view of the above that this researcher undertook the study of TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe over a period of one hundred years. This study, therefore, should provide useful information for understanding current TVE policy related problems being

experienced by the country. The study should lead to an ideal TVE policy growth and development direction within the country and other Sub-Saharan countries.

## **2.9 THE FUTURE FOR POLICY**

Gow and McDonald (2000) posit that traditional organisational theory is embedded in the three fundamental notions of administrative control over employees, development of long-term employment relationships and physical proximity between organisations and workers. In this set up, the employees' task has been to do what they are told, no more and no less as popularised by Frederick Taylor and his Scientific Management Theory. In view of this way of thinking by management, TVE policies of the past (especially traditional apprenticeships) seemed to have focused on the production of a narrow range of skills for specific occupations. Stasz (1997) suggested that changes in the modern workplace, brought about by the technological and management innovations and by increased global competition, raised many concerns about the adequacy of workforce skills that existed then. This led to the search for an ideal range of work skills that today's workforce requires for success in this new environment.

### **2.9.1 The Worker of the 1980s and Beyond**

It appears that breakthroughs in information systems, global competition and escalating interdependence between organisations and among people created some new fundamental requirements on employees of the 1980s and those of the future. From about the mid 1980's

onwards, traditional organisational structures began disappearing with the destruction of hierarchies and emergence of lateral structures, reflecting a shift from job descriptions and boss-subordinate relations determining how work is done (Gow & McDonald, 2000; Psacharopoulos, 1997). Reduced management hierarchies meant fewer opportunities for upward mobility for the worker. Stasz (1999) notes that more and more employees were made partners, with a share in ownership and participation in profit sharing. This suggested that future organisations were likely to be flatter with fewer levels of management than was currently the case. Such future organisations will give rise to increasing use of teams, where co-workers will be increasingly dependent on skills and abilities of one another to perform the collective task (Foster, 2001; Stasz, 1999). In this situation, most of today's and tomorrow's workers are being called upon to own the objectives they pursue as a team and to develop genuine responsibility for each other's performance. This means that monetary rewards are more likely to be determined by team performance. Such an arrangement gives employees greater autonomy, skill variety, task identity and satisfaction, and ultimately create opportunities for career development (Gow & McDonald, 2000; Foster, 2000).

In view of the above, the workplace of the future is likely to be made up of workers who have no particular skill based definition (Dunne, Bennett & Carre, 1997; Gleeson, 1995). This calls for a TVE policy growth and development that results in graduates of TVE systems being equipped with a wider range of skills than is the case in most exiting systems. Today's worker and that of the future will have to be multi-skilled. They should be able to move from job to job with relative ease. Gleeson (1997) suggests that the best worker of today and that of the future may be a sheet-metal worker in the morning, a plumber in the

afternoon, a carpenter tomorrow, without ever being a sheet-metal worker, a plumber or a carpenter. This means that the social contract between employees and employers should entail employees managing their careers as though they were self-employed (Gow & McDonald, 2000). In this new environment, TVE policy growth and development is best in the direction aimed at producing a multi-skilled worker who may specialise as the need arises, but has to be an active learner throughout the working life.

### **2.9.2 The Generic Skills for the Worker of 1980 and Beyond**

It has been suggested that the workforce of the 1980s and beyond needed the ‘Generic Skills’ of problem solving, teamwork, communication and work related attitudes (Gow and McDonald, 2000; Stasz, 1997). Stasz (1997:207) suggests that, towards the end of the twentieth century, employees were shown to need the following skills:

- (a) high capacity for abstract, conceptual thinking;
- (b) the ability to apply that capacity effectively to complex real world problems that may change as jobs evolve;
- (c) the ability to communicate with work groups, on highly technical topics, and with computer based media; and
- (d) the ability to work well with others as well as independently, with relatively little supervision.

Also referred to as ‘core skills’ in England and Scotland, ‘essential skills’ in New Zealand, and ‘key competencies’ in Australia, these new skills were given considerable attention in the developed world (Stasz, 1997; Gow and McDonald, 2000). Gow and McDonald, (2000) refer to the additional knowledge, skills and attitudes needed by the workforce of today and tomorrow as ‘virtual attributes’. These additional job skills are across jobs and are necessary in employees for organisational competitiveness in the twenty-first century. Torres (1991) contents that even if the majority of workers in Third World societies worked in the informal sector performing manual jobs, the need for lifelong education for them was equally important as for workers in developed economies, advocating for the application of modernisation and human capital theories in these developing economies. Lifelong learning is seen as the solution for the upgrading of skills in workers and the development of new skills required for competitiveness in a fast changing world of work environment. Future TVE policy is being called upon to create an environment conducive for the development of these generic skills in the labourforce for it to be competitive in a global village now characterised by a stronger global interdependence and rapid technological change.

## **2.10 SUMMARY**

Having discussed the meaning of technical and vocational education and its link with general education and economic development, this Chapter has shown that the major issues with respect to TVE policy growth and development relate to the changes that occur within the TVE policy framework. These changes tend to be related to the theories and philosophies of those with the responsibility for formulating and implementing the policy. The TVE policy

growth and development process has been shown to be cyclic, moving from causes, to policy formulation, to implementation and consequences. In most cases, the consequences become cause for policy review, leading to further policy growth and development. An ideal TVE policy growth and development should produce graduates with the requisite additional skills for competitiveness in the new millennium economic environment. Thus, TVE policy growth and development is best in the direction aimed at producing a multi-skilled worker who may specialise as the need arises, but has to be an active learner throughout the working life. In view of this, the next chapter will discuss the methodology that was used in determining whether TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe has been in a direction suggesting a bright future for the country.

## **CHAPTER 3**

### **RESEARCH DESIGN AND METHODOLOGY**

#### **3.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter discusses the methodology that was used in this analysis of TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe during the period 1890 to 1990. The discussion suggests that the historical methodology that was used was most appropriate. This is in view of the popularity and appropriateness of the methodology as revealed in Chapter 2 through examples of its use by researchers such as Mungazi (1992), Mumbengegwi (1986), Matshazi (1986), Weiss (1977), and Atkinson (1972). The methodology utilises data from historical sources that include manuscripts, ordinances, acts of parliament, and other government publications, official correspondences and stakeholders. For this study, the documentary sources were found in libraries and government departments in Zimbabwe and in libraries in the United Kingdom. Other sources of information were publications by researchers and authors on the history of education and training in Zimbabwe. The framework that was used for analysing and interpreting the data that were collected is presented. The chapter concludes that the historical methodology was most appropriate for identifying the significant landmarks in TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe, and for understanding its current state with a view to recommend an appropriate direction for its future growth and development.

### **3.1 THE METHODOLOGY**

This research on TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe during the period 1890 to 1990 was a purposeful inquiry aimed at extending the frontiers of knowledge. In carrying out the research, to specific questions that guided the inquiry were sought. Methodology refers to more than simply the methods by which data were gathered and analysed for the research. Kalpan, in Robinson (1993), suggests that methodology means “the study – the description, the explanation and the justification – of methods, and not the methods themselves”. This means that methodology refers to the overall strategy that was employed and has a bearing on the research’s contribution to knowledge. The methodology was, therefore, the overall configuration of the piece of research with respect to what kind of evidence (data) were gathered from where, and how were such data interpreted in order to provide good answers to the research questions (Mwiria & Wamahiu, 1995; Robinson, 1993). In this study, the methodology was a combination of the historical and survey methodologies. Research methodologies are grouped in what are called ‘paradigms’, and the paradigm adopted for this study was the ‘qualitative paradigm’.

#### **3.1.1 Adoption of the Qualitative Paradigm**

In choosing a methodology, a researcher adopts a philosophical position and usually employs methodologies specific to a particular school of thought, or paradigm (Leedy, 1978; Mouly, 1978; Magagula, 1996; Nyawaranda, 2003). The term ‘paradigm’ came into use among scientist in the early 1960s, particularly through the work of Thomas Kuhn (Burrell &

Morgan, 2000). Kuhn (1970) proposed that a paradigm is taken to mean the entire constellation of beliefs, values, and techniques shared by members of a given scientific community. This makes a paradigm a theoretical orientation or theoretical perspective governing the way one looks at the world, and the assumptions one makes about what is important and what is 'true' or 'real'. A paradigm is, therefore, a loose collection of assumptions, concepts, or propositions that orient thinking and research (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992; Magagula, 1996; Burrell & Morgan, 2000).

The two main paradigms in research are the 'quantitative paradigm' and the 'qualitative paradigm' (Sifuna, 1995; Magagula, 1996; Nyawaranda, 2003). The key idea of the quantitative paradigm is that the social world exists externally, and that its properties should be measured through objective methods rather than subjectively through sensation, reflection or intuition. This paradigm values knowledge arrived at through controlled situations (such as laboratory experiments) that can be reproduced or repeated to give similar results. Methodologies within this paradigm have been in use by scientists for over one-hundred-and-fifty years and have greatly contributed to the extension of knowledge (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992; Magagula, 1996).

Magagula (1996) notes that criticism of the quantitative paradigm, especially by social scientists, led to the development of the qualitative paradigm during the last sixty years or so. The qualitative paradigm, though, did not develop from the quantitative paradigm, but emerged as a distinct discipline influenced by developments within the field of social science. Magagula posits that, to those who subscribe to the qualitative paradigm, truth and

reality are not objective and exterior, but that they are socially constructed and are given meaning by people. This means, therefore, that truth and reality are not universal and the task of the social scientist is not to gather facts and measure how often certain patterns occur, but to appreciate the different contributions and meanings that people place upon their experiences. In qualitative research, the best methods of gathering data are seen as those that collect the data in its natural setting. The researcher then tries to understand and explain why people have different experiences, rather than search for external causes and fundamental laws to explain people's behaviour (Nyawaranda, 2003; Sifuna, 1995).

### **3.1.2 The Historical Methodology**

Bogdan and Biklen (1992) suggest that methodology means the study, description, explanation and justification of methods, and not the methods themselves. Thus, methodology refers to the overall strategy that was employed and has a bearing on the research's contribution to scientific knowledge. Mwiria and Wamahiu (1995) posit that the historical methodology is the overall configuration of the piece of research with respect to what kind of data were gathered from where, and how were such data interpreted in order to provide good answers to the research questions.

In this study, the historical methodology was used through the systematic and objective location, evaluation and synthesis of TVE policy growth and development in order to establish facts and draw conclusions concerning past events (Mouly, 1978; Leedy, 1978; Borg & Gall, 1989; Sifuna, 1995). The steps that were followed in using the historical

methodology included identification of the problem, collection of evidence, or data on TVE policy growth and development, validation and authentication of the data, interpretation of the data, and writing the historical report (Sifuna, 1995; Mouly, 1978). The data, or evidence, analysed in this historical methodology was gathered from two categories of sources, that is, from documents and from a survey. It was important that the researcher established the authenticity and validity of the data that are collected. The authenticity and validity of the documents viewed to provide the data for this study was verified through reference to official records of these documents. The analysis of the data from a purposefully selected sample of stakeholders had to be systematic in order to provide answers to the research questions.

Borg and Gall (1989) and Sifuna (1995) note that the historical methodology is important in the field of education and training chiefly for four reasons. Firstly, it provides insights into education and training issues that are not possible to investigate using any other technique. Secondly, it gives a perspective that will help in understanding the present situation, and in turn, may assist in establishing a sound basis for further progress or improvement. Thirdly, it can provide insight into human behaviour that can be very valuable in arriving at practical solutions for use in education and training reform initiatives. Finally, it may serve a predictive function. The data may be used to predict a future situation with respect to the policy being studied.

The historical methodology was chosen for this study because of its popularity with researchers (for example Atkinson, 1972; Matshazi, 1986; Mungazi, 1990, 1992 & 1993). For example, Atkinson (1972) studied the growth and development of education policy in

Rhodesia from colonisation to the period after the Unilateral Declaration on Independence using documentary sources from libraries and government departments, and from interviews with policy makers and practitioners. Matshazi (1986) studied the development of worker education policy in Zimbabwe also basing his analysis on documents sourced in libraries and from government departments. Mungazi (1990, 1992 & 1993) used the historical policy analysis methodology to study the growth and development of educational policy in Zimbabwe at various periods and focusing on specific aspects, for example the policy of Industrial Training set up by the education Ordinance of 1899. However, these researchers did not combine the historical methodology with a survey as was done for this study.

### **3.1.3 Justification for the Survey**

Qualitative and quantitative paradigms are seen as essentially different and competing for recognition, acceptance and supremacy (Magagula, 1996). Guba and Lincoln in Vulliamy et al. (1990) have argued that the two paradigms are different, distinct and opposite to each other and should not be mixed in a research study. They believe that this is because the two paradigms are based on irreconcilable philosophical positions. However, Magagula (1996), Sifuna (1995) and Bogdan and Bikley (1992) see the two paradigms as being opposite ends of a continuum, with possibilities of a middle of the road position. They note that, increasingly, there is evidence of approaches that bridge between the two paradigms. In carrying out qualitative research, these researchers see no harm in combining phenomenological techniques, such as participant observation, or the study of documents, relics and artifacts, with positivist techniques such as surveys and experiments. This is the

position that was adopted for this study, hence the mixing of historical and survey techniques. The benefits of such a mixture are that one has an opportunity to gather data to add on to what is available in documents and other historical sources as well as gather data on the prevailing views and opinions from a wider selection of participants in the field of vocational education and training. However, Sifuna (1995) warns that an important consideration in the synthesis of historical evidence is that the researcher is not dealing with clear-cut cases of causes and effects, but with chains of related events. This makes it difficult to discern that one event in the chain was caused by the previous event in that chain. Because of this complexity, the researcher using the historical methodology is encouraged to guard against the common error of oversimplification in the synthesis of data. The main challenge, therefore, is of synthesis and interpretation rather than presenting a mere summation of the data (Sifuna, 1995; Borg and Gall, 1978).

### **3.2 HOW THE DATA WERE COLLECTED AND ANALYSED**

Data were gathered from documents, from a survey and from face to face interviews. The data that were collected were presented and analysed both chronologically and thematically using tables, pie charts and graphs. The chronological periods were divided into 1890 to 1923 (the period of South African Company rule), 1923 to 1980 (the period of Responsible Government rule) and 1980 to 1990 (the period of rule by a post independence government). These periods were selected mainly because of the distinct constitutional transitions that occurred. For example, colonization was a distinct phase, then responsible government followed, and finally independence through majority African rule. The thematic

considerations included apprenticeship training, technical and vocational education for school leavers, training for public sector employment and for private sector employment.

### **3.2.1 Data from Documentary Sources**

The sources for documentary data for the study were key policy and legal documents issued by government agencies during the period 1890 to 1990, academic publications (such as research thesis), and books and journal articles. Key policy and legal documents issued by government agencies looked at included: the Education Ordinances 1899 and 1903; reports by Commissions of Inquiry set up by Government; the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934; the Constitution of Rhodesia of 1923; the Education Act of 1930; the Apprenticeship Training and Skilled Manpower Development Act of 1969; the Constitution of Zimbabwe of 1980, the Education Act of 1984 and the Manpower Planning and Development Act of 1984. Other sources of documentary data included reports by Secretaries to Government Ministries, research studies by Atkinson (1972, 1978), Zvobgo (1994, 1997), Matshazi (1986), and many other scholars.

Data were gathered from documents found in libraries, and from government departments and offices. The libraries visited included the National Archives in Harare, the National Free Library in Bulawayo, the Hillside Teachers' College Library in Bulawayo, the University of Zimbabwe Library, the Chinhoyi University of Technology Library, the University of London's Institute of Education's library in London, the University of Birmingham and the Stockport Libraries in Birmingham City and the Parliament of Zimbabwe Library. Most of

the documents analysed were accessed from the stock in the Zimbabwe National Archives, the University of Zimbabwe Library's Government Publications Section and the University of London's Institute of Education Library. The three libraries were a rich source of original manuscripts on aspects of education and training in Zimbabwe and copies of research articles on the topic.

To use the libraries in the United Kingdom, the researcher took study leave from the Ministry of Higher Education and Technology (now Higher and Tertiary Education) from June to August 2001, and from June to July 2004, to visit relatives in the United Kingdom and was granted temporary membership of the three libraries for study purposes. The libraries in the United Kingdom yielded a rich source of up-to-date journals and books whose articles and relevant sections the researcher gladly photocopied in abundance for closer scrutiny at home. It was interesting to discover the amount of information on Zimbabwe available in the United Kingdom but not available in Zimbabwe, for example, research studies (Mungazi, 1990, 1992 & 1993) and information on the BSAC. The data from literature from the libraries and from the survey and interviews were then analysed to give answers to the research questions.

### **3.2.2 Verification of Data from Documents**

The data from documents that were synthesised and interpreted for this study had their authenticity verified before the information was used. The authenticity of documents sourced from the libraries and government departments was established through a variety of authenticating techniques. For example, the publications "Guide to the Public Archives of

Rhodesia” Volumes I and II by Baxter (1961 and 1970), and “The Public Records of Southern Rhodesia: 1890-1923” by the Central African Archives (1956) were used to determine the authenticity of manuscripts, documents and official publications during the period of BSAC rule. These publications have a record of authentic manuscripts, correspondences and records for the period during BSAC rule, which were collected for use in the National Archives. A committee that was set up for the purpose of analysing submissions established the authenticity of these documents and relics during their collection and storage. The documents that were used for the period beyond BSAC rule were official government publications and were sourced from official distributors of government publications, or from libraries in government departments. The authenticity of circulars and other policy documents in government ministries was established through cross checking with similar data in other documents issued by the same ministry, or by other government ministries.

The data from documents issued from the time of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland and later were mainly from official government publications. These publications were accessed from libraries and from government ministry registries. The researcher purchased those official publications that were not readily available in libraries from the Government Printing and Stationery Department. Analysis and synthesis of data from these documents was based on the research questions and objectives contained in Chapter 1. The authenticity of data from these documents was established through cross checking with publications from other government departments. For example, statistics from the Ministry of Education and those from the Ministry of Higher Education were verified with similar statistics from the

Central Statistical Office and with records from publications from schools and colleges. The major problem was, though, that at times wide variations were noticed in the statistics for the same period contained in official publications. For example, the enrolment statistics in reports by secretaries to the Ministry of Education and that of Higher Education at times differed considerably from those at the Central Statistical Office. As a solution, data from the Central Statistical Office was used since this is the central national official source for government statistics. The documents from which data were sourced in the United Kingdom were either research reports, published books or referenced journals. These thesis reports, books and journals were on the lists of official publications within the libraries.

### **3.2.3 Data from the Survey and Interviews**

The letter of introduction (Appendix I) and the questionnaire (Appendix II) were used for collecting data from people who were mentioned in the documents looked at for the study and were considered to be key stakeholders. The main purpose of the interviews was the collection of data from people who had participated in TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe, either as policy makers, implementers or beneficiaries of the policy. Taken in the wider context, the interviews would have involved virtually all Zimbabweans. However, the idea was to gather data from those directly involved in TVE policy growth and development as mentioned in historical documents.

The questionnaire was used mainly as a guide during face-to-face interviews without having to religiously stick to the questions listed. Responses were carefully recorded on a blank

questionnaire, or in a notebook. Stakeholders from whom data were collected were from both the private and public sector and were selected on their virtue of being mentioned in documents, holding key positions in training or having been former students of tertiary institutions. They consisted of senior officials in government ministries and in industry and commerce. Those interviewed were purposefully selected basing on their availability in Zimbabwe and within the major towns and cities. Their having been mentioned in documents looked at, or being mentioned in interviews with other stakeholders, was the major criterion used for selection. A snowballing technique was used in identifying additional sources to be interviewed. Using this technique, the researcher identified a human source for historical information from a documentary source and conducted an interview. During the interview, the source mentioned other sources that were then followed up and interviewed. The process was repeated, leading to data being gathered from more sources and an increase in the sample from which data were gathered (Mouly, 1978; Borg & Gall, 1978). In this study, an elderly artisan who was trained at Bulawayo Polytechnic in 1936 led the researcher to another who trained in the 1950s. An experienced researcher referred this researcher to two other researchers. Even if the questionnaire was used as a guide, the interviews were open and flexible and were used to collect data from twelve (12) people that were then added on to the data from manuscripts and other historical documents.

The questionnaire for the study was based on the research questions and sought to gather qualitative data from respondents. Table 3.1 shows how the questionnaire questions/items (see Appendix II) related to the research questions.

**Table 3.1: Relationship between items in questionnaire and research questions**

<b>Research Question</b>	<b>1890 to 1990</b>	<b>1890 to 1980</b>	<b>1980 to 1990</b>
Question a): Technical and vocational education policy growth and development.	Items 1, 2, 25 and 26	Items 3, 4 and 5	Item 15
Question b): Social, political and economic factors influencing policy.		Items 6, 11, 12, 13 and 14	20, 21, 22 and 23
Question c): International trends affect the growth and development.		Item 28	Items 16 and 17
Question d): Aim of growth and development of technical and vocational education policy in Zimbabwe.		Items 9 and 10	Items 18 and 19
Question e): Legacy of the growth and development of Zimbabwe's technical and vocational education policy.		Item 24	
Question f): Current technical and vocational education policy.	Items 27, 28 and 29		

Table 3.1 shows that the bulk of questions on the questionnaire related to link between TVE policy growth and development and socio-economic development in line with the study's thesis. The questionnaire was first piloted on ten stakeholders that included two former polytechnic principals, two members of the Bulawayo Polytechnic Advisory council (who are polytechnic graduates), two directors at Higher Education Head Office, a retired former principal of a Public Service Training Centre (who trained at Domboshava in the mid 1950s and retired in 1986), one university of Zimbabwe lecturer and two Bulawayo Polytechnic Heads of Division. The pilot led to the dropping of six original questions, including one that asked for a definition of TVE policy. A total of sixty copies of the final questionnaire (Appendix II, p332) were distributed, twenty were hand delivered and forty were posted. Nineteen of the questionnaires were returned, giving a response rate of thirty-two percent

(32%). Interviews using the questionnaire as a guide were held with twelve (12) stakeholders identified from historical documents. These included a former student who trained as an apprentice in 1936, two former principals for Harare and Bulawayo Polytechnic, the University of Zimbabwe's Assistant Registrar (Academic), a former Minister of Labour, Manpower Planning and Social Welfare, two Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education directors and officials in professional associations that participate in human resource development, such as the Chamber of Commerce, the National Manpower Advisory Council (NAMACO), the Institute of Engineers and the Hospitality Association of Zimbabwe.

### **3.2.4 Assessing Technical and Vocational Education Policy Growth and Development**

Chapter 2 identified the major issues with respect to TVE policy growth and development as the introduction of new policy, the provisions of the policy, the debate soon before and soon after the introduction of the policy, the implementation of the policy and its consequences. TVE policy growth was seen as being evidenced by increases in number of policy documents, and number or quantity of policy provisions and areas covered or affected by the policy. Growth, thus, is taken to mean quantitative increases in TVE policy provisions. TVE policy development, on the other hand, refers to qualitative increases with respect to the TVE system's ability to perform human resources development functions and to respond to the human resources needs of the socio-economic environment. TVE policy development results in progress, improvement and maturity of the system. TVE policy growth and development was, therefore, measured through determining increases in TVE policy documents,

provisions, areas covered, enhancement of TVE system's ability to perform human resources development functions and the TVE system's ability to respond to human resources needs of the socio-economic environment. The increases were then adopted as indicators that were used in analysing policy growth and development during the period under review. The data gathered for each indicator included information from official documents, statistics from official reports, and views from respondents and other researchers.

### **3.2.5 Organisation of the Results**

The data from the three distinct constitutional periods of colonization, responsible government and independence were presented in different chapters. This was mainly because of the perceived convenience of handling data from one chronological period in one chapter. Data identified from documents and from the survey for the chronological periods were presented with respect to the growth and development of TVE policy. The questions on the questionnaire were mainly on the stakeholders' views about TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe during 1890 to 1990 with respect to the research questions. Because of the distant nature of the events before the Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) in 1966, the questionnaire and interview data for the period before independence in 1980 were analysed in Chapter 5. Since the questions were the same for the questionnaire and interviews, the data were combined and analysed and presented together in Chapters 5 and 6. A table was used in presenting a summary of the analysis for each chronological period. Table 3.1 gives the methodological plan for the study.

**Table 3.2: The Methodological Plan**

RESEARCH QUESTION	DATA FOR PERIOD	SOURCES	INSTRUMENT/ TECHNIQUE	POLICY GROWTH	POLICY DEVELOPMENT	ANALYSIS
a) How did technical and vocational education policy grow and develop in Zimbabwe during the period 1890 to 1990?	Legislation relating to TVE policy. Views and opinions on TVE policy in documents. Responses to research questions.	Documents, manuscripts, research articles and books in libraries. Interviews with stakeholders.	Narrative description of policy growth and development trends. Survey. Interviews with stakeholders.	New policy adopted, increase in policy provisions and areas covered.	Improved policy requirements and socio-economic environment. Improved quality of provision and graduates.	Description and analysis of growth and development in TVE policy over the research period using the analysis indicators.
b) What social, political and economic factors influenced the growth and development of Zimbabwe's technical and vocational education policy between 1890 and 1990?	Policy statements relating to TVE policy. Views and opinions on TVE policy in documents. Responses to research questions.	Official documents in government departments, libraries and in archives. Research reports Interviews with stakeholders.	Narrative description of identified policy growth and development trends and causes. Survey. Interviews with stakeholders.	New policies adopted, increase in policy provisions, areas covered, and in ability to meet country's human resource needs.	Improved socio-economic environment. Improved quality of provision.	Comparative chronological and thematic analysis of growth and development in TVE policy over the research period using the analysis framework.
c) To what extent did international trends affect the growth and development of technical and vocational education policy in Zimbabwe between 1890 and 1990?	International and local trends in TVE policy growth and development between 1890 and 1990.	Official documents on technical and vocational education policy in libraries, Government Ministries and the internet.	Comparative analysis of material in documents and publications, and from the survey and interviews.	Increases in technical and vocational education provisions. Establishment of new TVE policy in line with international conventions and protocols.	Similarities and differences in technical and vocational education development patterns locally and internationally	Comparative analysis of policy growth and development in Zimbabwe and in other countries in Africa and abroad.

Table 3.2 Continued

RESEARCH QUESTIONS	DATA PERIOD	FOR SOURCES	INSTRUMENT/ TECHNIQUE	POLICY GROWTH	POLICY DEVELOPMENT	ANALYSIS
d) Was the growth and development of policy in Zimbabwe between 1890 and 1990 aimed at providing the human resource needed for achieving national social-economic development objectives?	Stated national social and economic objectives. Statistics on technical and vocational education system output, employment trends, recruitment of expatriates and labour demands.	Government statistical reports and reports from labour unions, employers' organisations and commissions of inquiry on human resource requirements.	Comparison of labour outs against labour requirements. Range of programmes offered in technical and vocational education system. Survey and interviews.	Labour demands. Recruitment of expatriates. Utilisation of system graduates.	System output over the research period. Establish meaningful links between human resource development activities and economic activities.	Interpret whether policy was aimed at providing the human resources needed for achieving national social and economic development objectives.
e) What legacy of the growth and development of Zimbabwe's policy between 1890 and 1990 is apparent in the current initiatives for policy reform within the country?	Identified technical and vocational education policy growth and development aspects between 1890 and 1990 that are apparent in existing policy.	Current technical and vocational education policy and policy identified for the research period in Zimbabwe.	Content analysis of material from official current policy reform initiatives and trends in the growth and development of policy between 1890 and 1990.	Similarities and differences in current technical and vocational education policy and that identified within the period for the research.	Comparison of policy provision, areas covered and system's ability to meet the country's human resource needs between the period 1890 to 1990 and existing policy.	Identify lessons from the growth and development that are relevant for current and future policy reform initiatives.
f) How should the country's current technical and vocational education policy grow and develop in response to social and economic developmental challenges of the twenty-first century?	Statements on the current national economic and social development objectives and current policy. Identified human resource requirements for national human resource needs for the 21 <sup>st</sup> century.	Official government policy documents on national social and economic development.	Content analysis of material from official current policy reform initiatives and projections from trends in the growth and development of policy between 1890 and 1990. Survey and interviews.	Qualitative comparative analysis of recommended technical and vocational education policy growth and development direction and economic growth objectives.	Identify the existing technical and vocational education policy that are relevant for Zimbabwe's identified social and economic development objectives for the new millennium.	Identify growth and development aspects that are relevant for the twenty-first century.

### **3.4 SUMMARY**

This chapter has presented the procedures used for the study to collect data. These procedures were within the qualitative research paradigm that included survey data. The data were collected from documents, manuscripts, research reports and books located in libraries, chiefly from the University of Zimbabwe's Government Publications section, the National Archives (Harare) and the University of London's Institute of Education Library and from interviews and a questionnaire. The questionnaire was used to collect data from nineteen purposefully selected stakeholders and an interview schedule was used to collect data from twelve (12) other stakeholders that were selected on the basis of proximity and convenience. Data from documents, original manuscripts, research articles and books that were collected from libraries and government departments were analysed with respect to increases in TVE policy provisions and to increases in the TVE system's ability to meet the nation's human resources requirements for socio-economic development. These procedures were in line with those used by other researchers in Zimbabwe and abroad and have been shown to provide information leading to the creation of new knowledge and a basis for formulating new TVE policy. The chapter that follows presents and analyses TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe during the period 1890 to 1923.

## **CHAPTER 4**

### **TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION POLICY DURING RULE BY THE BRITISH SOUTH AFRICAN COMPANY (BSAC): 1890 – 1923**

#### **4.0 INTRODUCTION**

This chapter traces TVE policy growth and development during British South African Company (BSAC) rule, from 1890 to 1923. The discussion starts with a brief historical socio-economic background dating back to the time before colonisation, a period when there was no formal system of government or formal TVE policy. The passing of the Masters and Servants Ordinance of 1891 followed by the Education Ordinance of 1899 signaled the birth of a formal official policy affecting TVE activities in the country. The 1891 Act stipulated conditions for apprenticeship training and the Ordinance specified for ‘industrial training’ in the primary school curriculum and provided for government support in the form of grants-in-aid to complying schools. The 1899 Ordinance laid the foundation for a TVE policy growth and development that led to the establishment of a system of technical and vocational education characterised by a focus on low-level technical skills and a separation along racial lines. The following text discusses Zimbabwe’s socio-political history before colonisation, early colonial administration and technical and vocational education policy, BSAC TVE policy and missionary work, the TVE policy formulation framework, the dominant economic activities, TVE

implementation, consequences of BSAC TVE policy and an analysis of TVE policy growth and development during this period. The chapter ends with a conclusion that formal TVE policy for this country emerged and grew and developed during BSAC rule, but the TVE system that was established was not appropriate for the country's human resource needs for a sustainable socio-economic development.

#### **4.1 ZIMBABWE BEFORE BRITISH SOUTH AFRICAN COMPANY RULE**

Before Zimbabwe was colonised in 1890, there was evidence of the existence of a strong informal education and training system within the country (Mudenge, 1988; Blake, 1977). Stone-age implements and pebble tools with improved quality and utility have been found by archaeologists in several areas of Zimbabwe, a suggestion of a TVE policy growth and development over many centuries (Mungazi, 1990; Mothobi, 1978). Ruins of man made stone structures dotted around the country provide evidence of early civilisation and use of human technical and vocational skills that were quite advanced for their period (Mudenge, 1988; Blake, 1977; Phillips, Hammond, Samuels & Swynnerton, 1962). The largest and most impressive of these stone structures is the "Great Zimbabwe," located near the town of Masvingo, after which the country is named. These stone structures were built over a long period of time by the African peoples who lived in the country from about the eleventh century onwards (Mudenge, 1988; Blake, 1977). Today, these African peoples are still utilising a noticeable amount of traditional technical and vocational skills even though they are now influenced by the national

formal TVE policy (Government of Zimbabwe, 1992; Blake, 1977). This means that Zimbabwe's indigenous African groups that lived on the land before colonisation were practicing a traditional form of TVE that sustained their social, economic and political activities.

#### **4.1.1 Education and Training Before Colonisation**

Although Atkinson (1972; p.9) notes that "... as they lived in the period before European settlement, the Mashona seem to have given remarkably little attention to the task of educating their young," there is clear evidence to the contrary. For example, Mungazi (1990), Mudenge (1988) and Mothobi (1978) note that the empire of Munhumutapa, that existed within present day Zimbabwe about two centuries before Europeans colonised the country, was one of the greatest civilisations in Africa. The empire is said to have had a strong economic base and traded extensively with Portuguese, Chinese and Moslem traders from about the fifteenth century AD onwards (Mudenge, 1988; Beach, 1980; Roger, 1969). The trade was mainly in gold, copper and ivory. Confirming the growth and development of technical and vocational education policy in the field of mining, the Southern Rhodesia Economic Development Committee (1939; p.6) noted:

Expert evidence is of the opinion that the colony was very thoroughly and skillfully prospected by some ancient people and that they worked the discoveries of both gold and copper long before the advent of the white population. Since 1890, the

country has been fairly well covered by modern prospectors and spectacular discoveries such as are made in Northern Canada cannot be expected.

The high-level of human mining skills indicated above could have only developed within the framework of a sustained TVE policy growth and development. Most of the mines that were established after colonisation were located on already identified deposits (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1936). Therefore, even if no formal TVE policy existed before colonisation, archeological evidence of an increasingly advanced civilisation suggests a remarkable TVE policy growth and development that sustained economic development.

Millin (1933) notes that a warrior chief known as Mzilikazi, who had escaped the wrath of his father, the great Zulu king, Tshaka of South Africa, invaded the country in 1838. Blake (1977) observes that Mzilikazi fought the local inhabitants all the way from Transvaal in South Africa, through Botswana, and eventually fought and defeated the local Mashona peoples and scattered them far from his settlement at Ntabazinduna, near Bulawayo. His people, known as Matebele, were very militant and sourced most of their cattle and grain requirements through raids into neighbouring territories (Blake, 1977; Phillips, et al., 1962). For the Matebele, TVE policy focused on military training and pastoral farming, especially tending the animals mainly captured during raids. Phillips, et al. (1962) posits that the Matebele improved on traditional Zulu fighting skills to become a formidable military society. The Matebele's TVE policy on military skills grew and developed to an extent that even the settlers had to treat them with caution. This was

evidenced by the fact that the Pioneer Column used by the BSAC to occupy the country took a path of a radius of at least one-hundred and fifty miles from Lobengula's Kraal in order to avoid a military confrontation with his warrior people (Central African Archives, 1956; Hone, 1909).

#### **4.1.2 The Social Groups of European Origin**

Dr. David Livingstone, a British missionary, hunter and explorer, is said to have discovered the Victoria Falls in 1855, and four years later, Mzilikazi allowed the establishment of the first permanent white settlement at Inyathi by Robert Moffat of the London Missionary Society (Blake, 1977; Hensman, 1974). Lobengula, one of Mzilikazi's sons, succeeded as king of the Matebele in 1870 and he granted permission in the same year to Rev. J. B. Thomson to found a mission at Hope Fountain (Atkinson, 1972; Philips, et al., 1962). Even if missionaries focused on spreading Christianity through teaching the Africans how to read and write so that they could read the Bible, they provided a limited amount of TVE within the mission settlements (Hone, 1909; Fafunwa & Aisiku, 1982). Fafunwa and Aisiku (1982) and Atkinson (1972) note that the TVE provided was aimed at aiding the work of the missionaries since some of the recipients would become clerks, secretaries and preachers. This limited amount of TVE provided by the missionaries was within the Liberal philosophy of education and focused on home craft skills, such as building, farming, carpentry and tailoring. These were the foundations of missionary technical and vocational education in the country, a sector that contributed immensely to TVE policy growth and development.

Cecil John Rhodes, who was born in 1853 in the United Kingdom, migrated to South Africa at the age of sixteen to work with his brother who was there (Millin, 1933). Rhodes believed in expanding the British Empire to cover the whole world (Hone, 1909). He also believed Zimbabwe was endowed with precious minerals in a manner similar to the Rand in South Africa where he had become a millionaire at the age of twenty through mining diamonds and gold. On October 30, 1888, by what is known as the “Rudd Concession”, Lobengula granted all mineral rights in the territories under his command to Rhodes (Hensman, 1974; Central African Archives, 1956; Hone, 1909). He and his associates then formed the BSAC, and the Concession was used to secure a Charter for the colonisation of Zimbabwe from the Queen of England. The Charter was granted in 1889 and it allowed the BSAC to rule the country for a period of twenty-five years. A Pioneer column of about 700 men and women was recruited for purposes of occupying the country. It trekked from South Africa and raised the Union Jack at Fort Salisbury in Zimbabwe on September 12, 1890.

## **4.2 ZIMBABWE SOON AFTER COLONISATION**

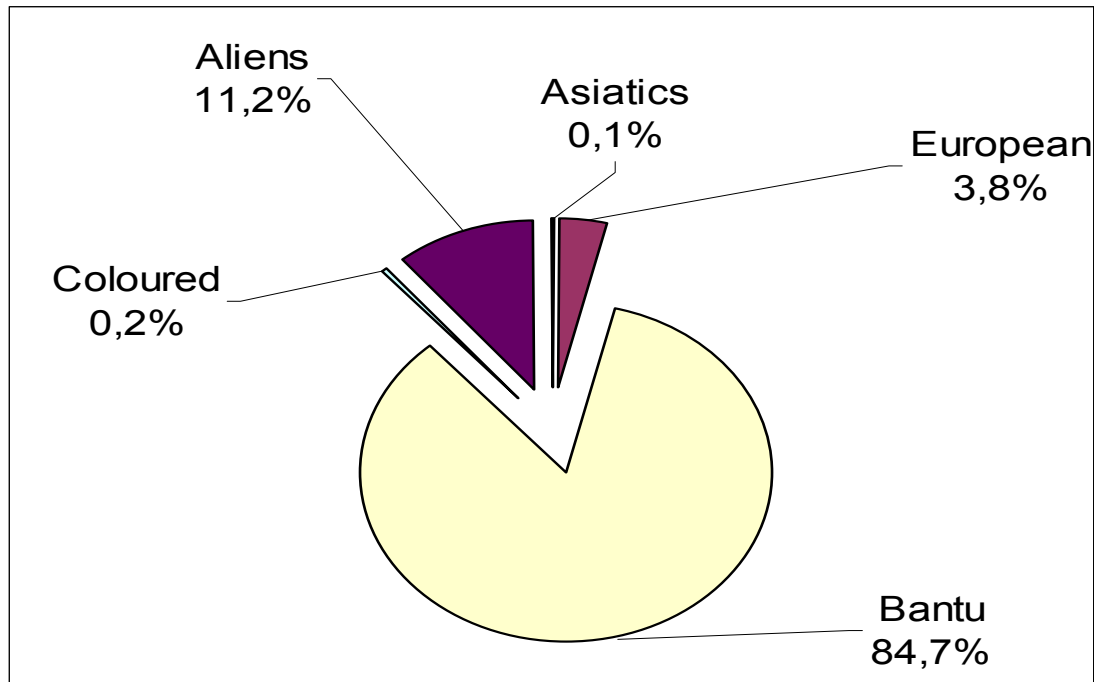
From colonisation onwards, the responsibility to formulate formal TVE policy was vested with the colonial government. Table 4.1 gives the population figures for the period 1901 to 1921.

**Table 4.1: Zimbabwe's Population: 1901 - 1921.**

YEAR	AFRICAN		WHITE		ASIAN		COLOURED		TOTAL	% ANNUAL INCREASE
	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%	No.	%		
1901	700 000	98.2	11 000	1.6	N/A	N/A	1 500	0.2	712 600	2.4
1911	880 000	97.1	23 700	2.6	900	0.1	2 000	0.2	906 600	2.4
1921	1 110 000	96.8	33 800	3.0	1 300	0.1	2 000	0.2	1 147	2.5

**SOURCE: Government of Zimbabwe 1987; p.15.**

Table 4.1 shows that the total population in Zimbabwe grew at an average annual rate of about 2.4 percent while that of Europeans grew by an average annual rate of 5.8 percent during a period of twenty years. The total population grew at this rate because as soon as the occupation of the country was successful, the BSAC vigorously encouraged, recruited and supported Europeans who came and settled in the country and those who responded included missionaries, farmers, miners, industrialists and merchants (Atkinson, 1972; Hone, 1909). This means that the BSAC viewed those with skills in these economic areas as being important for the country's socio-economic development. The 1921 census revealed the racial breakdown given in Figure 4.1.



**Figure 4.1: Races in Population: 1921 Census (Zimbabwe Government, 1987; p.17).**

Figure 4.1 shows that the indigenous blacks (classified as ‘Bantu’ in the census) were in the majority at eighty-four percent of the population, followed by others of African origin (classified as ‘Aliens’) who made up eleven percent of the population (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1924). These two African groups made up ninety-five percent of the population. Europeans made up only 3.8 percent of the population, yet they possessed the lion’s share of the technical and vocational skills that were needed for economic development within the country (Challis, 1968; Hone, 1909). This is because they generally came with skills acquired from outside Zimbabwe, and this should have negatively affected TVE policy growth and development in the country. In addition, the settler population was thinly spread over a country of an area in excess of 390000 square kilometers, making the local provision of technical and vocational education difficult

(Atkinson, 1972; Southern Rhodesia Government, 1936). From the onset, the colonial administration seemed to have regarded the need for a clear and focused local TVE policy growth and development lightly, focusing on recruiting those already skilled in areas felt important by the policy makers.

### **4.3 EARLY COLONIAL POLICY**

Soon after colonisation, a government for the country was placed in the hands of acting Chief Magistrate and Administrator, William Henry Milton, in October 1890 (Southern Rhodesia, 1924). The office of the Administrator came into statutory existence in 1894 and a Legislative Council was constituted in October 1898 (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1924; Hone, 1909). The Council was made up of six BSAC officials and four members elected by the settlers. Hone (1909) notes that the representation within the Legislative Council was altered to seven elected and seven BSAC officials by an Order-in-Council of February 1903. The Legislative Council became the Legislative Assembly and it renewed the Charter for a further ten years before the expiry of its original mandate of twenty-five years in 1914 (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1924). When the effective period for the Charter was about to end, a “Responsible Government” was established to take over the running of the country in 1923 (Atkinson, 1972; Zvobgo, 1994). This means that the responsibility to chart a TVE policy growth and development direction quickly transferred from the BSAC to the settlers through their elected representatives from soon after colonisation onwards.

Because they had the power to formulate TVE policy for the country, the settlers assumed a significant role in laying a foundation for TVE policy growth and development for the country. In doing so, the settlers seemed to be focused on ensuring that their skills were protected as far as possible, hence the immergence of a TVE policy growth and development skewed towards the development of only European.

### **4.3.1 Politics During BSAC Rule**

Investors had financed the colonisation venture through the BSAC, and the Charter was the key operational guide for the colony's political and economic activities (Hone, 1909). The objects contained in the Charter were chiefly to: extend the railway and telegraph systems northwards; encourage immigration and colonisation; promote trade and commerce; and develop and work mineral and other concessions under the aegis of one powerful organisation (Meridith, 1979; Central African Archives, 1956). The Charter entitled the BSAC to raise taxes, promulgate laws, maintain a police force, recruit administrators and build roads and railways. Armed with this valuable authority and with a capital of about £1,000,000.00, the BSAC recruited for and organised the Pioneer column that trekked into the country (Hone, 1909).

The mandate to promulgate laws enabled the BSAC to lay the seed and foundation for a TVE policy growth and development direction. As a way of safeguarding the interests of Africans within Rhodesia (Zimbabwe), a Governor who was more senior than the local parliament represented the British government (Zvobgo, 1994; Hone, 1909). Mungazi

(1992) observes that the Governor retained the right to block any laws that disadvantaged the native Africans, but never used this veto power for the entire colonial period. Thus he did not influence the direction of TVE policy growth and development in favour of the indigenous Africans.

The country was officially named “Rhodesia” by proclamation of the Legislative Council on 3 May 1895 (Central African Archives, 1955; Southern Rhodesia Government, 1924). The authorisation by the British government in 1898 for the establishment of a Legislative Council consisting of six BSAC representatives and four other members elected by the white community removed the right to make laws from the BSAC’s Board of Directors (Atkinson, 1978; Challis, 1968). The number of elected members gradually increased due to demands from the settlers and, by 1911, elected members exceeded BSAC representatives, and, from then onwards, real political power lay in the hands of the settlers (Meridith, 1979; Atkinson, 1972). Thus, the formal authority to proclaim TVE policy in Zimbabwe was originally the responsibility of the BSAC’s Board of Directors, before it was transferred to the Legislative Council (later called the Legislative Assembly), first on behalf of the BSAC, and later on behalf of the European electorate. The last Legislative Assembly was elected in 1920 and it extended into the first period of Responsible Government before automatically dissolving on March 31, 1924 (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1924). However, since most of the settlers had come into the country at the invitation of the BSAC, it is only logical that the views of BSAC officials influenced the direction of TVE policy growth and development for a considerable period after colonisation.

Towards the end of BSAC Rule, a referendum was held to decide on joining a union with South Africa or becoming a separate country under “Responsible Government”. The vote for Responsible Government won and Southern Rhodesia was annexed from Britain and ‘Responsible Government’ was established, with elections for the first Legislative Assembly under Responsible Government being held on April 29, 1924 (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1924). Nevertheless, the local African population, as represented by traditional leaders, who included chiefs and headmen, was excluded from the system of government that was established up to the end of BSAC rule (Mungazi, 1992; Mudenge, 1988). This means that the local leadership was excluded from making significant contributions towards TVE policy growth and development in this country during BSAC rule. This was an unfortunate development since Africans made up about ninety-five percent of the population, presenting an important source for high quality human skills that could have been utilised from colonisation onwards.

### **4.3.2 Policy Under BSAC Rule**

The TVE policy growth and development under BSAC rule was guided by the ideas of influential BSAC Board Members, chiefly those of Cecil John Rhodes, Leander Starr Jameson and Earl Gray (Hone, 1909). Rhodes had a strong belief that the Anglo Saxon race was the first race in the world and that God wished England to rule the world (Southern African Archives, 1956; Millin, 1933). Challis (1968) notes that Rhodes’ idea was that the whole world would be a better place to live in under English rule and

institutions. It is this researcher's observation that Rhodes' views on education and training were not the sort that would please Robert Mugabe, Kwame Nkrumah, Julius Nyerere, Kenneth Kaunda, or any other African politician cum philosopher. This is because he viewed a sound education and training as not the practical hands-on type, but the sort as offered by classical institutions such as Oxford from where he got his education (Hone, 1909; Millin, 1933). Rhodes' views and intentions clearly suggest that his colonisation of Zimbabwe was aimed at introducing Anglo Saxon elitist TVE policy to the country. In his Humble Petition to Queen Victoria that led to the giving of the Charter, Rhodes had stated that he believed the condition of the natives would be materially improved and their civilisation advanced by the granting of a Charter to the BSAC and the subsequent occupation of the country by Europeans who were a superior race (Blake, 1977; Atkinson, 1972). The colonisation of the country was meant to be chiefly advantageous to the commercial and other interests of nationals of the United Kingdom (Hensman, 1974; Central African Archives, 1956).

Rhodes' chief aim in colonising the country was the extension of the British Empire, hence civilisation, to Zimbabwe. His view of being "civilised" was "... a man whether white or black who has sufficient education to write his name, has some property, or works, in fact, is not a loafer" (quoted in Challis, 1968; p.9). This means that he viewed civilisation as the attainment of simple literacy and hard work ethics in the majority of the population. However, Rhodes believed that those of European origin were more intelligent than those of African origin. According to him, Europeans had the responsibility to bring the Africans to their level of intelligence (Challis, 1968; Millin,

1933). When he was addressing Parliament in the Cape where he was a legislator, he said “The natives are children, and we ought to do something for their minds and brains that the almighty has given them ...” (quoted in Challis, 1968; p.9). It is this researcher’s opinion that, as the chief architect of the colonisation of the country and an influential board member of the BSAC, Rhodes’ views led to the laying of a TVE policy growth and development foundation that was simplistic and favoured Europeans while disadvantaging the indigenous blacks. The policy also preferred foreign skills to those developed within the country as evidenced by the extensive recruitment of expatriates for the country’s human resource requirements. From the very beginning of colonial rule, BSAC TVE policy gave Africans different provisions from those for the European settlers. Mungazi (1993) notes that as soon as the BSAC established a colony in the country it operated under the Victorian principle that Africans must be trained to fulfill the labour (low-level skill) needs of the country. This philosophy embraced the belief that practical training and manual labour should form a major component of the curricular content in schools, leading to TVE policy growth and development not being linked to high level skills needed for socio-economic development.

Even if “low level skill” in brackets is not in the original quotation, it is the researcher’s view that the implication of “labour needs” is certainly low-level skills. This is because the view led to the formulation of a TVE policy with different provisions for the settlers and for the indigenous Africans. It was obviously aimed at developing the settlers for leadership roles in the colony and the Africans as assistants to the settlers. The early TVE policy that emerged had provisions giving those of European origin an internationally

competitive system that was supposed to be similar to that in more industrialised countries, especially South Africa and Great Britain, where most of the settlers had come from (Mungazi, 1992; Meredith, 1979; Atkinson, 1972). Evidence of this is found in that in addition to industrial training in European schools, evening classes were set up for the training of European working men and women in syllabuses for external examining bodies, such as the City and Guild of London Institute, the South African National qualifications and Pitman (Report of the Inspector of Schools, 1900). By 1907, the Matopos Agricultural School had been established near Bulawayo and was offering training in the agricultural field to European youths only. However, technical and vocational education was still being viewed as being for the poor and not so bright European youths (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1924). For example, in a debate in the Legislative Council in May 1922, Robert Gilchrist (representing North Electoral District) observed that:

Criticism being leveled on modern education is that the children are being largely educated along lines that would result in their being discontented with the circumstances in which they would be placed, and the lives they were likely to lead. In the Matopos school they were likely to have children whose parents were not likely to be in a position to give them a very long period of education, and the educational curriculum at Matopos would fit them for the lives which they would most likely lead (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1922; p.334).

Views similar to the one above were very common during BSAC rule, leading to a situation where the role of TVE policy in national development was for the development of low-level skills of disadvantaged white children and Africans. The children of European origin from poor families were engaged in TVE programmes based on foreign syllabi and qualifications while Africans were to train in industrial skills in primary schools. The bright European children from able families were supposed to get their tertiary level training from elitist institutions outside the country (Atkinson, 1972).

In line with BSAC officials' views and with the need to control African workers, the colonial administration passed, within about one year of occupation of the country, the Masters and Servants Ordinance of 1891 that "made it a criminal offence for employees not to obey a 'lawful' order of an employer and listed ten cases of misconduct" (Meredith, 1979; p.21). However, the strength of the South African link with this local TVE policy was very evident since the Act stated that:

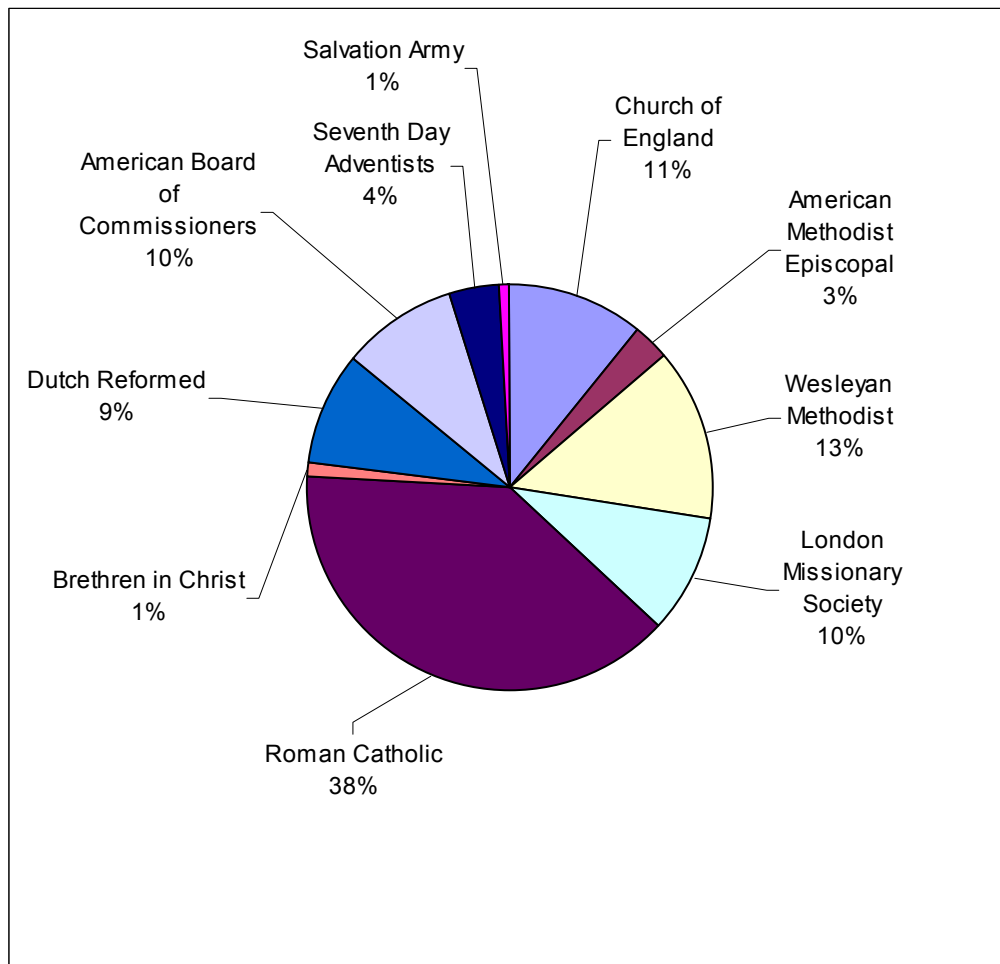
1. All and singular the provision of the Cape Acts 15, 1856; 18, 1873; 28, 1874; 7. 1875; 8, 1889, shall *mutatis mutandis*, be deemed and taken to be applicable to the apprenticeship of Native children or Native youths to the superintendent or master of any technical school, agricultural college, model farm, industrial home or other educational institution, workshop or factory in Rhodesia.
2. All contracts for such apprenticeship ... shall be drawn up as far as possible in terms of section 9 of Chapter III of the Cape Act 15 of 1856.

The gist of this piece of legislation was to ensure that workers, especially African workers, were to obey their employers. The chief methodology for human skills development was apprenticeship as was the situation prevailing in South Africa mines and farms at that time (Atkinson, 1972). This shows that TVE policy soon after colonisation was clearly in line with policies in South Africa, especially the Cape Colony where Rhodes was a legislator. The impact of colonial policy makers' views was that TVE policy growth and development progressed along simplistic foreign models and along racial lines, with the provision of low-level skills and separate TVE systems for Africans and for Europeans.

#### **4.3.3 BSAC Policy and Missionary Work**

The Pioneer Column had brought with it some missionaries and other missionaries followed as soon as it became clear that the colonial venture was a success (Atkinson, 1972; Hone, 1909). By adopting a policy of encouraging missionaries to settle in the country and build schools and provide TVE, it appears the BSAC achieved two aims within the policy. The policy advanced the BSAC's socio-economic agenda through the work of these missionaries. At that time, technical and vocational education was mainly offered within a school system whose principal focus was on evangelism and primary education (Atkinson, 1972). This suggests that early TVE policy in Zimbabwe was aimed at controlling education and training activities within a general education system that was dominated by missionary bodies (Rasmussen, 1979; Challis, 1968; Atkinson, 1972). Soon

after colonisation, the BSAC allocated land for building missions and schools to missionary bodies (Hone, 1909). It appears the BSAC did not build its own schools and training institutions within the first ten years of colonisation, leaving missionaries to introduce the first formal school based TVE system in Zimbabwe. Figure 4.2 shows BSAC land grants to missionaries.



**Figure 4.2: BSAC Land Grants to Missionaries as at 1900 (Kerr Committee Report, 1951; p.3)**

Figure 4.2 shows that the Roman Catholics got the lion's share of land granted to missionaries, followed by the Wesleyan Methodists and the Church of England. Figure

4.2 suggests that the Roman Catholics dominated the field of education and training in the country from soon after colonisation onwards. The allocation of land to missionary bodies also shows the extent to which the BSAC valued the contribution in the provision of education and training from them. The policy of promoting and supporting missionary endeavour in technical and vocational education led to the dominance of Christian bodies in TVE activities in the country (Mungazi, 1992; Atkinson, 1972). The Rhodesia Government only started participating in education and training more than thirteen years after colonization, suggesting that establishing an appropriate TVE policy growth and development was not one of the BSAC's priorities.

#### **4.4 POLICY FORMULATION FRAMEWORK: 1890 - 1923**

As the chief power within the new state, the Administrator took a significant part in shaping and administering TVE policy under BSAC rule. William Henry Milton, a BSAC official, was appointed Acting Administrator soon after colonisation. He was appointed Administrator in 1897 and was appointed Senior Administrator of Southern Rhodesia in 1898 (Atkinson, 1972; Challis, 1968; Southern Rhodesia Government, 1924). The Administrator, with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council, could then formulate TVE policy in the form of ordinances which had to be approved by the High Commissioner in South Africa and the Secretary of State (Challis, 1968).

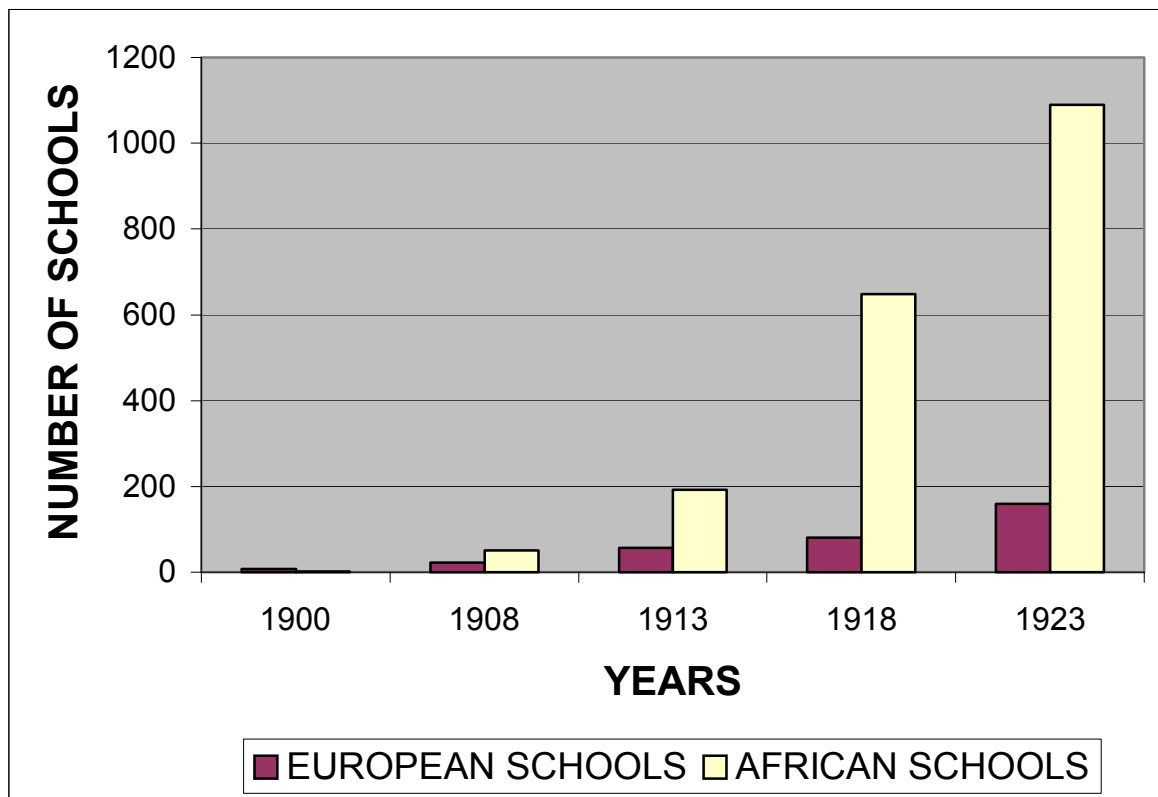
#### **4.4.1 Colonial Policy Within Ordinances**

Education Ordinances were the chief TVE policy instruments during BSAC rule. The Education Ordinance of 1899 (Appendix III) was the first significant TVE policy in the country. It established an inspector of schools and required that time be set out in the normal school curriculum for “industrial training”. The main aspects of the Ordinance were contained in a memorandum from Rhodes to Earl Gray who served as Administrator of the colony from April 1896 to December 1898 (Mungazi, 1993; Challis, 1968). The main provisions for the Education Ordinance of 1899 were the creation of an Education Department and an Inspector of Schools, and the institution of a system of government aid to the schools that conformed to the regulations. It made provision for qualifying schools to receive grants-in-aid on a pound-for-pound principle. TVE was to be delivered through ‘industrial training’ offered in the schools that qualified as assessed by an Inspector (Atkinson, 1972; Challis, 1968).

The 1899 Ordinance established a segregated system of education, with schools for Europeans on one hand, and those for Africans on the other. By the end of 1900, eight white schools were benefiting from grants-in-aid as per the requirements of the Ordinance yet no African schools were benefiting (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1900). By 1907, only three African (referred to then as ‘Native’) schools, compared to eighteen European schools, were benefiting from the grant-in-aid system (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1907). Thus, from the onset, the BSAC handled the task of

education and training provision unfairly along racial lines. This was because European schools received favourable treatment from colonisation onwards.

Most schools in the country were primary schools from colonisation until the passing of the Education Act of 1930 (Act No. 7). Figure 4.3 shows that grants-in-aid resulted in a huge jump in school numbers with African schools registering the highest growth.



**Figure 4.3: Growth In Primary School Numbers: 1908 – 1923 (Annual Reports of the Education Branch of the Southern Rhodesia Chief Secretary’s Office 1900 to 1923)**

Figure 4.3 shows that growth in the education system in Zimbabwe was linked to the

grants-in-aid policy during BSAC rule. It also shows that schools for Africans grew at a faster rate than those for Europeans. This was most likely due to more African missionary schools receiving recognition. One may conclude, therefore, that TVE policy growth and development during the period of BSAC rule resulted in a carrot and stick situation and an increase in the number of schools recognised by government. The carrot was in the form of grants-in-aid to complying schools while the stick was in the form of sanctions and penalties for non-compliance. For example, the schools that did not comply would not receive grants-in-aid. They could even be closed, and after the Ordinance of 1903, they could be taken over by government (Mungazi, 1993; Atkinson, 1978).

Analysis of the Ordinances that followed that of 1903 showed that they were aimed at improving the quality and variety of industrial training within the primary school system. For example, the 1907 Ordinance was clearer and more specific in that it prescribed industrial training to include farming, brick making, road making, building, carpentry, ironwork, and for girls, domestic work. The shortage of teachers for industrial training led to the passing of the 1910 Ordinance that made specific grants to European teachers of industrial and agricultural work, and those engaged in teacher training (Rose, 1973). Grants-in-aid for industrial training were increased in 1914, 1917 and 1921. Matching grants for equipment were provided for from 1910 onwards (Mungazi, 1992; Parker, 1973). This shows that the industrial training policy grew and developed quantitatively and qualitatively. Quantitative increases were in the number of Ordinances or amendments made, while qualitative increases were in the widening of areas covered and improvements quality of resources, such as teachers and industrial training equipment.

Even if Figure 4.3 on Page 110 shows that the grants-in-aid system introduced by the Education Ordinances resulted in an increase in the number of schools receiving recognition and funding from government, the provision of technical and vocational education seems to have received little attention during BSAC rule. The funding resulting from the provisions of the ordinances was divided along racial lines. This is because, even if Africans made up eighty-nine percent of the enrolment, they received only eight percent of the money disbursed for grants-in-aid between 1900 and 1923 (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1924). The results of the 1921 census in Figure 4.1 on Page 97 show that Europeans made up only about four percent of the population and Africans indigenous to Zimbabwe made up about eighty-five percent of the population. Annual Reports of the Education Branch of the Southern Rhodesia Chief Secretary's Office (1900 to 1923) show that between 1900 and 1923, a total of 1209 European schools with a total enrolment of 62,045 pupils received £1,413,286.00 compared to a total of 7,463 African schools with a total enrolment of 489,472 pupils receiving only £124,127.00. This gives funding ratios of 1: £22,78 for Europeans compared to 1: £0,25 for Africans, meaning European schools received about one-hundred times more per child than Africans schools. Although these government grants-in-aid did not constitute the entire source of funds for the schools, they were significant for the purposes of building and equipping the schools, hence the quality of TVE given (Zvobgo, 1994; Mungazi, 1992; Atkinson, 1972). Grants also played a significant role in the procurement of tools and consumables used for TVE activities.

Towards the end of BSAC rule, the colonial administration acknowledged the problems it was facing with the policy of industrial training, among which were lack of employment for the graduates and lack of adequate funds and equipment for training (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1921 & 1923). One of the biggest challenges that retarded the effectiveness of the policy of industrial training was the seriousness with which the policy was implemented by the chief implementers, the missionaries (Mungazi, 1990; Atkinson, 1972). It appears the primary business of the missionaries was evangelism and they did not normally possess training or experience outside the field of theology (Mungazi, 1990). Therefore, to missionaries, industrial education was essentially the ancillary of Christian education, while to the government industrial education was a chief aim in itself, to be used to serve the economic interests of both Africans and Europeans alike (Atkinson, 1972). The other major challenge facing industrial training was that its content was not precisely defined, leading to wide interpretations of what it was constituted of (Mungazi, 1990). As a result, the training offered varied greatly from one school to another, with most schools tending to focus on elementary skills. As a result, most of the graduates of industrial training had a level of skills that was far below what was required to enable them to be employed as independent and productive workers in industry (Mungazi, 1990; Atkinson, 1972).

#### **4.4.2 Commissions of Inquiry: 1890 - 1923**

Three commissions of inquiry were set up during BSAC rule. These were the Hole Commission of 1908, the Graham Commission of 1911 and the Russell Commission of

1916 (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1908, 1911 & 1916). The Hole Commission recommended the participation in education and training by the government and the setting up of government funded and run schools. The Graham Commission focused on African education, recommending the teaching of English in all schools and a focus on industrial training in African schools. The Russell Commission focused on European education and recommended free and compulsory education for European children that only became a reality in the 1930s after the establishment of Responsible Government. The recommendations of the Hole Commission led to the establishment of the first government schools and the taking over of some local authority and private schools that were experiencing financial problems (Mungazi, 1992; Atkinson, 1972). The recommendations of the Graham Commission led to the establishment of a system for the training of Africans under the 'Community Development' theme. However, the commissions focused on the primary school system and did not recommend on a distinct TVE policy growth and development direction.

#### **4.5 THE DOMINANT ECONOMIC ACTIVITIES**

Since a private company colonised the country on behalf of Britain, the colonisation of Zimbabwe was, from the beginning, carried out in a manner different from that of other British colonies in Africa. There, the British government directly colonised the African peoples (Munowenyu & Murray, 1990; Arrigi, 1967). The BSAC's main aim was chiefly financial gain, especially through the exploitation of the mineral and agricultural wealth

that was believed to be in the country. In the Rudd Concession, Lobengula had entitled Rhodes and his financial associates:

... complete and exclusive charge over all metals and minerals situated and contained in my Kingdom, principalities and domains, together with full power to do all things that they may deem necessary to win and procure the same, and to hold, collect, and enjoy the profits and revenues, if any, derived from the said metals and minerals, .... (Central African Archives, 1956; p.xviii).

This means that mining was the major reason for which the Europeans were allowed on the land in the first place, suggesting a TVE policy growth and development aimed at enhancing this major economic activity. It would follow, therefore, that TVE policy growth and development after colonisation would have been related to developing the human resources needed to making mining successful. This seems not to have been the case, though, as policy focused on recruiting those already skilled from abroad and manual labour from within.

#### **4.5.1 Early Policy and Occupations**

The most important single element determining the nature of socio-political development in the country at colonisation appears to have been the overestimation at the end of the nineteenth century of the country's mineral resources by the British South African Company (Arrighi, 1967; Hone, 1909). Arrighi (1967) notes that this overestimation

continued for about fifteen years after colonisation amid the interruptions that characterised the early period of colonisation such as the Jameson Raid, the Matebele and Mashona rebellions and the Boer War. Eventually the Rhodesian gold fields failed to yield deposits comparable to those of South Africa. Large-scale mining was uneconomic because the deposits were scattered and the ore usually of a low quality, leading to a shift from focus on mining to focus on agriculture, especially from 1905 onwards (Phimister, 1988; Ndlela, 1981; Arrighi, 1967). The high expectations on finding rich mineral deposits quickly evaporated and the investors that had poured in a lot of money in anticipation of huge returns started putting pressure on the BSAC to make the colonisation viable. From 1905 onwards, the BSAC started encouraging those interested in farming to come to the country intending to spread the risk on its investment (Ndlela, 1981; Arrighi, 1967). The BSAC intended to recover its heavy financial outlay through the formation of a rural white community which would develop the country and raise the value of its assets, such as the railway system, the mine claims and land, that were mainly in the rural areas. The European population grew steadily from colonisation onwards, and by 1923, most of the population of about 34 000 was concentrated in the mines and farms and was scattered (Blake, 1977; Atkinson, 1972).

The BSAC encouraged the growth of the rural European sector through investment in infrastructure and a deliberate protectionist policy of allocating large tracts of productive land to the whites while restricting Africans to unproductive reserves (Arrighi, 1967). Ndlela (1981) notes that land was divided into European and African areas during the first decade of colonisation. The European area consisted of land on which were all the

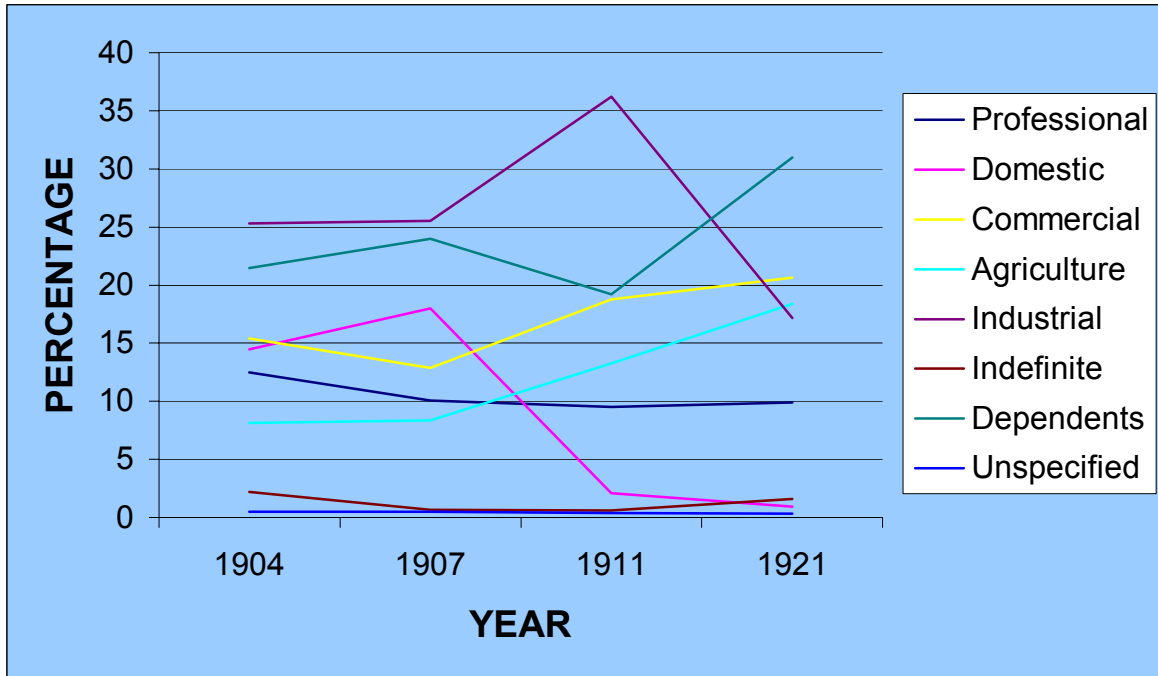
known mineral resources and major transport networks, including all railways and paved roads (Phimister, 1988; Ndlela, 1981). Arrighi (1967) observes that European areas were carefully confined within places with good soils and good rainfall. Those to settle in the European area were recruited for their skills or potential to be productive. The majority of the settlers were, therefore, those with mining or farming skills, craftsmen, administrators and service employees (Arrighi, 1967; Southern Rhodesia Government, 1941). The demand for their labour was concentrated in mining, agriculture, transport (mainly railways) and service activities (especially the civil service). Arrighi (1967) notes that these Europeans, unlike those in other colonies such as South Africa or Algeria, settled as a consequence of, and not as a precedent to, capitalist development in the country. This means, therefore, that they had to be attracted by the offer of high wages, leading to the absence of “poor-white-ism” in the country. These European workers had vested interests in TVE policy growth and development in order to safeguard their skills and privileged position. They were clearly an organised lot and had a lot of influence on their conditions of service, especially with respect to their protection against competition from Africans (Zvobgo, 1994; Arrighi, 1967).

The African population had also increased quite considerably from colonisation to 1923. The BSAC had put in place policies that ensured an abundant supply of cheap unskilled African labour through instituting forced labour and recruiting from neighbouring countries. Measures to ensure forced labour included a Hut Tax introduced in 1894, the Masters and Servants Ordinance amendment of 1898 and the designation of land into African reserves and white owned land where those Africans on white land were to offer

their labour as a condition for staying there (Arrighi, 1967; Hone, 1909). The segregated TVE system that was developed soon after colonisation ensured that Africans did not receive any meaningful TVE to bring them into competition with the settlers of European origin. This led to a situation where the Africans were to remain in supportive occupations to those of European origin. Arrighi (1967; p.22) notes with respect to the country's socio-political environment that existed at around pre-World War II:

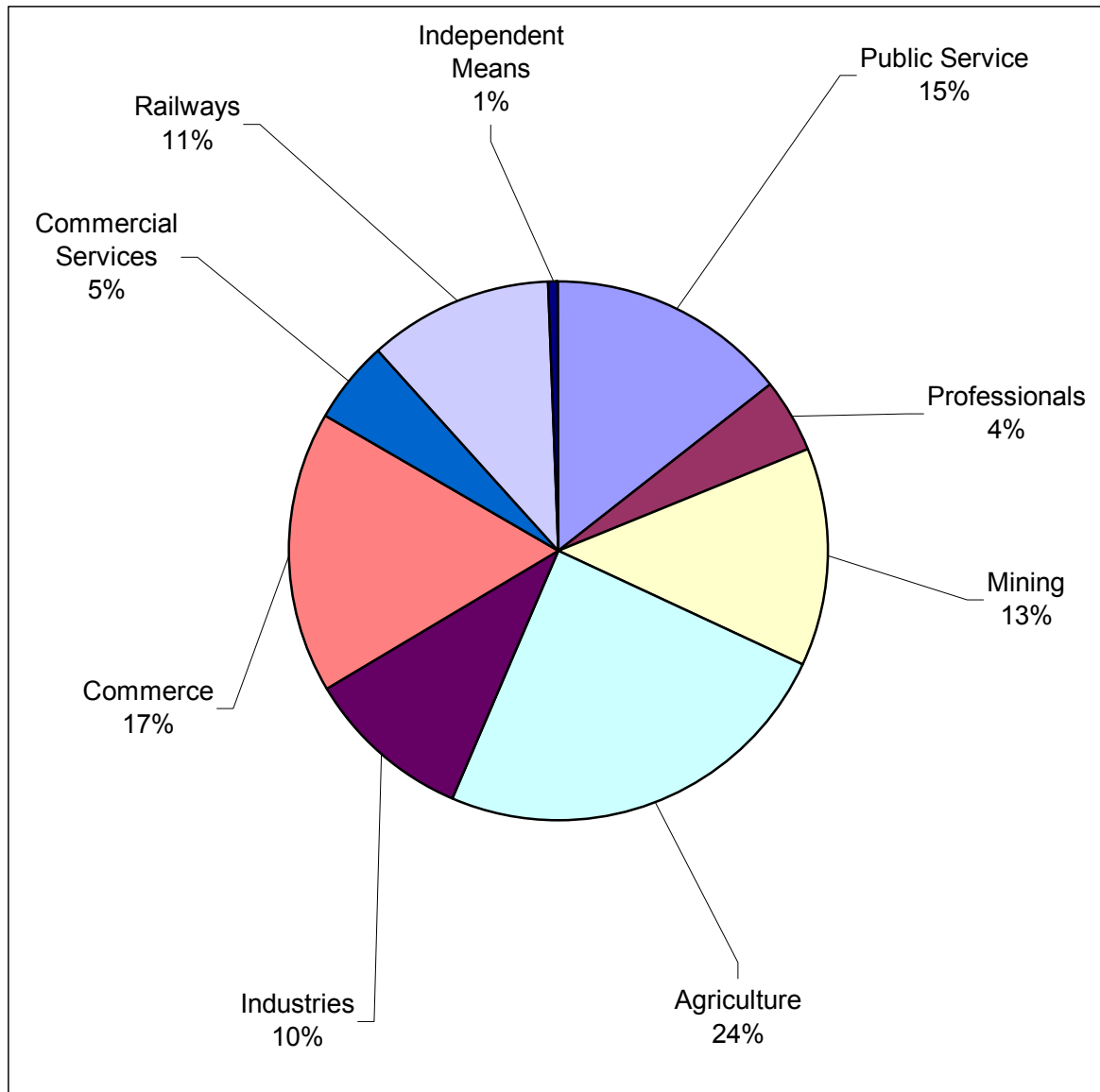
There were (a) the white rural bourgeoisie operating in the mining and agriculture and being national in character; (b) large-scale international capitalism controlling transport (railways) and power (coal) engaged in primary production and speculation in land; (c) the white wage-workers whose entrance into the economy followed and did not precede the capitalist development of the country; (d) the white petty bourgeoisie operating in all sectors of the economy but especially trade; and (e) the African peasantry and wage earners.

The political influence of BSAC officials had been reduced gradually from about 1911 onwards because elected settler representatives, instead of nominated BSAC officials, dominated the Legislative Council (Arrighi, 1967). On the attainment of Responsible Government in 1923, the BSAC's political influence had almost disappeared, with the entire Legislative Assembly then being made up of elected representatives. Figure 4.4 gives the growth and development in occupations during the period 1904 to 1921.



**Figure 4.4: Occupations in Southern Rhodesia: 1904-1921 (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1924; p.53)**

Figure 4.4 shows that agricultural and commercial occupations grew steadily during this period. This is understandable in view of the BSAC's recruitment drive aimed at ensuring the success of the colonial venture in the face of pressure from investors. The fall in industrial and domestic occupations suggests a slowing down of the economy from about fifteen years after colonisation. Figure 4.5 shows that the dominant employers of the country as at 1921 were in Commerce and Industry, Agriculture, the Public Service and Mining.



**Figure 4.5: Occupations As At 1921 Population Census (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1924; p.52).**

Figure 4.5 shows the dominance in occupations within Agriculture, Commerce, the Public Service and Mining. Agriculture registered one of the biggest growths in employment of 125 percent from 1904 to 1921, compared to 34 percent for Commercial, a negative growth of –32 percent for Industrial occupations and a negative growth of –21

percent for professional occupations. TVE policy should have grown and developed to cater for these changes.

The budget allocations from 1905 to 1923 shows that education, at sixty-five percent of the allocation, received the lion's share in government funding when compared to agriculture (twenty percent) and mining (fifteen percent) (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1924). However, the education sector was heavily dominated by primary school education at that time, with TVE activities taking place mainly in the form of evening schools (Atkinson, 1972). Surely, a strong TVE policy was necessary for proving the labour that was required for employment in the rapidly growing sectors of the economy, especially agriculture and the commercial sectors. By 1921, commerce had become the largest employer (employing nearly one-fifth of the population), agriculture coming second, public service (including police, post office, and so on) third, with mining fourth, closely followed by railways and industries (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1924). Data used to construct Figures 4.4 and 4.5 shows that as at 1921, nearly one-quarter of the population depended on agriculture, commerce coming second, public service third and mining running fourth closely followed by railways and industries. TVE policy growth and development had to respond to these realities.

The comparison of budgetary allocations for education, agriculture and mining during the period 1905 to 1923 shows an unequal allocation of financial resources (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1924). Even if education received the lion's share comparatively, the funds were towards grants-in-aid to primary schools. The TVE activities that were

offered in these primary schools were for low-level skills within the economy, bearing in mind the level within the education system at which they were occurring. This suggests that the TVE policy growth and development that occurred during this period was rather out of tune with the needs of the country, especially with respect to higher-level skills that are normally developed at tertiary level.

## **4.6 POLICY IMPLEMENTATION DURING BSAC RULE**

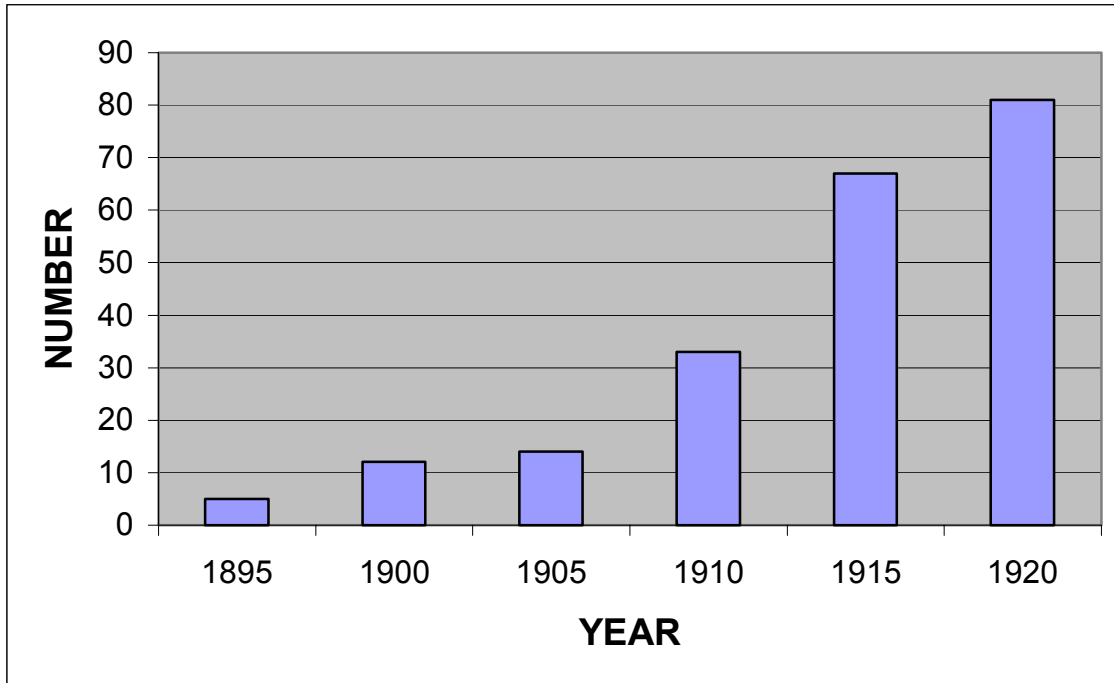
TVE policy during BSAC rule was focused mainly at primary schools since there was no separation between primary, secondary and technical schools at that time. Atkinson (1972) notes that the majority of schools were under missionary authority, with the schools initially offering education and training that was specific to each school. Testing and certification was mainly to South African Standards, especially the South African National Examination Board (Atkinson, 1972; Southern Rhodesia Government, 1900 to 1923). The Inspector of Schools eventually ensured standardisation with respect to TVE through inspections and use of grants-in-aid. TVE for adults was offered in evening schools accommodated within the primary school system.

### **4.6.1 Education for Europeans**

Missionaries introduced formal education for Europeans in Zimbabwe when the Dominican sisters opened the first school for European children in Salisbury (Harare) in

1892 (Southern Rhodesia, 1952). Atkinson (1972) notes that the school was opened in a pole and mud hut with an enrolment of four or five children. From 1892 onwards, missionaries built more schools on land allocated to them for that purpose by the BSAC. Generally, the quality of infrastructure on these early schools and the standard of education were rather poor at this stage in the history of the country (Atkinson, 1972; Southern Rhodesia, 1952). The passing of the Education Ordinance of 1899, therefore, facilitated for the growth and development of education for European children in the colony through the official recognition and funding of complying mission schools. The Ordinance was a first step towards an organised system of education in the country.

The passing of the Education Ordinance of 1903 facilitated for the taking over of schools and the building of new ones by government. The Hole Committee's 1908 recommendations seem to have led to the government participating in the education of European children on a large scale. Thus, from 1908 onwards, government took full control of the education system. Southern Rhodesia (1930) posits that the government undertook an extensive school building programme from then onwards, providing the main education centres with substantial and dignified school buildings. Atkinson (1972) notes that by the end of 1908, ten out of a total of twenty-one European schools were wholly government sponsored. The curriculum was similar to that in English speaking European schools in South Africa (Zvobgo, 1994; Mungazi, 1994). Figure 4.6 shows the growth in schools for Europeans during the period 1895 to 1920.



**Figure 4.6: Europeans Schools in Rhodesia: 1895 – 1920 (Southern Rhodesia, 1952; p.45)**

Figure 4.6 shows that the number of European school grew slowly from 1895 to 1905 then grew at a faster rate from then onwards. The steep rise in the rate of growth seems to be the result of the involvement of government in the building and funding of schools in response to the recommendations of the Hole Committee of 1908. Thus, TVE policy growth and development led to European schools increasing from five in 1895 to eighty-six in 1923.

#### **4.6.2 Evening Schools and Workshops**

By 1900, the Director of Schools noted that night school for adults was being offered at two schools for Europeans, one in Salisbury (Harare) and the other in Bulawayo (Report of the Director of Schools, 1900). Evening lessons were also being given at the railways workshops in Umtali (Mutare) and Bulawayo, and in some mines. The night school and workshops were being used for instruction in TVE programmes for foreign examination bodies, such as City and Guilds of London Institute, Pitman's Institute and the Cape University (Report of the Director of Schools, 1911; p.4). The Director of Schools reported in 1911 that:

Arrangements were made as formerly for students to take the following examinations at local centres; Cape University: Civil Service Lower Law, Law Certificate, LLD, Intermediate BA, and Survey; Cape Education Department, Teachers and Pupil Teachers; City and Guilds of London Institute – Technological examinations in Telegraphy and Telephony; and Pitman's Phonetic Institute examinations for Speed Certificates.

George Duthie, the then Director recommended that the colony established a fully equipped central institution for higher education and training with boarding facilities. He noted that even if such an institution would be somewhat advanced for the country, it would be fully utilised within a short space of time and be of great benefit. According to him, parents would not have to look to other colonies or to Great Britain for a school for

the higher education of their children, and the stability of the colony would be enhanced by such a foundation (Report of the Director of Schools, 1907). However, it took almost twenty years before such a school became a reality since this recommendation eventually led to the birth of the technical high schools in Harare and in Bulawayo in the late 1920s.

### **4.6.3 Education For Asian and Coloured Children**

Asians and Coloureds have always been a minority within the population in Zimbabwe (Zimbabwe Government, 1992; Southern Rhodesia, 1924). The colonial government recognised the need for the education of Asian and Coloured children from the early period of colonisation. For example, the Education Ordinance of 1903 provided for grants-in-aid to schools for Asians and Coloureds, but for some years progress in established schools for them seems to have been slow. Southern Rhodesia (1952) notes that the first government schools for Asian and Coloured children were established at Salisbury (Harare) and Antelope Mine in 1916. In the following year a school was established at Bulawayo under government control, replacing the two aided schools which had existed in that centre. The curriculum in the schools for Asian and Coloured children seems to have been similar to that in schools for European children. At the end of BSAC rule, there were nine schools for Coloureds and Asiatic children in Zimbabwe, seven being maintained entirely by public funds and the curriculum in these schools was the same as that in European schools (Atkinson, 1972; Southern Rhodeia, 1952).

#### **4.6.4 Education For Africans**

As soon as the Pioneer column settled at Fort Salisbury in 1890, the Pioneers were disbanded as an army and were asked to go and peg out farms, on land occupied by Africans, of 3500 acres each and were allowed twelve prospecting licenses for minerals within their pegged out areas (Blake, 1977; Hone, 1909). When efforts to colonise Zimbabwe were shown as being successful, the settlers passed laws to ensure the utilisation of African labour in the new economy. Notable among these is the Master and Servants Act of 1891. As early as 1894, a hut tax was introduced with the aim of forcing “natives” to seek work for cash incomes (Blake, 1977; Arrighi, 1967; Hone, 1909). Arrighi (1967; p.29) notes that the BSAC ensured forced labour from the Africans through: (a) the expropriation of land while encouraging the disposed peasantry to remain where they were as tenants, their rent being commuted for labour; (b) a hut tax which virtually compelled the adult African males to spend between one and three months a year in wage-employment; and (c) a Pass Law intended to direct labour where it was wanted. African agriculture was stifled via measures aimed at controlling the production of cash crops in the country and their mining rights were taken over by the settlers. Mungazi (1992) notes that the indigenous Africans resisted these measures, leading to the Matebele War of 1893 and the Mashona War of 1896. When the rebellions were squashed, the BSAC appointed a number of “native commissioners” to maintain law and order in “native reserves” (Passmore, 1972). These native commissioners were chosen from ex-troopers, ex-policemen, traders, and men who had held administrative positions in South Africa, especially in Natal (Blake, 1977; Passmore, 1972). Passmore (1972)

notes that the native commissioners' their work was to keep in touch with the Africans, act as arbitrators in disputes, and explain the colonial administration's policies to the Africans. The commissioners formed the nucleus of the first Native Affairs Department that was formally created by the High Commissioner's Proclamation of 1902 (Hone, 1909; Passmore, 1972). The Government of Zimbabwe (1984; p.12) notes:

By 1902, mining capital was facing a reproductive crisis which led to a crisis of mining in 1903. This crisis was basically a Labour crisis. The reconstruction of the mining industry then depended on the solution of the labour problem... The solution ... lay in implementing mechanisms for the creation of a cheap supply of labour-power.

It is interesting to note that a solution was not to be found in an appropriate TVE policy but in forced labour. The cheap source lay in foreign recruitment and the utilisation of the indigenous African population as unskilled labour. The Rhodesia Native Labour Bureau (RNLB) was formed in 1903 and its sole purpose was to secure for the mines a cheap pool of contracted unskilled native labour at a definite minimum wage (Blake, 1977; Arrighi, 1967). The forced labour system (often referred to as '*Chibharo*', a Shona word for oppression/use of force) was extended to other economic activities, such as agriculture and commerce. It enabled mining companies to lower wages between 1906 and 1908 while expanding the labour supply (Government of Zimbabwe, 1984; Passmore, 1972; Arrigi, 1967).

It is with the foregoing in mind that an analysis with respect to TVE policy growth and development for Africans during the early colonial period should be made. The foundations for this TVE policy growth and development were laid with the sole aim of ensuring that African labour was sourced without prior technical and vocational education. This labour was to be unskilled or of low-level skills for supportive roles while whites assumed skilled, supervisory and managerial roles (Passmore, 1972; Atkinson, 1972).

A Committee of Inquiry into Native Affairs with special reference to education was set up in 1910. Among other recommendations, the Committee recommended that government training institutes for Africans be established for agricultural and industrial skills. It also recommended the establishment of a government department to focus on native affairs and the establishment of a government central training institute for native teachers. However, for nine years, no effect was given to these recommendations. Cuerden (1981) observes that H. S. Keigwin, who was secretary to the 1910 Committee, was appointed Native Commissioner and served in that capacity from 1914 to 1918, a period in which he was impressed by the home industries skills of the Africans. In 1920, Keigwin was appointed the first Director of a Native Development in the Department of Native Affairs. His philosophy for African development was that the community should be built up as the local unit of action, leading to the community becoming homogeneous and the development of a feeling of collective identity of interest and a mutual desire for common purpose (Cuerden, 1981). It is clear that this sort of training was not meant for

the development of meaningful high-level technical and vocational skills for the mainstream economy because it focused on rural communities.

Keigwin's views and influence led to the establishment of two training centres for Africans in agriculture and industrial skills in the early 1920s. Up to 1920, the only facilities for TVE for Africans were in mission schools, with government focusing on European schools only. The first government schools to train Africans in vocational skills were set up at Domboshava and Tjolotjo in 1920 and 1921, respectively (Rasmussen, 1979; Atkinson, 1972; Passmore, 1972). These were primary schools for Africans enabling them to learn such skills as carpentry, stone masonry, bricklaying, shoemaking, blacksmithing and gardening. The graduates were then supposed to impart these skills in their African communities. This policy later developed into the concept of "Community Development" which was adopted as a national policy by the Rhodesian Government in 1962 (Passmore, 1972).

#### **4.7 ANALYSIS OF GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT: 1890 - 1923**

The early colonisation period seems to have been characterised by a laissez-faire approach to TVE activities in which missionaries took the largest responsibility for providing technical and vocational education locally. TVE policy growth during BSAC rule was characterized by the passing of the Masters and Servants Ordinance of 1891 and the Education Ordinance of 1899 and its amendments. The TVE policy development was evidenced the introduction of the first formal TVE system in the country, financial

support to the education and training system through payment of government grants-in-aid, establishment of government TVE institutions and a system of monitoring for quality. The discussion below analyses TVE policy growth and development during this period with respect to Research Questions a) to d). Research Questions e) and f) will be discussed in Chapters 5 and 6.

#### **4.7.1 How Did Policy Grow and Develop During BSAC Rule**

The first formal policies affecting TVE activities in Zimbabwe were passed in 1891 and 1899. The Masters and servants Ordinance of 1891 had provisions and conditions for the apprenticeship of minors in the country. The Education Ordinance of 1899 had provisions for ‘Industrial Training’ in schools. The Education Ordinance of 1899 was replaced by the Education Ordinance of 1903, which was amended in 1907, 1910, 1914, 1917 and 1921. Thus, TVE policy growth during BSAC rule was characterised by the introduction of a new formal policy, review and replacement of that policy, and amendments to the policy. The major growth aspects were the amendments to grants-in-aid and the stipulation of areas to be covered, the increased requirements for industrial training in schools, the building of new government schools and boarding houses and the establishment of a department of education. The policy development aspects included setting up of a monitoring system, expansion of the system with respect to levels on offer and the local training of teachers. Nevertheless, the TVE policy growth and development seems to have been out of sync with socio-economic development because of the BSAC’s heavy reliance on expatriates for the labour requirements of the economy.

#### **4.7.2 The Political, Social and Economic Influences on Policy: 1890-1923**

The main political influences on TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe during the period 1890 to 1923 were the occupation of the country by the British South African Company using authority from the Queen of England, the establishment of an administration structure based on Anglo Saxon culture and institutions, the early political disturbances that resulted in the defeat in battle of the local African peoples, the dominance of the European race over indigenous Africans, the government of the United Kingdom superintending the overall policy formulation process but never intervening to correct anomalies within the policy (such as racial segregation and focus on low level skills), the impact of political events in South Africa and the dominance of elected white settlers in the policy formulation process. These political influences led to the creation of a TVE policy growth and development environment that valued foreign models and ideals at the expense of local initiative and creativity. The consequences of these political influences were the introduction of the first formal Western type TVE policy within the country; the imposition of Western culture, norms and values; the establishment of a racially segregated TVE system that produced low-level skills; a heavy reliance on expatriates for higher level skills; and the heavy reliance on missionaries for the provision of education and training. Nevertheless, the new political environment was responsible for sowing the seed for TVE policy growth and development.

The social factors that influenced TVE policy growth and development during BSAC rule included the Charter's requirement for uplifting the lives of the indigenous Africans; the settlers' belief in the superiority of European (especially Anglo-Saxon) institutions and traditions over African ones; the need to protect the interests of the settlers who were recruited already skilled and were geographically scattered; a high regard for elitist education and training as practiced in European (especially English) schools and colleges; and the influence on the policy formulation process of senior company officials. The consequences of these social factors were the dominance of missionaries in TVE activities, the creation of racially segregated urban and rural settlements, establishment of racially segregated schools and the development of government schools for those of European origin only until 1920.

The economic influences on TVE policy growth and development during BSAC rule included the desire to guarantee a return on investment to those who had financed the colonial venture, establishment of a Capitalist economic culture dominated by large international companies, the need to pay good salaries in order to attract those with the skills needed within the economy and the cheaper cost of locally based human resources development. These economic factors impacted rather negatively on TVE policy growth and development in that the BSAC generally regarded TVE policy growth and development as an economic liability and gave it a low level priority, relying on expatriates who appeared cheaper to recruit when compared with training within the country. Economic considerations seem to have been the main reasons why

recommendations from commissions of enquiry on TVE policy reform were not immediately implemented, or never implemented at all.

### **4.7.3 The Effects of International Trends on Policy Growth and Development**

From the onset, local TVE policy was modeled on practices in South Africa where the pioneer colony that colonised the country originated from. At the time of colonisation, Cecil John Rhodes was a legislator in the Cape Colony of South Africa. Rhodes' memorandum to Earl Grey formed the basis for the Education Ordinance of 1899. The Masters and Servants Ordinance of 1891 referred heavily to South African legislation.

The use of expatriates as teachers, educational administrators and chairman of commissions of inquiry into education and training ensured infusion of ideas from abroad into the TVE policy growth and development process. The use of foreign syllabi and examinations within the TVE system was a way of guaranteeing foreign influence into the TVE system. International trends at this period included the widespread adoption of the German vocational education model, the passing of the American Smith-Hughes Act of 1918 that provided for federal support for vocational education programmes for the first time, the establishment of an Education Board in the United Kingdom in 1899, the passing of the English Education Act of 1902 that abolished school boards and established Local Education Authorities, and the passing of the English Education Act of 1918 that increased central grants to Local Education Authorities. Thus, the international

trend in TVE policy growth and development at that time seemed to be towards increased state involvement in the funding and provision of TVE. This seems to have played a part in the amendments to the Zimbabwean Education Ordinances that led to increased state involvement in education and training activities.

#### **4.7.4 Graduates and Socio-Economic Development**

The BSAC seems to have relied heavily on expatriate labour and TVE policy growth and development seems to have played second fiddle to general education policy and the education of the young children. This is because of the government's focus on the provision of primary education and the training of low level skills. TVE policy through Education Ordinances during BSAC rule focused on industrial training and produced graduates who did not match the expectations of employers (Mungazi, 1990; Atkinson, 1972). Arrigi (1967) observed that identified human resources requirements were largely met through foreign recruitment. Mungazi (1990) notes that most graduates of industrial training ended up unemployed or working as general hands. One may conclude, therefore, that TVE policy growth and development during BSAC rule was not seriously aimed at providing the human resource needed for achieving national social-economic development objectives.

## 4.8 SUMMARY

This Chapter has posited that the foundations of TVE policy growth and development in this country were laid by the British South African Company that set up a colonial government in 1980. The first research question asks how TVE policy grew and developed in Zimbabwe. Data that were identified in response to this question indicates that growth was evidenced by the passing of Masters and Servants Ordinance of 1891 and the Education Ordinance of 1899 and its amendments. These acts had provisions governing the apprenticeship of minor children and the provision of industrial training in schools. TVE policy development was characterised by the setting up of the first formal TVE policy for the country and the realigning of the new policy with the requirements of the country through appropriate amendments to the policy. The main social, political and economic influences on TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe during the period 1890 to 1923 were the occupation of the country by the British South African Company, the establishment of an administration structure based on Anglo Saxon culture and institutions, the dominance of the European race over indigenous Africans, the support for missionaries and cooperate enterprise by the BSAC, the impact of political events in South Africa and the dominance of elected white settlers in the policy formulation process.

The TVE policy that evolved was sadly not very clear and focused on the needs of the fledgling economy. This is mainly because local TVE programmes that developed during BSAC rule were for producing low-level skills as evidence by the level of education (that

is primary school) at which they were occurring, while the higher-level skills were supposed to be sourced from outside the country. However, by the end of BSAC rule, sentiments for the establishment of local institutions to offer locally based higher-level skills were getting louder and the government responded by encouraging the introduction of evening classes for adults and the introduction of two institutions for the training of Africans at Domboshava and Tjolotjo in 1920 and 1921, respectively.

In view of the foregoing, one may conclude that TVE policy growth and development during BSAC rule was heavily guided by international trends, especially what was happening in South Africa and the United Kingdom but was not in tandem with socio-economic development objectives. This is mainly because of the TVE system's focus on low-level skills and on a minority section of the population and a rather high graduate underutilisation. Access to TVE programmes was not universal since participation was along racial lines. Programmes were monitored for quality, but the quality benchmarks were low as evidenced by the production of low-level operatives only. The programmes addressed needs identified through committees and commissions of inquiry, with some of their significant recommendations being ignored. TVE respected traditional Euro-centric values only and ignored traditional African values. Having discussed TVE policy growth and development under BSAC rule, Chapter 5 that follows looks at TVE policy growth and development during the period of Responsible Government, that is, from 1924 to 1980.

## **CHAPTER 5**

### **TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION POLICY GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT DURING RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT: 1924 - 1980**

#### **5.0 INTRODUCTION**

Formal TVE policy was established in Zimbabwe and went through limited growth and development during 1890 to 1923 when the country was under BSAC rule. The TVE policy that evolved was racist, focused on low level skills and was copied from South Africa and Britain. Towards the end of BSAC rule, the settlers' socio-political interests were heightened by the intense political activity that took place. It appears the decision not to join the Union of South Africa presented a challenge to the settlers to make the economy of the country a success story (Ndlela, 1981; Arrighi, 1967). When the Responsible Government took over from BSAC rule in 1923 it immediately set out to review educational policy in order to chart out a direction suitable for the country's new socio-political environment. The numerous commissions of inquiry into education and training that were put in place during this period suggest a heightened interest in that field. This chapter discusses the TVE policy growth and development that occurred

during the period of responsible government (1923 to 1979) when the country was ruled on the basis of a national constitution.

## **5.1 BRITISH EDUCATIONAL POLICY IN AFRICA (1925)**

Being a British colony, TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe was influenced by colonial policy on education and training. It appears the British government's major concern with education in the colonies after the First World War was with the welfare of the indigenous peoples. One may assume that this was because the education for the settlers and their children was supposed to be the responsibility of the countries of their origin, where their technical and vocational education was supposed to take place (Fafunwa & Aisiku, 1982; Batey, 1955). British policy in the colonies in the early twentieth century seems to have been influenced by the two Phelps-Stokes Fund sponsored Committees that inquired on education and training in Africa. It is clear that the reports from these Committees greatly influenced colonial powers in interpreting and accepting their responsibilities in the education of African peoples. For example, in response to the Committees' reports, the British Secretary of State for the Colonies appointed an Advisory Committee on Native Education in the British Tropical African Dependencies in 1923. The Committee was to advise him on educational matters and to assist him in advancing the progress of education in British Tropical Africa. In March 1925, the Committee presented a report that influenced British educational policy in Africa for a long time to come. The report presented thirteen (13) guidelines for a sound educational policy that included: (i) governments themselves to take control of education

policy; (ii) education to be adapted to the mentality, aptitudes, occupations and traditions of the various peoples while conserving, as far as possible, all sound and healthy elements in the fabric of their social life; (iii) the education service was to attract the best men from Britain; (iv) a thorough system of inspection of schools was essential; (v) technical and industrial training was best given in a system of apprenticeship in government workshops, with the training of village crafts clearly differentiated from the training of the mechanic; (vi) vocational, other than industrial, training was to be carried out through a system of learners in government departments; (vii) the education of women and girls was vitally important; and (viii) a complete educational system would include primary (including infant) education, secondary education of different types; technical and vocational education schools and institutions, some of which were to reach university rank (Batey, 1955).

This policy framework surely contributed towards the growth and development of TVE policy in British colonial Africa, especially Zimbabwe, specifically with respect to higher education and technical education. It also influenced developments in TVE policy formulation. For example, the recommendations of the Zimbabwean commissions on education and training that followed made recommendations very similar to those of the Advisory Committee (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1962, 1929, 1924). From the publication of the Advisory Committee's recommendations, the education system in the country was divided into primary, secondary and technical education in 1930, a move in line with the recommendations. The Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934 laid out the requirements for apprenticeship training that seemed to relate to the recommendations

(Mothobi, 1978; Southern Rhodesia Government, 1962). These changes were growth and development from the Master and Servants Act of 1891 and the Education Ordinances of 1899 and 1903. The extensive expatriate recruitment drive for personnel to work in the education and training system that was undertaken by the colonial government appears to have been in line with a recommendation to recruit from Britain contained in the Educational Policy for British Tropical Africa of 1925. When the Technical High School was set up in Bulawayo in 1927, almost all the principals and teachers for the institution up to 1980 were recruited from the United Kingdom. This is understandable, bearing in mind that the colonial venture was funded from British resources and there was a strong influence from that country.

The paper by the Advisory Committee led to the passing of the Education Policy in British Tropical Africa Act of 1925. Batey (1955) notes that an Advisory Committee provided a fresh set of recommendations in 1935 entitled, “The Education of African Communities,” that laid emphasis on the co-operation of the schools and other education agencies to raise the whole level of community life. The resultant policy within the colonial power influenced TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe.

## **5.2 ZIMBABWE’S SOCIO-POLITICAL ENVIRONMENT: 1924-1980**

TVE policy growth and development is definitely influenced by socio-political changes, making it jelly-like in nature because it is based on fragile compromises between

influential groups in society, affecting TVE policy to have a tendency to change in line with the views of the dominant social group. Towards the expiry of its mandate to rule the country, the BSAC favoured Responsible Government for economic reasons while the settlers chose Responsible Government because they were worried by the dominance of the Boers in the Republic of South Africa and, therefore, chose to have their own system of government (Ndlela, 1981; Arrighi, 1967). This necessitated a change in the focus of the country's socio-political systems from the Republic of South Africa to the United Kingdom.

Notable developments during the period from 1923 to 1980 include the worldwide economic depression of the 1930s, the Second World War in 1945, the post Second World War boom in manufacturing in Rhodesia, the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland from 1953 to 1963, the Unilateral Declaration of Independence in 1965, the rise in African nationalism from 1959 to 1979 that culminated in the war of liberation and a political settlement in 1979 that led to the country's independence in 1980. TVE policy growth and development during the period 1923 to 1980 was heavily influenced by the colonial government's desire to reorient the TVE system from South African influence to that of the United Kingdom, thus reform towards a more racially accommodative system and the production of higher-level skills.

### **5.2.1 International Influences**

The Responsible Government was established after a referendum on the issue had rejected union with South Africa. This suggests that the socio-political activities within the country that were based on practices in South Africa had to be reviewed to focus elsewhere. The obvious choice was the United Kingdom, as the colonial power. This is why when apprenticeship was formalised in 1934, it was a striking replica of practice in the United Kingdom (Southern Rhodesia, 1962). The leaders or chairmen of committees of inquiry were generally recruited from the United Kingdom, with only one being recruited from Australia, a colony still under the British crown at the present moment.

It appears as if, from Responsible Government onwards, TVE policy in the country grew and developed in a direction that strongly imitated practices in the United Kingdom. For example, when a university was established in the country, it became a college of the University of London and its Education Department was linked to the University of Birmingham (University of Zimbabwe, 1990). However, the link with South Africa was not completely cut. Even if the funds for the colonial venture had come from Britain, the original pioneer column had come from South Africa, and Zimbabwe and South Africa share a common border. This link may be seen in the fact that the University of Zimbabwe has carried out joint research with South African universities from its inception to date. The technical college curriculum that was introduced in the late 1920s was basically a South African one, but it gradually moved to City and Guilds of London Institute syllabuses (Technical School Magazines, 1930-1950).

The formalisation of racial segregation in the form of apartheid in South Africa in 1948 seems to have affected the socio-economic environment in Rhodesia. For example, the resistance to racial integration by the dominant local social groups, especially white trade unions, suggests a link with South African practices. This resistance led to the strengthening of the racially segregated TVE system and the fall of governments that were viewed as sympathetic to the cause of the advancement of Africans in the country (Zvobgo, 1994; Mungazi, 1993). Therefore, the strongest international influence on TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe continued to be from South Africa and Britain.

### **5.2.2 The Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland**

When the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland was formalised in 1953, TVE provisions for Europeans became the responsibility of the Rhodesian Government while that for Africans was made the responsibility of the Federal Government, a situation which ensured the continued retardation of its growth and development through under-funding due to wide spreading of limited resources. The Federation ended in 1963 mainly because the rulers in Rhodesia were resisting pressure from the colonial master to accommodate the political wishes of the Africans within the colonies (Zvobgo, 1994; Mungazi, 1993). The federation period witnessed the establishment of the University of Rhodesia, the passing of the Apprenticeship Act of 1959 and the setting up of the 1962 Committee of Inquiry into Education. The Rhodesia Front Party that came into power in

1965 was more racist than previous governments. It took steps to ensure that Africans were not made more active politically in Rhodesia.

### **5.2.3 The Unilateral Declaration of Independence**

The Rhodesia Front Party made a Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) on 11 November 1965 mainly because of the strong moves that had been initiated by the colonial master soon after the break up of the Federation to put in place a government that would eventually lead to political independence (Zvobgo, 1994; Ndlela, 1981). UDI meant that the Rhodesia government was no longer controlled by decisions made by the government of the United Kingdom. The economic sanctions that followed UDI, however, resulted in the Rhodesian Government re-establishing links with South Africa in the areas where these had been severed or weakened. It also required a socio-political environment that focused on neutralising the effects of these sanctions. However, the war of liberation that intensified soon after UDI had a bearing on TVE policy growth and development, with the Rhodesian Government battling to put in place compromises with respect to TVE policy for Africans. For example, the establishment of technical secondary schools (commonly referred to as the F2 system) after introduction of a new policy in 1966 was meant to offer technical and vocational education opportunities to the Africans, but African civic leaders rejected this system since it was designed for only one race and was seen as a watered down version of an appropriate TVE system (Mumbengegwi, 1986; Mutumbuka, 1981).

### **5.3 EDUCATION COMMISSIONS AND POLICY**

Arrighi (1967) notes that as soon as Responsible Government was established in 1923, it became advantageous for the country's rulers to embark on ambitious schemes of forward planning in almost every aspect of life, TVE policy included. The number of commissions and committees of inquiry on education and training that were set up by the new government within the first few years of Responsible Government are evidence to this fact. It appears most of the commissions of inquiry were on African education after the country was visited in 1924 by the commission on the education of the indigenous African people under the auspices of the Phelps-Stoke Fund of New York. This Commission's report had noted that the "Community Development" work already started by Keigwin had to be supported by government through larger financial aid. Government had to participate in education and training and the cooperation of missionaries in that field was commendable (Passmore, 1972). This prompted the government to set up its own commissions to investigate and recommend on education and training related issues.

A total of five commissions of inquiry with a bearing on TVE policy were set up between 1923 and 1980. A commission on Native Education, the Hadfield Commission, was set up in 1924 and it presented its report to parliament in 1925. A second commission on education, the Tate Commission, presented its report in 1929. A third commission, the Fox Commission, reported in 1936 and a fourth commission, the Kerr Commission, reported in 1952. A fifth commission, the Judges Commission reported in 1962. As

discussed below, these commissions produced interesting recommendations that had a strong influence on TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe.

### **5.3.1 The Hadfield Commission (1925)**

At about the time the Phelps-Stokes funded commission of inquiry was presenting its report on the education of African peoples, the Rhodesia government set up a commission to look into the issue of the education and training of natives. The Hadfield Commission's recommendations included the following on TVE policy for Natives; (a) Native education be controlled by a sub-department of the Education Department, with the ultimate aim of separating the Native Education Department; (b) Domboshava was to be the training institute for agricultural and industrial teachers and demonstrators, and had to ultimately meet the demand for higher education; (c) Pottery, basket-making and other home or kraal crafts were not to be taught at government schools; (d) the Department of Agriculture was to develop Native agriculture; and (e) the industrial course for teachers' training was to be more fully laid down and to have an agricultural bias (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1925; pp.54-67).

Most of the above recommendations of the Hadfield Commission were implemented almost immediately, leading to TVE policy growth and development. The TVE policy growth aspects were the increase in policy provisions on TVE activities as evidenced by the additional requirements on the TVE system, such as increased output and new areas of training. The development aspects were the setting up of a new department to focus on

African education and training. However, the narrow focus of the policy and the racial segregation within the system was strengthened. This segregation was very similar to practices in South African and in other British colonies. At that time, TVE systems that segregated on racial lines existed in Kenya, Northern Rhodesia and other British colonies in Africa and Asia (Atchoarena, 1996; Fafunwa & Aisiku, 1982). It was unfortunate, however, that Pottery, Basket-making and other home or kraal crafts were not to be taught at government schools since these were the backbone of rural crafts that the colonialists, as admitted by Keigwin, had admired. These crafts were at the core of traditional activities and refining these skills to produce high quality traditional artifacts in schools should have led to a better quality of economic and social development within rural communities. This recommendation on traditional crafts by the Hadfield Committee was in conformity with the British policy of 1925 that required that training in traditional crafts be separated from the training of the mechanic. Traditional crafts were, therefore, left out in the activities of the mainstream economy of the country. Leaving out training in traditional crafts placed a narrow focus on the training at Domboshava and Tjolotjo and limited the chances for the development of scientific techniques to produce high-quality traditional crafts by the Africans. This was not in the national interest but it suited a colonial government that was bent on protecting employment opportunities for the settlers, and on focusing on economic activities dependent on settler skills.

### **5.3.2 The Tate Commission (1929)**

The Tate Commission of 1929 was set up to investigate the issue of education and training in the country, to include both that for the Europeans and non-Europeans. By the time the Commission was set up, the Bulawayo Technical School had been established in 1927 to train local white youths who could not make it academically. The Commission noted in its report that the Technical School was doing a sterling job in providing technical and vocational education to white youths who were taking on employment in industry and commerce. However, the school was at that time joined to a junior school, a situation that did not please the Commission. The other recommendations of the Tate Commission that had an influence on TVE policy growth and development included that (a) the scope of the Bulawayo Technical School be extended by the addition of classes in more advanced technical subjects, (b) evening classes for youth and others in employment be conducted and further developed in such centres as Salisbury (Harare) and Umtali (Mutare) and in smaller centres, such as Eiffel Flats, where co-operation with the mine authorities could be secured; (c) evening classes were to be established for youths in employment; (d) a representative council of persons in industry be established for the school; (e) wherever practically suitable, theoretical and practical training in agriculture was to be introduced into the school curricula; (f) farmers' Associations in Rhodesia were to co-operate with the schools in developing schemes in Agriculture; (g) the Matopos School was best run under the Agriculture Department; and (h) a school of forestry had to be established in the country (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1929; pp.74 - 155).

The Tate Commission came at a time when TVE policy was still at its infancy in the country. Even if training had started in earnest at the Bulawayo Technical School and at night schools in Harare and Mutare, it was still at a small scale and was failing to meet the needs of industry. The range of courses was still narrow and the country heavily relied on those trained outside for technical, managerial and other higher-level skills. For example, most of the civil servants, including teachers for white schools, were trained in South Africa or England and teachers for African schools were generally untrained (Atkinson, 1972). The quality of teachers in the country's African schools was very low and the Commission recommended a system of grants based on the qualification of teachers instead of the per capita system that existed at that time. This led to staff development for those in post through "suitability" training courses that were then offered for African teachers at mission centres from 1929 onwards (Zvobgo, 1994; Atkinson, 1972). Atkinson (1972) posits that suitability training for teachers resulted in an improved quality of education in African schools.

The TVE policy growth that emerged from the Tate Commission's recommendations included the Workmen's Compensation Act of 1930 and the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934. The development aspects were the requirements for the monitoring of training within industry and the involvement of employers and trade unions in the training of industrial labour. Nevertheless, the Committee's recommendations strengthened the existing situation of two separate and distinct TVE policy systems that ensured the channeling of Europeans into high-level jobs while limiting Africans to menial

supportive jobs, a situation criticised in recommendations from later commissions of inquiry on education and training (Zimbabwe Government, 2002; Zvobgo, 1994).

### **5.3.3 The Fox Commission (1935)**

The Fox Commission (1935) agreed with the Tate Commission that the Bulawayo Technical School was doing a sterling job in training young European children. The report observed that “... the practical side was particularly impressive, both owing to the busy atmosphere and the way in which the students carried out their individual tasks, following a Graded course and producing well finished, crafts-man-like articles of really good quality” (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1935; p.20). The other observations and recommendations of the Fox Commission included: (a) there be a clear-cut division between primary, secondary, and technical education; (b) the compulsory school going age be raised to 16 years so that all pupils may have four years of secondary education; (c) the Bulawayo Technical School needed to participate in the financial benefit available for other secondary schools; (d) pupils should enter the (Bulawayo) school after two years at a secondary school; (e) the Bulawayo Technical School be regarded as the technical school centre for the whole of Rhodesia; (f) the Bulawayo Technical School should cater for commerce as it had done for industry, and for the special educational requirements of girls; (g) the school of mines (at the Bulawayo Technical School) should provide correspondence courses for learners in employment, and a peripatetic instructor should be available to supervise this work; (h) evening classes be set up wherever a demand can be created and that these classes be inspected; (i) there should be facilities

for vocational training in agriculture; (j) vocational training for girls in appropriate subjects be provided; and (k) the policy of recruiting a proportion of teachers from England should continue.

The Fox Commission recommendations led to the separation of the education system into primary, secondary and technical education for the first time. This created an environment conducive for a TVE policy growth and development, a situation different to what was prevailing up to that time since technical and vocational was considered at junior school level within the general education system. The introduction of distance education for the mining industry was an important development since it enabled the imparting of skills in practicing miners without them having to attend the Bulawayo Technical School for long periods of time, a development that was welcomed by the employers in that industry as evidenced by their support of the programmes (Taylor, 1979; Technical School Magazine, 1938). This was an important development since it created an environment in which policy focusing on TVE could grow and develop in a direction appropriate for the needs of commerce and industry.

#### **5.3.4 The Kerr Commission (1952)**

The Kerr Commission 1952 focused on Native education. It observed that the policy of industrial education introduced by the Education Ordinance of 1899 had been aimed at enabling schools to develop Native industries but had ended up producing semi-skilled carpenters, builders and farmers (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1952). The Kerr

Commission (1952) observed that at the time of the inquiry, TVE for Africans was being offered in only eight centres. These were identified as Tegwane, Mzingwane, Domboshava, Inyati, Mt. Silinda, Empandeni, Waddilove and Alvord School of Agriculture. It is this researcher's view that the TVE on offer in those African schools was narrower than that offered in TVE institutions for Europeans since it was limited to carpentry, building, agriculture and woodwork. Other industrial skills, such as accounting, electrical and mechanical engineering were not on offer for Africans. The Kerr Commission (1952) identified a great need for expansion of the facilities for TVE for Africans to cater for the neglected skill areas and to meet national demand for these skills. The desire by the policy makers to limit the range and level of skills that could be offered to Africans led to this recommendation not being implemented. The Kerr Commission (1952) observed that even if the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934 implied that Africans could be employed in any industry, trade or occupation, employers would not apprentice Africans in any trade because they were afraid that European journeymen would stop work if they did so. This was despite the fact that there was a great need for the training of Africans in the skilled areas beyond the general education level to meet the requirements of the country. The Kerr Commission's recommendation on TVE policy for Africans included that; (a) a two-stream policy for boys and girls be instituted above Standard III – namely, a general-education stream and a vocational biased stream; (b) the period of training for all post-Standard VI Industrial Courses be of three years duration; (c) the Native Engineering Department and Municipalities having departments concerned with construction work in African townships co-operate in the training of Africans in their workshops and on outside work, by giving a further two years of training under

direction and supervision of trainees who complete their period of school training in a satisfactory manner; (d) at Domboshava and Mzingwane courses be instituted for the training of plumbers and garage hands; (e) Day Trades Schools should be established in Bulawayo and Salisbury (Harare) which would train Fitters and turners, electricians and sheet-metal workers; (f) courses in Commerce leading to the National Junior Certificate and National Senior Certificate be made available in government secondary schools; (g) part-time classes in bookkeeping, typing, commercial arithmetic and commerce, open to Africans who have passed Standard VI, be made available at the government schools in the larger African townships; (h) the subject of agriculture be given much more importance in the curriculum of teacher training schools; (i) a selected number of African women be sent for a year's training in the African Nursery School of Natal; (j) three government teacher training schools be set up, one for women and two for men; (k) the Native Development Act be repealed, and be substituted by an African Education Act creating a Department of African Education and giving the Director of African Education powers and functions similar to those of the Director of Native Development; and (l) a polytechnic system for Africans be established in Salisbury or Bulawayo at which ground-work in semi-skilled occupations will be intensively taught.

The Kerr Commission's recommendations led to the establishment of a Department of Native Education and the establishment of TVE in government technical high schools (such as at Luveve) (Zvobgo, 1994; Atkinson, 1972). From publication of the Kerr Committee's recommendations, a limited amount of TVE for Africans gradually developed, leading to the production of African artisans in the areas of building,

carpentry and in commercial skills (Mungazi, 1992; Mumbengegwi, 1986). Nevertheless, the focus was still on low-level skills, with the expatriate workers preventing the training of Africans in the majority of high-level skills in industry. This means that even if the legislative framework for TVE for all races was now in place, negative attitudes from the European settlers, who were supposed to the implementation these programmes, prevented Africans from benefiting from the TVE policy in place.

### **5.3.5 The Judges Commission (1962)**

The Judges Commission was set up in 1961 and it presented its report in 1962. Its mandate was to consider the existing position of education falling within the responsibility of the Southern Rhodesia Government and the future development of the education for its people, having regard to the cultural, social and economic needs of the country and its individual citizens (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1962). The Commission warned that "... a steadily increasing economy demands annual addition to the numerous sections of the force of professional, skilled and semi-skilled workers at something above replacement rate; and such a buoyant economy should enable the Government, by planning measures, to make provision for filling the gaps before they appear" (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1962; p.16). The Judges Commission Report gave 147 recommendations that included: (a) the establishment of local Advisory Committees which would advise the central Government, on the relationship of pre-vocational training to employment and training facilities in their neighbourhoods; (b) the extension of the diploma courses at Gwebi and Chibero Agricultural colleges where

admission was to Europeans only to admit students of all races; (c) Government needed to vest in some authority such as Apprenticeship Board the power to set in motion the acceptance of trainees and to give them final recognition as qualified craftsmen; (d) the work of the three senior technical colleges should be organised within a concerted national scheme on a non-racial basis; (e) the development of vocational education to have a much closer co-operation from industry and commerce; (f) the broadening of opportunities for entry into office employment and commercial careers; (g) the partnership in the work of training teachers between State and voluntary effort had to be strengthened; and (h) young people, when they arrive in the schools or colleges, should be given a clear and explicit explanation about the way in which discipline is maintained, and circumstances under which, for academic or professional reasons, students should be advised to withdraw, or, if they decline, be sent away.

The recommendations of the Hadfield, Tate, Fox, Kerr and Judges Commissions led to one of the most intensive TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe as evidenced by the resultant legislation that followed. The above committees of inquiry resulted in the review of BSAC rule policies of the early twentieth century that were focusing on low-level skills and were segregating the TVE system along racial lines. Technical and vocational education continued to be regarded as being for the not so intelligent white youths while the intelligent ones were supposed to get university and higher-level skills training outside the country, especially in South Africa and the United Kingdom. This trend continued right up to the establishment of a university college in the country through a Royal Charter on 11 February 1955. Atkinson (1972) notes that the

university college was, however, grossly inadequate to cater for the whole country and the other members of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland. Although the policy on the recruitment for training at the university did not discriminate along racial lines, the restricted provision for 'A' level education for Africans ensured that only a very small number was admitted at the university (Zvobgo, 1994). Furthermore, TVE provided in the country remained restricted to artisan trades and low-level qualifications up to the attainment of political independence as discussed below.

## **5.4 POLICY AND LEGISLATION**

As a result of the various commissions and committees of inquiry set up after Responsible Government, TVE policy grew and developed in leaps and bounds between 1923 and 1980. The significant legislation that evolved from the recommendations of these commissions and committees that impacted on TVE policy growth and development during the period included the Native Development Act of 1929, the Workman's Compensation Act of 1930, the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934, the Education Act of 1930 (Act No 7), The Education Act of 1936 (Act No 35), the Apprenticeship Act of 1959 (Act No 53), the Native Education Act of 1959, the Apprenticeship Act of 1968, the Vocational Education and Training Act of 1978 (Act No. 33), the Vocational Education and Training (Government Technical Colleges) Regulations of 1979 (Act 33/78) and the Education Act of 1979. These policies led to the establishment of technical colleges in Harare and Bulawayo, the setting up of colleges for

agricultural training, the establishment of the University of Rhodesia and the evolution of an apprenticeship system that was based on practices in Britain.

#### **5.4.1 Legislation For Africans**

The Masters and Servants Ordinance of 1891 had been the first legislation aimed at reducing the exploitation of the young white worker by their employers and ensuring that Africans who were used as cheap labour obeyed their employers who were considered as the masters. However, the Ordinance did not address the issue of skills training for Africans in particular, and vocational education and training in general. The Education Ordinance of 1903 then stipulated the requirements for industrial training in all schools, including those for Africans. The Native Development Act of 1929, repealed the Education Ordinance of 1903, as it related to the education of natives. This made it the effective legislation for the training of Africans from 1929 onwards. It set up a Department of Native Affairs to implement, regulate and monitor TVE policy for Africans. From then onwards, TVE policy growth and development for Africans was the responsibility of a department separate from that for Europeans. This was a sad development, though understandable, since apartheid was eventually formalised in South Africa in 1948, influencing local policy makers.

The separation of European and African TVE policy from the Education Ordinance (1899) seems to have been based on practices in South Africa as evidenced by reference to South African policy within Zimbabwean legislation, for example the Masters and

Servants Ordinance of 1891. It is this researcher's view that maintaining one TVE policy would have resulted in a unified and harmonised TVE system. For example, funds would have been distributed more equitably under a unified system, benefiting the African education sector that grew at the faster rate as shown in Figure 4.3 on Page 110. The continuation of separate provisions on the basis of race impacted negatively on the quality of TVE that was provided for the Africans (Zvobgo, 1994; Mumbengegwi, 1986).

The first government African primary school was established at Marirangwe in 1935 and the first government African secondary school was opened at Goromonzi in 1951 (Zvobgo, 1994; Atkinson, 1972). These schools were established at a time when the view of the Native Affairs Department on "Native policy" was to ensure the development of the African natives for operation chiefly in rural communal areas in such a way that they would come as little as possible into conflict or competition with the Europeans socially, economically or politically (Zvobgo, 1997). The recommendation of the Hadfield Commission on the setting up of a separate department for Native education was achieved in 1927 when Harold Jowitt was appointed Director of Native Education. The inspection of Native Schools was effected in May 1929 when a Department of Native Development was created through the passing of the Native Development Act (Chapter 75). The department was created for the education of natives and any other work primarily to further the agricultural, industrial, physical or social advancement of the natives (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1951). However, the Native Department's work and policies assumed a narrow focus, failing to fully utilise the abundant African human

resource potential, a situation that was lamented about by all the five commissions of inquiry mentioned above.

It is this researcher's observation that the provisions on industrial training in the general education and training system that dominated the period of BSAC rule were evident in the TVE policy that followed during Responsible Government and beyond. Even if industrial training became more prevalent in African than in European schools between 1923 and 1980, the focus on low-level skills within the whole TVE policy framework continued. The requirement for instruction in the spirit of industrial training was maintained in the Education Act of 1938 and later legislation, especially that pertaining to African education and training. When education was made compulsory by a 1930 amendment to the Education Ordinance of 1903 for European, Asian and coloured children only between the ages of six and fourteen, the idea was to prepare them better for the world of work at the expense Africans. This suggests that TVE policy grew and developed in tandem with general education policy in Zimbabwe as shown by the growth of apprenticeship training discussed below.

#### **5.4.2 Legislation for All Races**

One of the major strategies for human resource development during Responsible Government was apprenticeship training (Mothobi, 1978; Murphree, et al., 1975; Atkinson, 1972). This mode of training had been stipulated for from as early as 1891 when the Masters and Servants Ordinance became part of the laws of the country. The

discussion below analyses the TVE policy relating to apprenticeship training that was put in place between 1923 and 1980.

#### **5.4.2.1 The Industrial Conciliation Act (1934)**

The Masters and Servants Ordinance of 1891 was the first Zimbabwean policy to regulate apprenticeship training for Africans. The Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934 (Chapter 267) was the first attempt at regularising the training of Europeans, Asians and coloureds in artisan trades (Murphree, et al., 1975; Atkinson, 1972). Africans were the only race that was not classified as employees by the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934. The Act seemed to be an important milestone in the development of human resources through the involvement of employers and trade unions in education and training related issues (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1934). The TVE policy growth elements within the Act were the establishment of industrial courts, the appointment of industrial boards, the registration of trade unions and employers' organisations, the specification of who is an employee and specifying their role in the education and training of workers and the regulation by agreement and arbitration of conditions of employment and other matters of mutual interest to employers and employees (Industrial Conciliation Act of 1960; p.27). Being TVE policy, the development aspects of the Industrial Conciliation Act were the prescription of the powers and functions of the labour court, the involvement of employers and trade unions in work related disputes, the regulation of trade union activities and the stipulation of who were employees and their rights. This means that the industrial Conciliation Act (1934) was an important growth and development in TVE

policy in that it placed apprenticeship training under the control of employers within Industrial Councils (ICs) that had to be formed for each industry.

The provision in the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934 allowing trade unions to have some say in human resource development, including training done by employers, introduced an element of quality control by workers' representatives that was an important development aspect of TVE policy in the country. These requirements filled in a vacuum that had existed up to that time (Mothobi, 1978; Murphree, et al., 1975). This was also in line with international developments where the interests of workers had come into focus with the establishment of the International Labour Organisation in 1919 and the putting into prominence of the rights of workers. One needs to point out, however, that the Industrial Conciliation Act (1934) was chiefly aimed at the establishment and control of industrial councils and trade unions and TVE was only a minor section within the Act. Following pressures from industry for changes in TVE policy, chiefly because of persistent shortages of apprentices in industry, the government passed the Apprenticeship Training Act of 1959.

#### **5.4.2.2 Apprenticeship Training Act (1959)**

The Apprenticeship Training Act of 1959 was certainly the first TVE policy to reflect a real desire to use all available labour resources of all races, that is, European, Asian, coloured and African (Mothobi, 1978; Murphree, et al., 1975). The establishment within the Act of an Apprenticeship Advisory Board to advise the minister of Labour on

apprenticeship training was an obvious improvement on the Industrial Councils that had been established by the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934. This provision within this piece of TVE policy seems to have been aimed at injecting ideas from a joint platform from industry and government on the training and development of the national labour force. According to the Act, the Apprenticeship Advisory Board was composed of representatives from the Ministry of Labour, Industrial Councils and Trade Unions (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1959). The Act also set up apprenticeship committees composed of equal numbers of employers and employees in each industry. These committees were tasked with having to make recommendations to the Board with regards to conditions of training for apprentices. The Board would then forward the recommendations to the Minister of Labour, who would, if necessary, make the recommendations mandatory to employers. Attendance at colleges after one year training as an apprentice became mandatory for apprentices of all races (Mothobi, 1978). This had to be done because employers were generally not in favour of sending apprentices for training at the two colleges that existed then, that is Bulawayo Technical College and Salisbury (Harare) Polytechnic, preferring to let them develop skills while being productive within the company (Murphree, et al., 1975). Mothobi (1978) notes that college training was important because the apprentices would have an opportunity to be exposed to relevant theory and practical workshop and laboratory lessons that were not normally available within companies. This practice had originated in the United Kingdom with the Mechanics Institutes and had spread to other countries, such as South Africa and Australia (Mothobi, 1978; Murphree, et al., 1975; Kelly, 1962).

The Apprenticeship Act of 1959 was promulgated at a time when the establishment of advisory boards was popular in most countries overseas. For example, the advisory training boards in Brazil had been established in 1942 and the South African Apprenticeship Act of 1944 established an industrial training committee to advise the minister on apprenticeship training. Rhodesia's (Zimbabwe's) early apprenticeship training system was initially based on the South African system before it was restructured in line with the British system in the late 1950s. Industrial Officers of the Industrial Inspectorate in the Ministry of Labour (formed after Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934) were supervising apprenticeship training. The officers had recommended that apprenticeship training be modeled on the British system and that examinations of the City and Guilds of London Institute (CGLI) be written for all trades instead of the examinations for the South African National Certificate (SANC) that were being written then (Southern Rhodesia Government. This was not readily accepted by employers, and by the end of 1959, only the Printing Industry had changed to CGLI courses and examinations (Mothobi, 1978).

In 1962, a Select Committee on Apprenticeship and Technical Education reported that the basic weakness of the Apprenticeship Act of 1959 was that it still depended on the employer to indenture apprentices, thus making the supply of apprentices dependent on economic conditions and on racial considerations instead of the needs of the country. This was contributing heavily to the shortage of apprentices that was occurring in most industries at that time. The building industry was reported as having the largest shortfall

in apprentices. The second weakness of the 1959 Act was seen as the continuing haphazard uncoordinated nature of the training given to apprentices in the same trades by different employers. The recommendations of the 1962 Committee eventually led to the passing of the Apprenticeship Act of 1968 (Mothobi, 1978; p.19).

#### **5.4.2.3 Apprenticeship Training Act (1968)**

TVE policy in Zimbabwe then grew and developed with the passing of the Apprenticeship Act of 1968 that provided for the establishment of the Apprenticeship Training and Skilled Manpower Development Authority (the Authority). The functions of the Authority were to (a) evaluate the impact of technological and other changes on the use of skilled manpower and establish techniques and methods to meet such impact and changes, (b) investigate employer and trade union practices in the application of skills and the use of skilled manpower, (c) assess the future skilled manpower needs of industry in light of economic and technological developments, and (d) encourage the training of technicians and technologists. The Authority was mandated with making recommendations to the Minister in regard to occupations requiring apprenticeship training, the returns required from employers, length of courses, standards of training and conditions of apprenticeship, and on the levy to be imposed on employers. It was also tasked with making recommendations to the Minister of Education with regards to the content of the syllabus for any trade not covered by the courses of the City and Guilds of London Institute and on methods of coordinating the training in relation to the existing system of technical education (Apprenticeship Training and Skilled Manpower

Development Act, Chapter 266). According to the Act, apprentices were supposed to be trade tested at the end of each year and at the end of their apprenticeship. However, the chairman of the Authority reported in 1969 that this could not be done because of the absence of trade testing facilities. He recommended that the apprentice who did not attend college be certified as skilled at the end of their training period without being trade tested. Trade testing was a welcome development since it introduced further quality control measures, with the trainees having to satisfy examiners that they had developed an adequate level of skills for them to practise their chosen trade. Industry participated in the trade tests through providing testing facilities and examiners, leading to its appreciation of the skills of the graduates.

By 1971, the Authority had succeeded in encouraging employers to take on more apprentices, but the numbers being trained in all trades still remained inadequate for meeting the skills requirements for the country. In 1973, the Chairman of the Authority reported that "the Authority had resolved to look beyond the European youth for training to meet the skilled manpower demands of the country" (Report of the Chairman of the Apprenticeship Training and Skilled Manpower Development Authority, 1973). The Authority participated in the Salisbury Agricultural Show for the first time that year in an effort to recruit more apprentices and those who visited the stand had shown interest. Career's days were organised throughout the country at colleges and in schools. These efforts at recruitment (carried out in conjunction with the Youth Employment Section of the Department of Labour, in the Ministry of Labour and Social Welfare) were slightly effective and the numbers of apprentices recruited increased marginally and the Chairman

of the Authority encouraged the policy makers to look beyond the European youth for training to meet the skilled manpower demands of the country (Report of the Chairman of the Apprenticeship Training and Skilled Manpower Development Authority, 1973). Nevertheless, some employers in certain industries, especially the building industry, did not recruit an adequate number of apprentices to meet the forecast for skilled manpower needs, prompting the Authority to recommend the direct recruitment of apprentices in the areas with inadequate numbers, leading to the establishment of the “Special Scheme” of apprenticeship training. Those recruited under the Special Scheme were to train under the supervision of the Authority, enabling the country to train in areas of skilled worker shortages.

From about 1975 onwards, the war of liberation that was going on in the country started having an effect on apprenticeship training. The young apprentices were being required to perform National Service duties at the war front, and this in-deed affected their training programmes. The Authority was concerned that apprentices were having their industrial training and college attendance disrupted by these National Service commitments. Even if the time spent on National Service duties was supposed to be added on to the normal period of training, this tended not to be the case (Mothobi, 1978; Report of the Chairman of the Apprenticeship Training and Skilled Manpower Development Authority, 1973). Nevertheless, apprenticeship policy does not seem to have been adjusted to align it with National Service duties, leading to the period of training being longer than normal. The Skilled Manpower Development Authority was

also concerned about the training that was being offered by private vocational colleges and the lack of legislation for the Authority to supervise that training (Mothobi, 1978).

#### **5.4.2.4 Vocational Education and Training Act (1978)**

The problems of dealing with the war of liberation while training the same people fighting the war as apprentices seems to have led to the passing of the Vocational Education and Training Act No. 33 of 1978. This Act's major aims were: a) to establish the Manpower Development and Training Authority and to provide for its functions and powers; b) to provide for the establishment and maintenance of Government technical colleges; c) to provide for the establishment and functions of advisory councils for such colleges; and d) to provide for the imposition of a levy and the establishment of a fund to finance schemes for manpower development and for other purposes (The Vocational Education and Training Act No. 33, 1978). The Act also regulated and controlled the establishment and functions of independent technical colleges. This means the 1978 Act was aimed at controlling technical and vocational education activities in private colleges, a situation that was to improve on the quality of graduates and provide a human resource with the right level of skills for the needs of the country.

The Manpower Development Training Authority (MANDATA) established by the 1978 Act took over the functions of the former Authority established by the 1969 Act. The functions of the new MANDATA included, a) to assess the future needs of Rhodesia for trained manpower; b) to evaluate the impact of technology and other changes on the use

of manpower; c) to investigate employer and trade union practices in the application and use of manpower; d) to advise the Minister on the implementation of schemes for manpower development to meet the needs of Rhodesia; e) to make recommendations to the Minister in relation to the financing of vocational education or training; and f) to exercise through the Apprenticeship Committee the functions exercised before by the Apprenticeship Training and Skilled Manpower Development Authority (the Vocational Education and Training Act of 1978, No. 33). MANDATA was also responsible for indenturing apprentices and supervising their training at colleges and in industry. It was meant to be an improvement on the Authority through stipulation of its composition in terms of numbers. MANDATA's chairman and vice-chairman were to be appointed by the Minister. The term of office for members was not to exceed three years. MANDATA could establish sub-committees (with the approval of the Minister) that would be delegated to perform any of its functions. It had to submit to the Minister, as soon as possible after the 1st January each year, a report dealing with the proceedings and operations during the period ending on the 31st December each previous year. This TVE policy played an important role in human resource development up to the passing of the Manpower Development and Training Act No 36 of 1984.

The Vocational Education and Training Act of 1978 introduced controls on private institutions by requiring that all non-government technical colleges register with the Ministry of Manpower and Social Affairs. According to the Act, no person was to establish or commence to conduct an independent technical college unless the Director had been notified in writing at least three months before the proposed date of opening of

such college. The Director had to grant approval in writing for the establishment and conducting of training at the college (Vocational Education and Training Act of 1978). All private colleges that had been operating by that time were required to register with the Director of Vocational Education and Training in the Ministry of Manpower and Social Welfare. No private technical college was allowed to operate without the Director's approval after a period of three months from the date the Act became effective. If the college opened after the effective date of the Act, it was not allowed to operate without registering within one month after students started lessons. These requirements were intended to control the operations of private colleges and ensure the provision of high quality technical and vocational education and training. Inspectors would recommend the closure of institutions that were providing below standard technical and vocational education, reducing the exploitation of those seeking skills for employment.

#### **5.4.2.5 Vocational Education and Training Regulations (1979)**

The Vocational Education and Training (Government Technical Colleges) Regulations of 1979 (Act 33/78) seem to have been put in place as a way of dealing with the issue of discipline within technical colleges. The Regulations laid out procedures with respect to enrolment of students and discipline, including exclusion and removal from college or from hostel accommodation (Government of Rhodesia, 1979). The Regulations stipulated rates of fees in government technical colleges. They established and specified the composition of college advisory councils. The college principal was to be an ex officio member while nine (9) other members were to be appointed by the Minister after

consultation with organisations and persons representing the community and the interests served by the college. The Regulations spelt out how members were to be appointed, the conditions of office for the members, how a member would vacate office, procedures for meetings, functions of the councils and the composition of committees for the council. The college principal was empowered with authority to enroll and discipline students in the technical college. The 1979 Regulations established a legal basis on which a principal could exercise discipline within a technical and vocational institution that had not existed up to that time. This was necessary in face of discipline related problems the heads of these institutions were facing (Rhodesia Government, 1979). The Regulations also improved on the effectiveness of advisory councils by spelling out their composition and functions. The Advisory Councils became more representative of the community in which the college was situated. Their participation also led to a more effective handling of college operations and the disciplining of trainees (Mothobi, 1978). Nevertheless, the 1979 Regulations did not cover important operations in the institutions, for example, student representative councils. The regulations were also silent about operations in other government technical and vocational institutions, such as agricultural colleges, nurse training institutions and teachers' colleges. The 1979 Regulations stipulated a rather narrow representation for Advisory Council members, did not specify requirements for the Amenities Fund and the training levy imposed on employers that had been set up by the 1978 Act, leading to the need for another set of regulations.

## **5.5 EFFECTS OF LEGISLATION**

The fact that apprenticeship training was meant for the financially challenged white youths was also revealed in interviews with some of these youth who trained before and after the Second World War. For example, an eighty-three year old part-time lecturer at the Bulawayo Polytechnic stated that he joined apprentice-ship training with the Rhodesia Railways in 1936 because he was having problems securing fees for attending school after the death of his father and he had to abandon lessons to join training. His widowed mother was having problems raising school fees for his education. He indicated he had to attend lessons at night and wrote the South African National Certificate examinations. Apprenticeship training was for a period of five years then, and he had to spend two years of learner-ship after apprenticeship before he was certified as a journeyman. According to him:

Those who trained as apprentices during my time were those who could not proceed to Matriculation Level due to financial difficulties. We applied for training while we were still at school and were to undergo an assessment for three or four months before signing a contract. Most apprentices took on the trades they preferred. We had to attend night school for three days a week and those who achieved a pass lower than 75% overall were withdrawn from training (Evans, 2004).

Even if policy resulted in the separation of technical education from the primary school system, evening schools resident in these primary schools continued being the main

source of technical and vocational education for the majority of the population, especially those in small towns and rural areas (Atkinson, 1972; Mothobi, 1978). The schools in rural areas and small towns remained the main centres for TVE. Nevertheless, there was a shift from the education ordinances of the early twentieth century with the passing of legislation providing for training in colleges and in industry. This was an important development in that it formalised the training being offered by industry and the involvement of employers and trade unions. The involvement of trade unions in the training at company level resulted in the standardisation of training in similar areas and removed the exploitative tendencies of some employers (Mothobi, 1978; Murphree, et al., 1975). However, the safeguarding of European interests that had been formalised after the recommendations of the Hole and the Graham Commissions was further strengthened through the Native Development Act of 1929, the Education Act of 1930 and the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934. Even if the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934 and the Apprenticeship Act of 1959 recognised the training of Africans into industrial trades, the attitudes of the Europeans through their trade unions made it impossible for Africans to be trained in large numbers in these trades. This means that industrial training as had been introduced by the Education Ordinance of 1903 continued to be the main avenue for TVE for Africans for most of the period of Responsible Government, with Domboshava and Tjolotjo being the main centres for this training.

### **5.5.1 Relics from BSAC Policy**

TVE policy growth and development during Responsible Government and after Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) took a path similar to that of the BSAC rule period. This is the period when policy makers preferred imitating TVE practices in South Africa and those in Britain. The discussion below shows that policy continued to separate provisions along racial lines and was based on foreign standards, especially South African and British standards.

### **5.5.2 Separate Provision for Africans**

By the 1930s, TVE for the native Africans was seen by the settler government as being closely related to the broader issues of so called "community development" that was aimed at uplifting the standard of life in rural African communities (Phimister, 1988; Passmore, 1972). This prompted the setting up of community development centres in which a few Africans were offered chances to learn a limited range of skills so that they could be utilised as labour in semi-skilled and unskilled employment in farms and mines. Nevertheless, the Kerr Commission (1952) had strongly recommended the inclusion of Africans in the development of the human resource needed for the country's economic development through their enrolment in the TVE system catering for Europeans (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1952). This recommendation and the prevailing post Second World War boom in manufacturing seem to have led to a softening on attitudes towards the training of Africans in areas formally reserved exclusively for Europeans.

Municipalities and some government departments then started training Africans as apprentices, especially in building trades, mechanical engineering, accounts and other professional areas (Mothobi, 1978; Murphree, et al., 1975).

The governments that came into power after the establishment of Responsible Government, especially after the Second World War, was seen to have made serious efforts aimed at accommodating Africans into the TVE system. Zvobgo (1994) notes that these efforts achieved limited results due to resistance from the European working class that used its bargaining power to block the whole-scale inclusion of Africans into the mainstream TVE system. Arrighi (1967) suggests that the government policy framework (for a dual economy) established in the 1930s no longer reflected the underlying class interests and a series of reforms were attempted by the government after the Second World War. For example, from the early 1950s, under Huggins but especially under Todd and later Whitehead, attempts at reversing restrictive policies were made by government. A bill was introduced (but never became law) in 1954 to amend the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934 so as to include Africans in the definition of employee and legalise African Trade Unions, but it did not sail through parliament (Zvobgo, 1994; Arrighi, 1967). In African education the whole emphasis seems to have changed from the slow, steady uplift of the villages to the rapid creation and training of an elite. Arrighi (1967) observes that, in agriculture, more competition between Africans and Europeans was introduced, but this competition was in the less profitable markets (for example, Africans were almost completely prevented from taking advantage of the boom in tobacco exports but were allowed to grow maize and cotton). Nevertheless, the reforms

were strongly resisted by the settlers, leading to the United Federal Party losing the December 1962 election mainly because of its drive to institute reforms aimed at accommodating Africans into the mainstream economy (Zvobgo, 1994; Arrighi, 1967).

Although the colonial government channeled Africans into “semi-skilled” occupations and restricted their access to the mainstream TVE system, the missionary efforts resulted in awakening them into developing interest in attaining higher-levels of education and training. Arrighi (1967) notes that African demand for education rose dramatically from the 1930s onwards. After stagnating at around 46,000 for over a decade, African school enrolments shot up from 46,000 in 1936 to over 86,000 in 1943 and to 140 000 in 1947 (Arrighi, 1967). The enrollment and output in African education continued to increase despite the discriminatory education and training policy of the colonial government. By 1979, 1,479 Africans were enrolled at the local university, 3,700 in technical and vocational colleges, 4,000 in teachers’ training colleges, and about 300 in agricultural colleges (Government of Zimbabwe, 1981).

Formalised apprenticeship training for blacks was started at the Luveve Government Technical Training College in 1959 (Zvobgo, 1994; Mumbengegwi, 1986). This college was a teacher training college that trained African teachers for technical subjects in schools. The apprenticeship training offered was for the building trades only. A four-year practical and technical full time course leading to the final examination of the City and Guilds of London Institute (CGLI) was offered. Of the first twenty-six candidates to take the examination, twenty secured first class passes (Report of the Southern Rhodesia

Education Commission 1962). However, the training offered was very college based and there was still some resistance to employ the graduates by white employers. Mumbengegwi (1986) suggests that the range of courses offered at Luveve Government Technical Training College was very narrow and it tended to be for those trades that were not very popular with white youths, especially the "trowel trades". This means TVE policy growth and development for Africans was not in tandem with that for Europeans, ensuring that Africans lagged behind with respect to technical and vocational education provision in the country.

When the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland was formed in 1953, policy on TVE for Africans remained the responsibility of the Southern Rhodesia Government while that for Europeans became the responsibility of the Federal Government (Zvobgo, 1994; uthern Rhodesia Government, 1962). This had the effect of increasing the resources available for European TVE while leaving that for Africans under-funded. Nevertheless, by 1959, African TVE was gradually being implemented, albeit at a very slow pace. For example, when the non-racial University of Rhodesia became operational 1959 it enrolled a limited number of blacks (University of Zimbabwe, 1990; Atkinson, 1972). It was clear from the African community and civic leaders that the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland was not bringing tangible benefits to their lot as it was doing for those of European origin. Arrighi (1967) observes that this led to louder calls for a wider participation of Africans in the mainstream economy and political field.

By the end of the Federation in 1963, limited meaningful TVE for blacks had taken place since the government's attempts at reforming the TVE system to include Africans were being hampered by the resistance from the settlers (Zvobgo, 1994; Atkinson, 1972). When the Federation ended, a government that was more racist came into power, further retarding TVE provisions for Africans. Mumbengegwi (1986) notes that the war of liberation that started in 1966 further hardened European worker feelings against Africans, retarding TVE policy growth and development for them. Between 1963 and 1979, TVE policy growth and development for Africans in Zimbabwe occurred in an environment characterised by racism, social and political conflict, economic deprivation of Africans, and war (Government of Zimbabwe, 1982; Mungazi, 1992). By the time of signing of the agreement for a political settlement in Zimbabwe at Lancaster House in Britain in 1979, the ratio of Africans to Europeans in meaningful job positions was very low (Government of Zimbabwe, 1982).

Even if legal provisions for apprenticeship did not exclude Africans, European anti-African attitudes ensured that very few Africans were trained as apprentices. It is this researcher's view that the indigenous people's vocational education and training was not seen as necessary or important then. This is because of the limited provision that was put in place in the face of the fact that the African population made up over 95 percent of the country's population. The Kerr Commission (1952) noted that Section 60 of the Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934 implied that Africans could be employed in any skilled industry, trade or occupation, provided their wages and conditions of service were not inferior to those of the Europeans, but employers had indicated that they would not

apprentice Africans fearing that European employees would stop work in protest (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1952).

Furthermore, the Act failed to remove the problem of trainees being exploited by their employers. It also failed to solve the problem of the varied training that was being offered by different employers training in the same trade since the training varied considerably from company to company. For example, by the end of 1958 there were eleven registered Industrial Councils (Report of the Secretary for Labour, Social Welfare and Housing, 1958) but the councils had not effectively solved the problems of variations offered by different firms to trainees in the same trade. Also the industries of the country kept on growing with time and, especially after the Second World War, the country started to experience a shortage of skilled labour. The formation of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland in 1953 further worsened the shortage of skilled labour for the Federation's industries. The industries then started relying heavily on white immigration for the supply of trained and skilled labour. Nevertheless, the securing of the services of the immigrants was not easy, making it necessary that all races be trained to meet the country's human resource requirements.

### **5.5.3 Reliance on Expatriate Labour**

From colonisation onwards, the government relied heavily on expatriate labour for key posts in the economy. The population census of 1941 revealed the net immigration had risen from 2724 between 1921 – 1926 to 8993 during 1936 – 1941 (Southern Rhodesia

Government, 1941). This high rise in net migration into the country can be attributed mainly to the favourable economic conditions during this period, even if the world economy was in a depression (Arrighi, 1967). Both immigration and emigration were at their highest during the period 1926 to 1931 and this can be attributed to the agricultural boom, and the excess immigration for the period 1936 to 1941 was due to the boom in manufacturing (Phimister, 1988; Arrighi, 1967). These large immigrations impacted negatively on TVE policy growth and development in that the policy makers were not compelled to develop local talent since it appeared less expensive to recruit already trained personnel. Table 5.1 shows the migration figures for the period 1964 to 1980.

**Table 5.1: Rhodesia's Migration: 1964 - 1980**

<b>YEAR</b>	<b>IMMIGRATION</b>	<b>EMMIGRATION</b>	<b>NET MIGRATION</b>
1964	7130	13638	-6508
1965	11306	6837	+4469
1966	6549	7561	-1012
1967	9819	5594	+4225
1968	12013	563	+6950
1969	11075	5232	+5843
1970	12345	5238	+7107
1971	14085	4713	+10168
1972	14085	4562	+9523
1973	9511	6846	+2665
1974	9764	7982	+1782
1975	12552	9242	+3310
1976	7941	13013	-5072
1977	5914	14556	-8642
1978	4650	16467	-11817
1979	3647	12951	-9304
1980	6487	17240	-10833
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>158873</b>	<b>152235</b>	<b>+6638</b>

**Source: Government of Zimbabwe Monthly Digest of Statistics: July 1981.**

Table 5.1 shows that the numbers of those willing to come to work in the country grew considerably from about 1965 (after the Unilateral Declaration of Independence) onwards until they started declining steadily from about 1976 to 1980. The decline is most likely due to the intensification of the war of liberation in the country in the 1970s. However, by the end of colonial rule in 1980, emigration was surpassing immigration. This suggests that more expatriates were now leaving the country, going with their skills. It was not surprising, therefore, that there was a critical shortage of high-level skills within the country at independence in 1980 as revealed by the National Manpower Survey of 1981. The Judges Commission Report (1962; p.100) observed:

In respect of technical education, Southern Rhodesia, which has leaned heavily on the experience and education and skills of expatriates – which has literally been paid for elsewhere – is a backward country. ‘I think’, said one immigrant engineering lecturer who gave evidence, ‘they are the furthest behind in Africa’... ‘There is far too large a number of European supervisors who would not hold a foreman’s job in Britain.’

This means that the government was relying on foreign acquired skills yet the expatriates were being blamed for not possessing the right kind of skills, expertise and professionalism. In fact, they were seen generally as a liability to the country (Government of Zimbabwe, 1981; Southern Rhodesia Government, 1962).

The effects of migration within the country may be analysed with reference to population statistics from colonisation up to independence. For example, the white population is observed to have generally grown by figures in excess of one-hundred percent every ten years up to UDI when the growth rate then slowed down (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1924 & 1959; Government of Zimbabwe, 1987). The white population rose dramatically from about 1,000 in 1890 to 11,000 in 1901. It then doubled between 1901 and 1911 when it grew to 23,000. The population grew by more than one-hundred percent between 1911 and 1931 when it increased to 50,100. The 1931 figure increased by 118 percent to reach 138,000 in 1951. The growth peaked in 1961 when the population reached 220,000, then dropped to 130,000 in 1969 and rose slightly to 147,000 in 1982 (Government of Zimbabwe, 1987).

The early growth of the European population is clearly as a result of deliberate recruitment policies by the BSAC when it went out of its way to invite and attract those of European origin with special skills to come and settle in the country. The post-Second World War period saw a major surge in the number of immigrants of European origin to the country and into Southern Africa as a whole (Government of Zimbabwe, 1981). This was partly because of the difficulties being faced in post war Europe and the economic boom that was taking place in the region. In Zimbabwe, this economic boom was caused by the development of the tobacco industry and a manufacturing industry that was being developed to serve the territories of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland. For example, over a period of sixteen years from 1964 to 1980, the total migration (emigration and immigration) equaled 158,873, a figure almost equal to the average

European population of 166,000 during that period (Government of Zimbabwe, 1987). This suggests that the turnover of European human labour was equivalent to the settler population itself, a pattern characteristic for the whole post-Second War period up to independence.

In view of the above, one can conclude that the implications of this white immigration policy on the structure and development of human resources in the country were far reaching. In the first place, there developed in the country a dependency on foreign skills, undermining the development of any comprehensive local system of technical and vocational education. This negatively impinged on TVE policy growth and development since recruiting those trained elsewhere appeared more economical compared to training within the country, yet the skills and competencies of the recruits were being questioned by local employers (Taylor, 1979; Judges Commission Report, 1962). Secondly, since it was relatively easy to recruit from outside the country, the authorities seemed to have ignored providing local training fearing that those trained would also leave and work elsewhere. The consequences of this policy of reliance on foreign skills included a huge national human resource skills deficiency and an inadequate human resource development infrastructure at independence. The skills deficiency occurred due to inadequate numbers of local trained African personnel when the skilled settlers emigrated from the country. What existed as the infrastructure for human resource development became seriously inadequate at independence when there was need to train more Africans. This prompted the new majority rule government to put in place a new TVE policy to address the anomalies created by the pre-independence governments.

## **5.6 ESTABLISHMENT OF TECHNICAL INSTITUTIONS**

By 1922, calls for the establishment of a technical school in the country were getting louder. Thomas H. B., the then president of the Bulawayo Chamber of Commerce, added his voice to calls that a technical school be set up at the Chamber's Annual meeting in Bulawayo on May 8, 1922 when he presented two reasons for the need for such an institution. According to him, such a facility would provide vocational training that would reduce the number of white youths who might end up working as handymen because they had no training in a particular field. Secondly, the training would enable the white youths to withstand competition from the indigenous craftsmen and strengthen their position as the country's leaders. In 1924, at the instance of F. P. Mennell, Member of Parliament for Bulawayo District, the Rhodesia Scientific Association called a meeting in Bulawayo of people interested in technical education. A resolution to request government for a technical school was made and Mennell brought up the issue in parliament in 1925. His motion for the government to consider setting up a technical institution for the country was carried and the Bulawayo Technical School was established at Gilford Primary School, with the first enrolment of thirty seven white youths in January 1927. By the end of the same year, evening classes had started at Prince Edward School in Harare, leading to the birth of the Harare Polytechnic. Evening classes were conducted at Mutare and at major mining centres. The Matopos School that had been closed was re-started in 1922, becoming a research centre in 1931 following its hand over to the Ministry of Agriculture.

Classes organised mainly for the South African National Technical and Commercial examinations marked the early developments of the TVE system in Zimbabwe (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1931; Bulawayo Technical School Magazine, 1930). The City and Guilds of London Institute and Pitman Examinations were also on offer. Nevertheless, the Judges Commission (1962) observed that Bay F., (a former under-secretary for Further Education in the Ministry of Education, England and Wales), who had been recruited as an advisor on technical education in 1957, criticised the system of technical education as it existed then. When he arrived in the country, Bay had observed that “.... technical education was almost non-existent .... They were following the South African system .... It was being carried on just in the classrooms, with not even a laboratory or drawing office or anything else” (Southern Rhodesia Government, 1962; p.93). It was also noted that the apprenticeship custom had been copied blindly from the British system and it excluded Africans, making it not so relevant to the needs of the country.

In response to requests from the mining industry, a Mining Department was established at the Bulawayo Technical School in January 1936 (Bulawayo Technical school Magazine, 1936). The Department was established as a direct result of the deliberations of a Special Committee appointed by the Minister of Mines to consider the best means of affording technical and practical training for youths who wished to enter the Mining Industry. It later grew to become the School of Mines that exists in the City of Bulawayo as an independent institution today. In a paper presented to the Association of Mine Managers in 1979, I. A. Taylor, the Chamber of Mines Technical advisor had this to say:

In essence, we have to ask ourselves two principal question. 1<sup>st</sup> – Do we provide training facilities which will demonstratably fit those who succeed for progression to senior appointments or do we rely too heavily on those trained outside our borders? 2<sup>nd</sup> – Are we providing in-serve training on mines which will ensure improved performance as well as opportunities for existing employees to qualify for promotion? I believe that there is increasing concern within the industry that we are unable to give wholly satisfactory answers to these two questions (Taylor, 1979; p.109).

Even if this view was expressed with respect to training for the mining industry, it is clear that it applied across the board in the light of the extensive reliance on foreign qualifications and expatriate labour that existed in the country.

## **5.7 ESTABLISHMENT OF A UNIVERSITY**

Britain appointed a Royal Commission (the Asquith Commission) on higher education in the colonies in 1943. Its mandate was to advise on how to develop universities in the colonies, and how to secure for colonial university and university colleges the co-operation of universities in the United Kingdom. With the assistance of another Commission, the Elliot Commission, that studied special problems of universities in West Africa, the commission's recommendations led to the establishment of university colleges of the Gold Cost, Ibadan and East Africa with a special relationship with the

University of London (Roberts, 1957; Batey, 1955). The growth and development of university education and training in the colonies was stimulated and enhanced by the Colonial Development and Welfare Acts of 1940 and 1945 that provided for technical assistance to colonies setting up university colleges. This policy and the efforts of a group of Rhodesians that had been formed in 1943 to publicise the idea of a local university and to raise funds for its construction eventually led to the establishment of the University of Rhodesia, a very important milestone in technical and vocational education policy growth and development. This is because a university in the country was set up to provide the high-level human resource that had hitherto been recruited from outside the country. Obviously, opening a university within the country would allow the structuring of its curriculum to suit local needs.

The idea of setting up a university in the country was implemented as early as in 1946 when an association called “Friends of the University of Rhodesia” gained their first official recognition. In 1947 the Governor of Southern Rhodesia established by trust deed the Rhodesia University Foundation Fund and appointed as trustees the Minister of Internal Affairs, the Secretary for Internal Affairs and the chairman of the Friends of University of the Rhodesia (University of Zimbabwe, 1990; p.57). The Legislative Assembly chose the present location in Harare in 1946. Classes for the first part time students in Accountancy were started in 1952 at premises at St. Joseph’s Home in Harare and the institution moved to its present location in 1957. The Legislative Assembly enacted the University of Rhodesia Act in 1952 that established an Inaugural Board that met for the first time in 1953. The Inaugural Board worked on the modalities relating to

the plans on the new site, the administration of the institution and the programmes to be offered. In 1956, the college was admitted to the privilege of Special Relation with the University of London and the University of Birmingham (University of Zimbabwe, 1990; pp.58-59). This link established the metropolitan tradition in university education in Zimbabwe. The elitist slant in this tradition led to a focus on the academic rather than the hands on approach in the university's education and training activities in line with practices by the traditional universities in the United Kingdom, a tradition that seems to have continued up to this day.

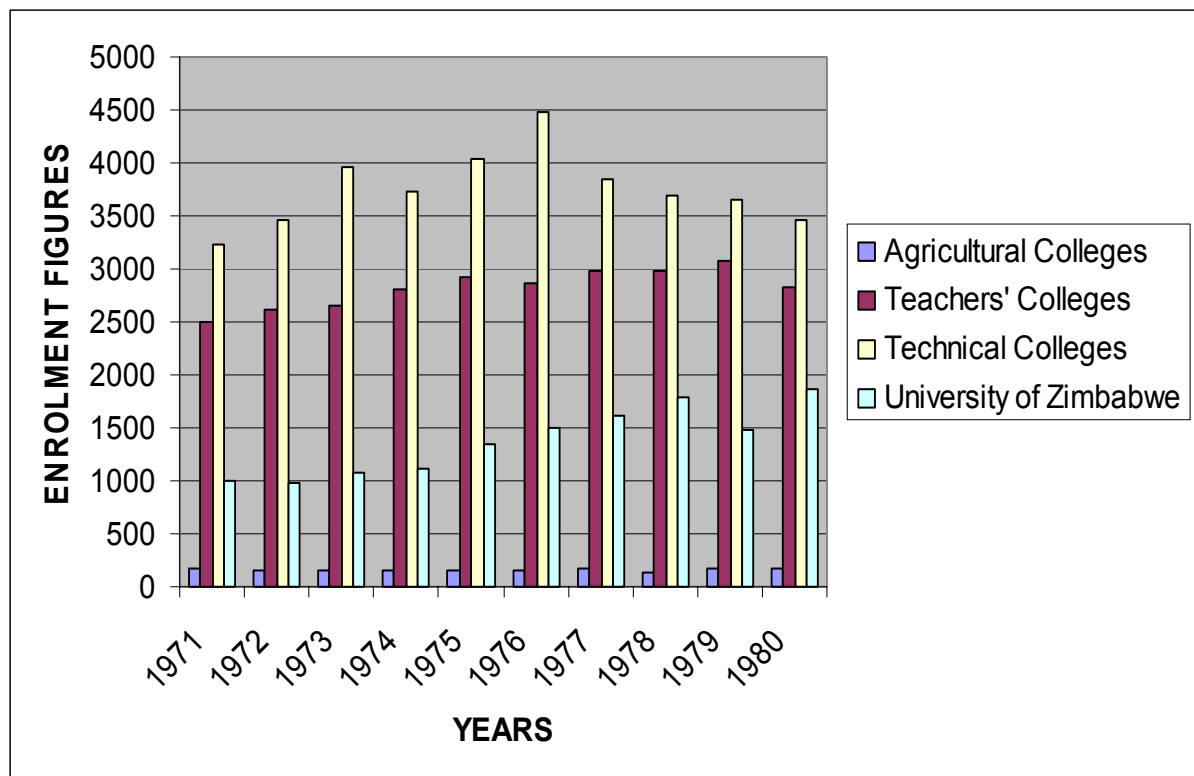
The University College of Southern Rhodesia was established as an autonomous non-racial institution, incorporated by Royal Charter on 11 February 1955 and the Queen Mother accepted office as the first President and was installed in July 1957. The first Faculties were those of Education, Science and Social Studies (University of Zimbabwe, 1990; p.58). The original Heads of Department formed an Academic Board which negotiated with the University of London the entry requirements, examination arrangements and other academic matters. The resultant entrance requirements encouraged the development of sixth form classes in both African and European schools in the Southern African colonies and is said to have stimulated the expansion of both the quality and quantity of secondary school work in all the three territories of the Federation (University of Zimbabwe, 1990; Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, 1963). The University's Education Department, under an agreement with the University of Birmingham, contributed by sending out graduate teachers to both European and African schools. The Arts Department produced graduates for the Civil Service and for commerce

and industry. The college ran useful short courses for managers training for senior positions in industry. The Department of Agriculture produced its first graduates in 1961 (Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, 1963; pp.163-164).

The establishment of the University in Rhodesia was an important step in the right direction since the university recruited on a non-racial basis. This TVE policy growth and development milestone led to the provision of locally trained graduates with skills that were more appropriate to local needs. However, the university's slant towards practices in the United Kingdom perpetuated the development of foreign skills in the country, a situation which seems to have continued until the attainment of independence.

The Medical School was established in 1963, enabling the institution to train local doctors for servicing the country's hospitals. This was an important development since it created the conditions for producing medical staff conversant with local diseases and health conditions. However, the demise of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland in 1963 raised questions on the future of the college since it had become the only university in the federation. It was agreed between the governments of Southern Rhodesia and the United Kingdom that the university continues as an independent academic institution open to all races and serving the whole of Central Africa (University of Zimbabwe, 1990). The University of London and the University of Rhodesia agreed on a phased termination of the Scheme of Special Relations and the last intake to the degrees of the University of London was that of 1970. During the same year, the University Council enacted new statutes in terms of the Charter that established the University of Rhodesia

governed by a Council and Senate, and full university status was attained in 1971. This enabled the university to offer degrees that were more homegrown and addressed the needs of the country. As a result, the Faculties of Agriculture and Commerce and Law were established in 1980. Nevertheless, criticism of foreign standards and curricula in university education at the local institution continued up to 1980. Figure 5.4 gives the enrolment figures in tertiary institutions between 1971 and 1980.



**Figure 5.1: Tertiary College Enrolment Figures: 1971 – 1980 (Monthly Digest of Statistics, July 1981)**

Figure 5.4 suggests that TVE policy led to a continued growth and development of the TVE system output during the period 1923 to 1980. The growth and development was at

a pace faster than during BSAC rule because the government set out to prove to the critics of the decision not to join the Union of South Africa that Rhodesia could do it alone. The range of subjects grew from low-level agriculture and building industry related skills, civil service promotional courses and a few commercial subjects in 1927 to a wider range of over one hundred courses covering the disciplines such as mechanical engineering, automotive engineering, electrical engineering, mining, civil engineering and construction, hotel and catering, mass communication, business studies, architectural technology, applied science, applied art and design and refrigeration engineering in 1980. Nevertheless, training for the agricultural industry seems to have remained rather stagnant and inadequate right through the period of Responsible Government and UDI.

## **5.8 DATA FROM SURVEY AND INTERVIEWS**

TVE policy growth and development during Responsible Government was propelled by the setting up of at least five commissions of inquiry leading to the passing of TVE legislation and adoption of new practices. As a way of supplementing information from documentary sources, a questionnaire and an interview schedule were used to gather data from key stakeholders which were then analysed. The periods covered by the questions were from 1890 to 1980 (colonial) and 1980 to 1990 (post-colonial). Data for the period 1980 to 1990 are discussed in Chapter 6. The data from the survey and interviews were analysed by first grouping those that were the same or similar then drawing conclusions. The combined data from the survey and interviews presented below shows numbers in brackets indicating the number of occurrences of the response or similar statements.

With respect to the period 1890 to 1980, questionnaire items 3, 4 and 5 sought data for the research Question a) that asked how policy grew and developed. Items 6, 11, 12, 13 and 14 related to research Question b) that asked the economic, social and political influences on vocational and technical education policy growth and development. Item 28 asked data in response to the research Question c) on the extent of influence from international trends on growth and development of technical and vocational education policy. Questions 9 and 10 related to research Question d) on whether the growth and development of technical and vocational education policy in Zimbabwe was aimed at providing the human resource needed for achieving national social and economic development objectives. Question 24 related to research Question e) on the useful aspects in the growth and development of technical and vocational education policy in Zimbabwe that are important lessons for current and future policy reform initiatives in the country.

Generally, the responses from the survey and the interviews were in agreement with the data from documents. In response to Item 3 of the questionnaire, all the respondents (100 percent) indicated they believed TVE policy grew and developed during the period. The reasons given in Item 4 of the questionnaire included: it matched the needs of a growing economy (14); industrial development influenced by World Wars and the liberation struggle made it grow and develop (6); and growth and development is a logical process (6).

Questionnaire Items 5 and 6 asked respondents to identify one change that occurred in Zimbabwe's TVE policy between 1890 and 1980 and the major socio-economic influences leading to that change. Two respondents did not respond to these questions. The major changes that were identified were the colonization of the country, national politics, the World Wars and the war of liberation. The changes that occurred were given as: the introduction of vocational subjects in schools in the early colonial period (1890 to 1925) influenced by the need for low-level local skills (6); industry was developing and a need for a trained workforce was identified in the 1930s, resulting in the introduction of formal apprenticeship training (5); war needs machinery and TVE policy had to address that need during the war of liberation in the 1960s and 1970s (3); the need to suppress blacks and train them only as "spanner boys" dominated the entire colonial period (3); and the expansion in mining and agriculture resulted in the setting up of colleges for those industries in the 1940s and 1950s (1).

In response to Item 9, sixty-nine percent responded 'Yes' while thirty-one percent responded 'No', supporting the view deduced from data from documents. The reasons given in Item 10 for the YES response included: it matched the need for skills with economic growth (7); it was driven by employers who would identify their needs first before establishing training centres such as the Railways and Bulawayo Polytechnic (6); the ruling party had a training policy meant to bolster economic growth to benefit the predominant members of the electorate (6); and it addressed identified requirements (1). The reasons given for the NO response included: the country was isolated (3); it was not demand driven and focused on low-level skills (3); and there was no deliberate aim to

empower the local human resource base as needs would be met by importing foreign labour with the required skills (2).

Item 7 asked about the perceived link between Zimbabwe's Technical and Vocational Education policy in place between 1890 and 1980 and international trends. In response, fifty-two percent gave a positive response and forty-eight percent gave a negative response. The reasons given for the YES response included: use of foreign syllabi and examining bodies made it link with international trends (5); technology was imported and skills developed had to meet that technology (4); and changes in policy were linked to those occurring in other countries, especially South Africa and the United Kingdom (3). The reasons given for the NO response included: the country was isolated geographically and later by sanctions (4); the country had a poor research and development culture (3); and TVE policy was focused on a limited few (3).

Questionnaire Items 11 and 12 sought views on what was seen as the strengths and weaknesses of Zimbabwe's TVE policy growth and development between 1890 and 1980. The strengths given included: training resources were adequate and appropriate for the TVE system (7); high quality of graduates who had the skills required by employers (6); it was focused on particular groups, institutions and programmes that were seen as relevant for socio-economic growth and the breaking of international sanctions through import substitution (4); clear objectives were set for the technically gifted child who was identified at primary school level and started TVE training there and was an expert by the end of college training (3); and compulsory technical subjects in the general education

system (3). The major weaknesses were identified as: racially segregated TVE system resulting in the exclusion of Africans (13); fundamentally based on maintenance culture and less on research and development (3); overemphasis on manual skills (3); it created in blacks a negative attitude towards TVE and at independence there was a rejection of such education and the conversion of F2 schools to academic institutions (2); and policy was not home grown and not intended to meet local needs of the majority within the population (2).

With respect to the interview questions, the data revealed that the major economic, social and political influences on vocational and technical education policy growth and development were the colonisation of the country, the World Wars and the need to protect European interests. Other influences were: BSAC's involvement in production of goods and services as well as governing the country; BSAC policy laid a foundation that ultimately influenced present TVE policy, even if training was mainly for whites; training was not top priority since the BSAC depended on imported labour; and the TVE policy established was not strong since it was racial. Influential international and local patterns and landmarks in technical and vocational education policy growth and development were identified as: use of foreign syllabi and examining bodies; technology was imported and skills developed were for using that technology; and changes in policy were linked to those occurring in other countries, especially South Africa and the United Kingdom. However, the country was isolated geographically and later by sanctions, had a poor research and development culture and TVE policy was focused on a limited few. The relevancy of international patterns in technical and vocational education growth and

development to the growth and development of similar policy in Zimbabwe was seen as that the policy makers made sure the policy grew and developed in a manner that served their socio-economic needs, including protecting their interests as Europeans. Sixty-nine percent of the respondents agreed that the growth and development of technical and vocational education policy in Zimbabwe from 1890 to 1980 was aimed at providing the human resource needed for achieving national social and economic development objectives.

Item 24 asked what the respondents saw as the legacy of TVE policy growth and development between 1890 and 1980 that was still apparent in policy as that time. The aspect that was mentioned most was skills training using the apprenticeship system (75 percent). Inclusion of technical subjects in schools was seen as the other aspect from before independence that was still in place as at 1990. The building of TVE institutions was intensified and speeded up after independence, but it had started before independence.

## **5.9 ANALYSIS OF POLICY GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT:**

### **1924 - 1979**

The period 1890 to 1923 ushered in a new formalised system of governance and TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe. The period 1924 to 1979 then consolidated this formal system of government and TVE policy growth and development. At the beginning of this period, the first formalised TVE policy for the country grew from

reliance on ordinances to the passing of Acts of parliament, the later becoming the major policy instruments right up to the attainment of political independence in 1980. The discussing below analyses TVE policy growth and development during this period with respect to the research questions.

### **5.9.1 How Did Policy Grow and Develop Between 1924 and 1979**

TVE policy growth between 1924 and 1979 was evidenced by the passing of new legislation, for example, Industrial Conciliation Act (1934). the Education Act (1930, 1934), the Apprenticeship Act (1959), the Vocational Education & Training Act (1978) and the University of Rhodesia Act (1952). These acts resulted in the separation of the education system into primary, secondary and tertiary, the establishment of control on trade unions and apprenticeship training, and the setting up of a university within the country. The acts also led to the establishment of Industrial Training Boards, setting up of a system to collect training levies from industry and a system to recruit, register and monitor the training of apprentices, and the establishment of tertiary level institutions such as technical colleges, a university, agricultural training colleges and teachers' training colleges.

Policy development during this period was characterised by the separation of the education system into primary, secondary and tertiary level, the setting up of mechanisms to regulate, finance and monitor training at tertiary level, involvement of industry, trade unions and government in training of human resources needed for economic

development, establishment of a university, the setting of a separate secondary school system for technical and vocational subjects for Africans (the F2 system), formal recognition of and training in African traditional crafts at a small scale and the introduction of new technology and practice (for example growing of tobacco and cotton). This policy development resulted in the TVE system being able to respond to the needs of the economy in a more appropriate way than during BSAC rule. This is because TVE was now being used in a more meaningful way as a solution to the labour needs of the country as evidenced by the success of the economy and that of newly introduced crops of tobacco and cotton on the international market from after the Second World War onwards.

### **5.9.2 The Social, Political and Economic Influences on Policy: 1924-1979**

The social, political and economic influences on TVE policy growth and development between 1924 and 1979 included the establishment of responsible government, the Second World War, the birth and death of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, the economic boom of the 1940s and 1950s, the Unilateral Declaration of Independence in 1966, the war of liberation from 1966 to 1979, the international sanctions placed on the country in the late 1960 and 1970s, shifting of focus from borrowing from practice in South Africa to borrowing from practice in the United Kingdom and the large immigration of those of European origin into the country at the beginning of the period and their large emigration towards the end of the period. These factors led to policy

growth evidenced by factors such as the establishing of many commissions of inquiry and passing of new legislation after the establishment of responsible government, amendments to legislation to include requirements for free and compulsory education, establishment of the Harare and Bulawayo Technical Colleges and other colleges, setting up of the University of Rhodesia, establishment of trade unions, collection of training levy from industry, control of apprenticeship training by government, control of activities in private tertiary institutions, and tertiary level training in evening schools housed within the general education system. The TVE policy development factors were evidenced by the involvement of employers and trade unions in the implementation and monitoring of training with private and public enterprises, the setting of quality control bodies (such as the Manpower Planning and Development Authority), the setting of training institutions and departments to training in areas of need for the country (such as the Agricultural colleges, the School of Mines and the Hotel School), training level used to fund equipmentation of technical colleges and funding of college attendance for apprentices leading to higher levels of recruitment, and training to higher levels as evidenced by the setting up of a university and higher level courses in technical colleges and polytechnics.

The settlers dominated the social, political and economic landscape. They used this grip to influence TVE policy growth and development through the political front since they were the majority of the electorate. This grip resulted in the exclusion of Africans from a large-scale participation in TVE activities. Governments that were seen as sympathetic to Africans were voted out of power. The influence from the settler electorate also led to the stifling of full-scale development of the TVE system as a way of protecting their skills

from competition from locally trained human resources. Nevertheless, the responsible government developed the TVE system for Africans in a manner that had not been done under BSAC rule. In addition to expanding training at Domboshava and Tjolotjo, the responsible government set up new government secondary schools and agricultural and other tertiary colleges for Africans. This was an important TVE policy growth and development, even if it was at a small scale, since it allowed the majority of the population to participate, albeit marginally, in national economic activities.

### **5.9.3 Influence of International Trends on Policy: 1924 - 1979**

International trends in TVE policy growth and development during responsible government rule included the increased involvement of governments in the funding, control and monitoring of tertiary level education and training, setting up of industrial boards to monitor training within industry and government, establishment of boards composed of industry, government and labour to supervise training in government institutions and setting up of independent bodies to examine tertiary level education. Here in Zimbabwe, evidence of international influence on TVE policy growth and development included continued separation of policy along racial lines because of Apartheid in South Africa, setting up of boarding facilities for students, establishment of industrial boards, setting up of system to collect training levies from industry, separation of education system into primary, secondary and tertiary levels, use of foreign examinations and syllabi in tertiary institutions, establishment of a university and the formalisation and control of apprenticeship training.

The international influences on TVE policy growth and development had both positive and negative consequences on the Zimbabwean system. The positive consequences included providing a benchmark for local standards, exposing trainees to the technology in use (and practice) at international level making the graduates marketable internationally, enabling the system to grow and develop along internationally accepted parameters and making the TVE system compatible with international practice enabling the trainees or graduates to transfer to institutions outside the country. The negative consequences included making the TVE system to focus on the requirements of a foreign market as opposed to a local one, limiting system's capacity to contribute to national development through placing less emphasis on what is local and appropriate than on what is international and accepted in the developed world, the technical side of training was not upgraded (especially the design element), tertiary institutions offered programmes that were sometimes irrelevant to the country but popular elsewhere (South Africa or Britain) and TVE policy gave less emphasis on non-traditional groups and programmes hence the demise of the informal sector during that period.

#### **5.9.4 Policy and Socio-Economic Development**

New technologies and economic activities during responsible government required the development of requisite skills for socio-economic development. Nevertheless, it appears TVE policy growth and development during 1924 to 1979 seems not to have been guided by clearly identified human resources requirement for socio-economic development. This is because of the continued unemployment and under-utilisation of system graduates,

even for those trained in low-level skills through schemes such industrial training (Mungazi, 1990; Government of Zimbabwe, 1981). It appears the identified human resources requirements for all levels with the economically active sectors of commerce and industry were largely met through foreign recruitment. This was the case even for general labourers where Africans were recruited from neighbouring countries to come and work in this country. Only after the Unilateral Declaration of Independence in 1966 and the imposition of sanctions do we see a rather concerted effort to increase local training and involve more Africans in this training. However, these efforts seem to have been too little too late since the shortage of human skills became acute soon after independence.

### **5.9.5 Legacy From Policy Apparent as at 1990**

TVE policy growth and development during the period of responsible government was largely influenced by the work of commissions and committees of inquiry. It was also influenced by international practices at that time. The aspects of the TVE policy growth and development process during that period that were apparent as at 1990 included the use of recommendations from the National Manpower Survey to influence policy, the focus on the production of low-level skills, monitoring of training by government, use of tripartite boards involving industry, government and labour in supervising and monitoring training, and the training to international standards. Thus, it should not be surprising if the TVE policy growth and development as at 1990 suffered from the

shortcomings of its history, leading to a similar mismatch between policy growth and development and socio-economic development.

## **5.10 SUMMARY**

Generally, TVE policy growth and development during the period 1923 to 1980 was mainly influenced by the Responsible Government's continuation of policy established during BSAC rule. TVE policy growth and development was shown by the passing of new Acts of parliament and amendment to these acts that affected TVE activities (for example, Industrial Conciliation Act of 1934, the Education Acts of 1930 and 1934, the Apprenticeship Act of 1959, the Vocational Education & Training Act of 1978 and the University of Rhodesia Act of 1952). These acts had provisions for controlling TVE activities and guiding the actions of those involved in the provision of TVE services within the country.

The major social, political and economic influences on TVE policy growth and development between 1924 and 1979 included the establishment of responsible government, the Second World War, the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, the economic boom of the 1940s and 1950s, the Unilateral Declaration of Independence in 1965, the war of liberation from 1966 to 1979, the international sanctions placed on the country in the late 1960 and 1970s, shifting of focus from borrowing from South Africa to borrowing from the United Kingdom and the immigration in large numbers of those of European origin into the country. International influences on TVE policy growth and

development during responsible government rule included the increased involvement of governments in the funding, control and monitoring of TVE systems, establishment of boards composed of industry, government and labour to supervise training and setting up of independent bodies to examine tertiary level education. The legacy of TVE policy growth and development from this period was the influence by the work of commissions and committees of inquiry, and by international practices at that time.

Thus the dominant culture perpetuated Euro-centric values and profit making, while giving a low priority to TVE policy growth and development. Nevertheless, the introduction of a local TVE system at tertiary level signaled a significant development within the country. For example, the building of a technical college and a polytechnic enabled the country to train its own human resources as required by industry and commerce. The establishment of a university led to the training of the higher-level human resource that had hitherto been sourced from outside the country. Thus, an elaborate TVE system had been established by the end of colonial rule, even if it largely catered for one race only. The seed that had been planted during BSAC rule was nurtured through consolidating its major features, such as racial segregation, focus on low level skills, catering for the not-so-bright white youth while relying on high level skills recruited from outside the country. The next chapter discusses TVE policy growth and development soon after the attainment of political independence in 1980.

## **CHAPTER 6**

### **TECHNICAL AND VOCATIONAL EDUCATION POLICY**

### **GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT AFTER**

### **INDEPENDENCE: 1980 - 1990**

#### **6.0 INTRODUCTION**

Chapters 4 and 5 suggested that TVE policy slowly grew and developed in Zimbabwe from colonisation to political independence. The growth was sluggish at first but then picked to a faster pace after the institution of Responsible Government in 1923. However, the TVE policy that emerged and developed marginalised the indigenous blacks, making them resist colonial government right from its inception in 1890 up to the attainment of political independence in 1980 (Zvobgo, 1994; Phimister, 1988; Mumbwenegwi, 1986; Arrighi, 1967). The TVE policy that evolved during BSAC rule was largely influenced by a desire to emulate practices in South Africa and Britain. Nevertheless, this TVE policy growth and development within the country resulted in a TVE system that generally produced low-level skills, was heavily segregated along racial lines and was not focused on local human resource needs and standards. This chapter discusses TVE policy growth and development from the attainment of political independence in 1980 to ten years after independence in 1990. During this period, a new black majority government embracing a Socialist Pan-Africanist philosophy, took over the running of the country.

This discussion focuses on the armed struggle and nationalist TVE policy, TVE policy growth and development soon after independence, consequences of this growth and development and the challenges faced between 1980 and 1990.

## **6.1 THE ARMED STRUGGLE AND EDUCATION POLICY**

Even if there was no armed conflict between the Africans and the colonisers during the period after defeat in the wars of 1893 and 1896 up to the Unilateral Declaration of Independence (UDI) in 1965, it appears the Africans gradually became more politically conscious and expressed their discomfort with the skewed TVE policy growth and development within the country. Chief among their grievances was the issue of inequitable distribution of economic resources and discriminatory social policies, including the skewed human resource development policy (Mumbengegwi, 1989; Arrighi, 1967). Mumbengegwi (1989; p.176) notes:

The interlinking thread between land, jobs and wages was education .... Limited access to education reduced African chances to securing good and better paying jobs, thus making it difficult to achieve the socio-economic and political status which was enjoyed by their European counterparts.

This means that there was an obvious link between land, education and one's job, hence socio-economic status. Africans were aware of the importance of owning land and were not happy when this resource was taken from them at colonisation. The Aboriginal Protection Society first represented African opinion on the socio-political situation during

a three-way contest for the right to ownership of land early in the twentieth century. The contest was between the BSAC, the Settlers and the Society. The Africans were deprived of their land when, in 1918, a judgment was made by the Privy Council that the land belonged to the Crown (Mumbengegwi, 1989; Central African Archives, 1953). Thus, Africans no longer owned an important economic resource.

This situation eventually led to the formation of political parties for Africans, leading to an armed struggle that was wedged by the two main political parties that evolved, that is, the Zimbabwe African People's Union (ZAPU) and the Zimbabwe African National Union (ZANU) (Government of Zimbabwe, 1981; ZANU (PF), 1980). In the mid 1970s, ZAPU and ZANU merged their parties to form the Zimbabwe African National Union (Patriotic Front, or PF) (Zvobgo, 1994). The united liberation party intensified the armed struggle, leading to a negotiated settlement in 1979.

During the fight to liberate the country, both ZANU and ZAPU had TVE policies for the hoards of young Zimbabweans who had fled the socio-economic situation in the country and joined the refugee camps in the countries neighbouring Zimbabwe. Mumbengegwi (1986) notes that both parties embarked on extensive programmes of human resources development for members and supporters who had fled Zimbabwe and took refuge in other countries, especially in Zambia, Mozambique and Tanzania. He notes that as early as in 1977, ZANU had established a Department of Education and Culture that, together with the Department of Manpower Planning and Labour, embarked on programmes of technical and vocational education and training. Mutumbuka (1981) states that both

parties sent out hundreds of young people to other countries, especially independent African countries and eastern block countries (such as Tanzania, Kenya, Ghana, Russia, Yugoslavia and China), to train as electricians, mechanics, aircraft technicians, printers, welders, builders, plumbers, designers, tailors, caterers and other specialised technicians. The graduates were to return to the country at independence and take up employment in key economic fields in Zimbabwe. Nevertheless, the systems under which they trained were different to that prevailing in the country, requiring retraining for them to work in Zimbabwe. Thus, the training and retraining of returning refugees and ex-combatants became a driver for TVE policy reform at 1980.

## **6.2 POLICY SOON AFTER INDEPENDENCE**

At independence, the majority rule government made education (including TVE) a priority for economic development in Zimbabwe (Government of Zimbabwe, 1986; Mutumbuka, 1981). During a seminar held in Harare and sponsored by the Ministry of Education and Culture in 1981, the then Prime Minister of Zimbabwe, Robert Mugabe (1981; p.7) declared:

We wish to build a new Zimbabwe but this quest will be frustrated unless we have an educational system that is firmly oriented towards the transformation we seek. To change Zimbabwe we must first change the educational system .... In 1899 the educational ordinances created a segregated system of education. In 1981 this

independence government is determined to change, also by law, that unjust system where resources for African education was (sic) shockingly meager.

This showed the new government's desire to start TVE policy reform initiatives aimed at putting into place policy in line with the government's philosophy. At the same workshop, the then Minister of Education, Dzingai Mutumbuka, gave the new government's policy on education and training as focusing on the principles of decolonisation, abolition of racial structures, democratisation of access to education, localisation of curriculum and examinations, vocationalisation of the secondary school curriculum, promotion of Socialism and promotion of social transformation (Mutumbuka, 1981). With the help of friends and donors, a National Manpower Survey was conducted in 1981 as a starting point in setting out a new TVE policy.

### **6.2.1 Manpower Surveys: 1981 - 1990**

The Zimbabwe Government's Ministry of Manpower Planning and Development in 1981 conducted a National Manpower Survey. The Government of Zimbabwe (1981; p.35) noted:

The main objective was to take stock of the manpower situation in Zimbabwe at the time of attainment of National Independence, with particular regard to high-level and intermediate skills. These were the skills considered critical for the

implementation of the Government programme for national rehabilitation, reconstruction and development.

Therefore, the National Manpower Survey was undertaken to assist the new independent Government of Zimbabwe in the planning, training and development of the nation's human resources needed for socio-economic growth and development soon after independence. The National Manpower Survey categorised occupations into the four broad categories of professional, skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled. According to the National Manpower Survey report, professional occupations were those for which a basic requirement would be a tertiary level qualification (diploma or degree), or experience of such amount and kind as to provide a comparable background (Government of Zimbabwe, 1981). This category included occupations such as managerial, teachers, nurses, professional support staff, artists and actors. Skilled occupations were those designated under National Industrial Council Agreements and included artisans, craft and journeyman categories, plus clerical and sales type occupations where a minimum level of proficiency would be indicated by a certificate or diploma, or where possession of a minimum level of secondary education was a requirement. Semi-skilled occupations were those that were so defined in National Industrial Council Agreements and did not normally require a secondary school level of education, although primary school education was necessary for efficient performance. Semi-skilled occupations included a wide range of operatives and tradesmen's assistants. The nation's trained human resources was defined as "the sum of professional, skilled and semi-skilled manpower" (Government of Zimbabwe, 1981; p.2).

The major findings of the National Manpower Survey that impacted on TVE policy growth and development included: (i) the nation's human resource was skewed and composed of 8 percent professional, 12 percent skilled, 20 percent semi-skilled and 60 percent unskilled; (ii) Agriculture had the lowest percentage of persons in both the professional and skilled categories, and the highest percentage in the unskilled category; (iii) Africans, who made up 96 percent of the total population of the country, fared very poorly in the professional and skilled categories when compared to Europeans who made up only 3 percent of the population; (iv) Africans dominated the semi-skilled and unskilled categories; (v) the important policy and decision-making jobs were in the hands of European workers; (vi) there was a significant participation of non-Zimbabweans in the more specialised occupations and industries such as accounting, architecture, civil, mechanical, structural and mining engineering, and in Electricity, Finance, Banking, Real Estate and Business Services, Mining and Health; (vii) the national human resource was composed of 58 percent aged between 20 and 39 and 16 percent were aged 50 and above. The semi-skilled category had the highest percentage of persons in the age bracket 20 to 39 while those aged 50 and above had highest percentages in the professional category; (viii) for every female employee there were six male employees and European females enjoyed absolute dominance over all racial groups. Female employment overwhelmingly fell into service occupations (such as secretarial, nursing and teaching), with little evidence of female participation in top management and other decision-making occupations; (ix) the highest five vacancy rates (in priority order) were recorded for (a) Statisticians, Mathematicians, Systems Analysts and related technicians, (b) Architects,

Engineers and Related Technicians, (c) Executive Officials, (d) Electrical Fitters and Related Electrical and Electronics Workers and (e) Medical, Dental, Veterinary and Related Workers; (x) the highest skills shortages were in Administration and Management, Agriculture, Engineering and Medicine and these areas were likely to continue to be areas of demand for the foreseeable future; (xi) enrolments in teacher and vocational/technical training institutions were 22,270 and comprised only one percent of total educational enrolment; (xii) University of Zimbabwe enrolment amounted to a total of 2,525 of whom 69 percent were Africans, 26 percent Europeans, 4 percent Asians and 1 percent Coloureds; and (xiii) there was a flight of technical and scientific skills holders into administrative jobs soon before and after independence, and the worst hit employment sectors were Government Ministries, especially Education, Agriculture and Health (Government of Zimbabwe, 1981).

The findings of the National Manpower Survey (1981) confirmed the skewed and inappropriateness of TVE policy before independence. This is because the human resource for the country was inappropriate in many respects, especially on the optimum utilisation of all the races, and of females. A tiny minority of the total population was dominating the labour market, especially with respect to high-level and managerial skills. The obvious solution was to make TVE policy grow and develop in a direction that would address the identified anomalies for the benefit of the total population and the national economy.

The major recommendations of the National Manpower Survey affecting TVE policy growth and development included: (a) Accelerated development of training infrastructure; (b) Bonding of trainees so that they could not leave the country soon after training without contributing in economic activities; (c) Centralised recruitment of apprentices to ensure fair practices based on educational qualifications rather than on race; (d) Centralised certification of trainees as a way of standardising qualifications; (d) Classification of artisan skills into Skilled Worker Classes 1, 2, 3 and 4 so that those in the semi-skilled categories would receive official certificates; (e) Training, testing and certification of the semi-skilled workers in order to recognise and upgrade the skills of workers in industry and commerce; (f) Coordination of human resource training and development between ministries, and coordination of human resource development within the private sector; (g) Institutional training of non-apprentices in designated trades to offset the effects of resistance to train in certain trades (especially in the construction and aviation sectors) by industry; and (h) Coordination of the utilisation of technical aid for human resource development (Government of Zimbabwe, 1981). These recommendations were implemented almost immediately with assistance of donors, resulting in a phenomenal growth and expansion of TVE activities (Zimbabwe Government, 1991 & 2002). Nevertheless, the growth and development of the TVE system could not absorb the majority of the graduates from the general education system, leading to the creation of a huge pool of unemployed and under-employed 'O' and 'A' level graduates without training places. As at 1992, the majority of the unemployed persons in the country were secondary school leavers and diploma holders from the tertiary system (Government of Zimbabwe, 1992).

In general, the National Manpower Survey appears to have met its objective of providing scientific data on which TVE policy growth and development could be guided. This is because it provided the most comprehensive analysis of the country's human resources at any given time. No similar exercise seems to have been carried out in the country from colonisation up to independence. Its findings and recommendations were then used in the formulation of post independence education and training policy, resulting in a significant TVE policy growth and development. This growth and development resulted in the passing of new TVE policy, chiefly in the form of the Manpower Planning and Development Act (1984), the building of new vocational and technical institutions, the training and re-training of workers to fill in the skills categories that had been identified as experiencing human resource shortages, introduction of new areas of training and the general expansion of the TVE system. For example, with the help of donors, new technical and vocational institutions were built at Msasa, West Gate, Mutare, Marondera, Masvingo and Gweru (Government of Zimbabwe, 1984). Efforts to localise curriculum and examination were instituted in the mid 1980s and the government approved the Rationalisation of Technical and Vocational Education policy in 1990.

It is worrying to note that no similar extensive manpower survey had been carried out from the time of the 1981 Survey to 1990. The Central Statistical Office, however, continued providing monthly, quarterly and annual statistics on labour market trends on a regular basis. The statistics on manpower used to be prepared by the Department of Manpower Research in the Ministry Of Labour Manpower Planning and Social Welfare

which was later transferred to the Ministry of Higher Education in 1988. The department was also responsible for the preparation of manpower development plans. By 1990, the most recent detailed figures on human resource requirements were contained in the Annual Review of Manpower for 1985. These figures were used to produce “An indicative Manpower Plan 1986 – 90” that projected human resource development requirements for that period (Government of Zimbabwe, 1986). However, the Annual Review of Manpower of 1985 was nowhere near the detailed analysis contained in the National Manpower Survey of 1981 and lacked wide coverage and depth. It was also largely ignored by industry, especially the Construction Industry (World Bank, 1991). Since policy had to be reviewed regularly, it may have been ideal for a follow up on the National Manpower Survey 1981 at most ten years after the survey. Such a survey would have provided an accurate evaluation of the effectiveness of the policies put into place as a result of the data analysed soon after independence. Nevertheless, the TVE policy growth and development prompted by the 1981 National Manpower Survey included a 1981 Three Year National Transitional Plan and the Manpower Planning and Development Act of 1984.

### **6.2.2 The Three Year Transitional Plan (1982)**

The National Manpower Survey (1981) showed that the country’s economic and industrial development was underpinned not only by the skills of the European workers but also by the huge African labour force with varying levels of un-graded skills. Government of Zimbabwe (1983) notes that this fact had not been acknowledge before

independence when the general view from the settlers was that the economy depended on the skills of the white workers. This is because the majority of the Africans were not recognised as skilled by the colonial government because the system had not provided them with the required technical and professional qualifications, and they had no certificates or diplomas to show for the skills they had. In view of this, the policy makers seem to have recognised an urgent need for a strong and progressive policy to remove injustices in the categorising of skills and the facilitation of training and upgrading of the Africans so that their skills would be recognised (Government of Zimbabwe, 1983).

It appears the government of Zimbabwe established a Ministry of Manpower Planning and Development soon after the National Manpower Survey in 1981 in response to the survey's report. The establishment of this Ministry was in line with the idea of a Department of Manpower Development that existed in ZANU (PF) before independence (Mutumbuka, 1981). Soon after being set up, the Ministry acknowledged that Zimbabwe's greatest asset was her human resources as human labour formed the principal productive resource of any society (Government of Zimbabwe, 1983). It then produced a "Three Year Transitional Plan" in 1982 in which it stated that planning was important for providing the human resource needed for attaining the national goal of attaining economic independence and the creation of "a socialist and egalitarian society".

The Three Year Transitional Plan explained that there were many versions of Socialism, but the one adopted for Zimbabwe was not the one defined in the Marxist-Leninist Theory (Government of Zimbabwe, 1982). This kind of Socialism was to be understood

as a stage within the process of development, commencing in a revolutionary situation and proceeding as a planned process. The Government of Zimbabwe (1982) gave the Democratic Peoples' Republic of Korea as an example in which Socialism was the philosophy applied in producing the human resource for the reconstruction and eventual socio-economic development of that country. The Government of Zimbabwe (1982; p.5) stated "We are intent, in particular, on developing a sound infrastructure for the training and development of human resources as the basis for self-reliance, economic independence and progressive social development in the future." The idea of "self-reliance" seems to have been borrowed from the philosophy in Tanzania as articulated in Nyerere's "Education for Self-Reliance" since the liberation parties had a strong link with Tanzania before independence (Government of Zimbabwe, 1983; Nyerere, 1967).

The Plan gave the major objectives of the Ministry – and the Government of Zimbabwe – in human resources planning and development as: (i) to mobilise the country's human resources; (ii) to provide and develop a comprehensive infrastructure of skills development centres and training institutions in order to achieve self-reliances (sic) in all vital skills in as short a time as possible; (iii) to lay the foundation for a scientific and technological revolution through the planned provision of training; (iv) to coordinate and evaluate systems of in-service training in both the private and public sectors; (v) to ensure the efficient deployment of available skills among the various sectors of the economy; (vi) to avail to the workers and peasants, who are both the backbone of the economy and potentially the most progressive elements in society, the means to develop skills, increase productivity and in the process enhance their national and political consciousness; and

(vii) to avail, to the thousands of ex-combatants, many of whom abandoned school to join the struggle, a means to acquire new skills and improve themselves so that they can effectively participate in the economy (Government of Zimbabwe, 1982; p.7). These views seem to have been in line with African philosophies that emerged from sociopolitical ideologies that were formulated to reflect the vital norms in the culture of traditional Africans employed during campaigns for political independence (Nafukho et al., 2005). This is because the independent government's views seemed to affirm communalism as the key ethical principle in African culture that needed to be nurtured within education and training. Nafukho et al. (2005) suggest that the nationalist-ideological philosophy demands that the learner experiences, understands and responds to existing political environments in their own countries as well as in other African countries. This was evident in the independence government's desire to increase political consciousness within workers and peasants through widespread TVE and appropriate subjects within the curriculum (Government of Zimbabwe, 1983; Zvobgo, 1994).

Thus, developing the labour force to ensure self-sufficiency in all vital skills was seen as the immediate objective in the light of skills shortages caused by the exodus of skilled labour immediately before and after political independence. Bearing in mind that, at that stage, there were now three technical colleges in existence, that is, Harare Polytechnic, Bulawayo Technical College and Kwekwe Technical College that had been built by Union Carbide (PVT) Limited Company, a private organisation, and handed over to Government in 1981 (Mumbengegwi, 1986). Kwekwe Technical College enrolled its first intake in January 1982, meeting the need for training in a town whose activities were

dominated by mining and heavy engineering companies dependent on processing chrome and iron and steel products (Government of Zimbabwe, 1983). Its handing over to government was a very important development in deed since it showed the importance private companies place in the training taking place in government institutions. This strong link between industry and the polytechnic is said to continue up to date, with the trainees from the polytechnic carrying out workshop and laboratory lessons in local companies (revealed by the principal in an interview on September 24, 2004).

It is this researcher's view that a plan to comprehensively develop the human resource base to fill in the gaps identified by the National Manpower Survey (1981) was logical. Expansion of the number of technical and vocational institutions in the country was one of the routes taken by government as a way of meeting the nation's human resource requirements. Within the framework of the National Planning and Development Strategy, other technical colleges were to be established within the following two years in Gweru, Mutare, Chinhoyi and the Lowveld, and a National Vocational Training Centre was to be set up in Harare (Government of Zimbabwe, 1982). Nevertheless, the plan was not fully implemented since technical colleges had not been built at Chinhoyi and Chiredzi by 1990. Construction of a Technical Teachers' College, instead of a technical college, started at Chinhoyi in 1989 (Government of Zimbabwe, 1990). This became the second technical teachers college after the completion of a similar institution at Belvedere in Harare in the mid 1980s. The idea behind these institutions was to train technical teachers for teaching technical subjects at secondary school level as a way of vocationalising the curriculum, an aim contained in the ZANU (PF) manifesto of 1980.

Within the 1982 Plan, six rural training centres were to be established in nominated growth points (Government of Zimbabwe, 1982). These training centres were to develop the human resource in rural areas and farms as a way of uplifting their skill base and enhance the participation of rural communities in the national economy. Regional Training Centres were to be established at the Lowveld, Gweru, Kwekwe and Mutare. These Regional Training Centres were to provide training for the work force in the major industrial towns, as well as providing technical skills to entrepreneurial small scale businesses intent on providing services to the urban and rural communities (Government of Zimbabwe, 1982). All the planned rural and regional training centres had been established by 1990, producing graduates as envisaged (Government of Zimbabwe, 1990). Nevertheless, the level of training in these institutions remained below that of technical colleges and polytechnics, with the graduates largely being certificated at Skilled Worker Class Three and Four (Government of Zimbabwe, 1992). Even if those who failed to enroll at government colleges have an opportunity to train in artisan areas, the focus on low-level skills was similar to what existed before independence within the industrial training and community development training initiatives.

### **6.2.3 The Manpower Planning and Development Act (1984)**

As a way of providing the legal framework for the changes that were instituted in the Three Year Transitional Plan of 1982, the Government passed the Manpower Planning and Development Act of 1984 (see Appendix IV). The Act was intended:

To provide for the establishment and maintenance of manpower training schemes and institutions; to provide for the research and planning of manpower resources; to provide for the imposition of a levy and the establishment of a fund to finance manpower development and other purposes; to establish the National Manpower Advisory Council; to repeal the Apprenticeship Training and Skilled Manpower Development Act (Chapter 266) and the Vocational Education and Training Act, 1978 (Government of Zimbabwe, 1984; p.285).

The Act was an indication of TVE policy growth and development in the country since it introduced new provisions and added onto existing ones. It empowered the Minister to establish, equip and maintain vocational or technical training institutions as was seen necessary and desirable, a requirement borrowed from the Vocational Education and Training Act (1979). In addition, the Minister was given control over the establishment of private and voluntary technical and vocational institutions through controlling their registration and by monitoring their activities. These institutions were under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Labour, Manpower Planning and Development at that time, with apprenticeship training administered under the 1978 Act. The new policy combined the provisions of the Apprenticeship Training and Skilled Manpower Development Act (1968) and the Vocational Education and Training Act (1978) a move aimed at streamlining activities. However, teacher education was not included since it was covered under the Education Act (1984). When teacher education was placed under the Ministry of Higher Education in 1988, TVE policy governing its provision and activities had to be

brought into one policy governing the activities of that ministry to bring all human resource development under one act. The important bodies established by the 1984 Act were the National Manpower Advisory Council (NAMACO) and the Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund (ZIMDEF).

#### **6.2.4 The National Manpower Advisory Council**

A National Manpower Advisory Council (NAMACO) composed of representatives from industry was set up within the 1984 Act to replace the Apprenticeship Training and Skilled Manpower Development Authority (MANDATA) that had been formed under Chapter 266. NAMACO had more powers and functions than MANDATA and was supposed to be more effective in providing advisory services to the minister responsible for human resource development in the country (Government of Zimbabwe, 1984). For example, in addition to MANDATA's functions, NAMACO's functions included: advising the Minister on research; establishment of standards for facilities to be provided by employers for apprenticeship training; participation in developing curricula to be used in tertiary institutions; selection of persons to be trained at Government vocational or technical training or research institutions; and the imposition and collection of levies and the promotion of manpower development programmes including the organisation of an annual congress of human resource development institutions and agencies (Government of Zimbabwe, 1984). These additional powers gave industry a more participatory role in funding training and generating ideas that were to guide human resource development policy. As at 1990, NAMACO had played a very active role in the localisation of syllabi

on offer in tertiary institutions through Liaison Sectoral Committees. As at 1990, the major shortcoming of the link between NAMACO and government was seen as the seriousness with which the former's recommendations were adopted by the later. This fact was brought up in almost all NAMACO congresses in the 1980s. One of the former chairmen of NAMACO acknowledged this fact in an interview in October 2004 when he stated "Although relations between NAMACO and the Ministry were good, most of the recommendations from industry were not readily accepted by Government" (Zembe, 2004). One of the examples of this situation was the introduction of the policy on recruitment of school leavers directly into artisan trades at technical and vocational institutions as an alternative to apprenticeship training that started with an intake of 24 school leavers recruited into the Machinshop Craft Practice programme at Kwekwe Technical College in 1985 (Government of Zimbabwe, 1986). This programme later spread to Mutare Technical College and Masvingo Technical College in the late 1980s, before being introduced in other technical colleges and polytechnics. While industry felt the programme was necessary at a small scale, government went on to introduce it wholesale (Government of Zimbabwe, 2000). Government also started controlling the recruitment of apprentices from the mid 1980s onwards, leading to resistance from industry. Industry felt that insistence on a minimum entry qualification of five 'O' levels for entry into apprenticeship programmes was biased towards academic qualifications rather than on interest in the trade. Industry also felt that insistence on 'O' level qualifications left out some of its members' loyal employees who did not have the 'O' levels but were already employed and showed potential. Nevertheless, there is no doubt that the establishment of NAMACO was an important milestone in the country's TVE

policy growth and development and was in line with practices in other parts of the world. For example, advisory bodies made up of representatives from industry existed at that time in African countries, Brazil and most European countries (Smith, 1991; Bennell, et al., 1996).

### **6.2.5 The Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund**

The 1984 Act set up the Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund (ZIMDEF) whose major source of revenue was moneys collected from employers through levies (Government of Zimbabwe, 1984). NAMACO was to participate actively in the collection of levies for ZIMDEF, an important development since employers were the chief source of moneys for the Fund and needed to be involved in its collection and utilisation. The Fund was to be used for (a) bursaries, loans or advances to apprentices and other approved categories of trainees; (b) wages and allowances for apprentices and other trainees; (c) costs and out of pocket expenses incurred by trainees; (d) prizes for success after attending courses; (e) cost of conducting specified examinations; (f) the hiring of trainers; (g) grants to registered employers undertaking approved training; (h) remuneration or allowances of NAMACO members; and (i) meeting the expenses for the NAMACO annual congress (Government of Zimbabwe, 1984:296-299). Establishment of this Fund was in line with developments in other countries. For example, the United Kingdom's Technical Instruction Act of 1889 had established the collecting of levies from industry (Kelly, 1962). Brazil, Canada, Germany and Sweden also finance human resource development through levies on employers. Brazil has one of the longest

continuing industrial levy, or tax, system to finance technical and vocational education in which employers have been contributing one percent of all monthly payrolls available to support training since 1942 (Wilson, 1992). This way of funding training is ideal in the face of reduced funding from government and the need for industry to participate in human development efforts, industry being a direct beneficiary of such efforts.

It appears ZIMDEF has contributed greatly towards the funding of human resource development initiatives in Zimbabwe. The fund has also been used to supplement government funding for equipping and building technical and vocational institutions (Government of Zimbabwe, 1990). For example, from the mid 1980s, colleges and polytechnics have benefited from the fund through annual allocations of funds for purchasing training consumables and equipment for laboratories and workshops. The fund has also built libraries, classrooms, hostels and houses for staff in most colleges and polytechnics under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education (Government of Zimbabwe, 1995). All apprentices' first year salaries and allowances are paid for by the Fund. In addition, the Fund meets all apprentices' expenses for attending polytechnics, including fees and travel expenses. All trainees from polytechnics and universities on industrial attachment receive allowances from the Fund. However, the Fund's ability to provide reasonable rates for allowances has been negatively affected, mainly due to a reduced income base, an increased focus on putting up buildings, and an increase in the numbers of beneficiaries.

The allowances for trainees on attachment have tended to remain at very low-levels from their inception in 1986. The allowances for polytechnic trainees have been far below those for apprentices in similar trades and for teachers on teaching practice. For example, the attachment allowances received from ZIMDEF by trainees were pegged at as low as Z\$1,200.00 per trainee per month from the mid 1990s and were only increased to Z\$20,000.00 in February 2004. The monthly allowance has always been lower than the cost of a decent lunch plus a supper meal from an average Zimbabwean restaurant from its inception. The rate of allowance of Z\$20,000.00 in February 2004 was very low in deed, bearing in mind that a packed lunch or super from a supermarket cost at least Z\$6,000.00 at that time. Transport alone at that time had escalated to a minimum of Z\$2,000.00 per day, or Z\$10,000.00 per week, if one traveled within the big cities from out-of-town boarding commuter omnibuses in single journeys to work and back. The cost of transport doubled if one boarded these buses more than once during a trip to work. Added to this was the cost of books, clothing and tools to be used at the workplace. If the trainee had to rent accommodation, buy food provisions and tools, and board transport twice to work or twice in one journey, then the allowance became greatly out of proportion with living expenses for the trainee while on attachment. This called for a review of the policy on the funding of trainees while on attachment in industry and commerce.

Admittedly, the Manpower Planning and Development Act of 1984, set out the framework for the establishment, implementation, funding and control of old and new human resource development initiatives in Zimbabwe. Nevertheless, the Act remained

inadequate with respect to focus on the national objective of transforming the country into a Socialist state. It lacked clarity with respect to providing an adequate legal framework for effective and efficient human resource development in the country. This is mainly because it did not unite the various human resource development efforts of government and the private sector. For example, teacher education, and training in the universities, the health sector, agriculture and the mining industry were not covered by the Act. At its inception, the Ministry of Labour, Manpower Planning and Social Welfare administered the Act up to 1988 when a Ministry of Higher Education was created to administer the Act. As a way of overcoming some of its inherent shortcomings, the Act was amended in 1996 and still remains the principal human resource development legislation in Zimbabwe. Since the period of amendment is outside the delimitations of this thesis, it may be interesting to carry out research to establish the growth and development aspects of the 1996 Act.

### **6.3 MINISTRY OF HIGHER EDUCATION**

The Ministry of Higher Education (now Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education) was established in 1988 to meet the need for a more coherent approach to national human resource development that had been identified by the National Manpower Survey, 1981 (Government of Zimbabwe, 1990). The Ministry was made up of departments and sections from other Ministries, particularly the Ministries of Labour Manpower Planning and Social Welfare and that of Education. The creation of the Ministry resulted in the amalgamation of the bulk of Government tertiary institutions (especially technical

colleges, teachers' colleges and vocational training centres) under one umbrella Ministry. In a report published in 1990, first Permanent Secretary for the Ministry of Higher Education, Chanakira E. J., reported:

The establishment of the Ministry of Higher Education saw the transfer of the entire Planning Division from the then Ministry of Education to that of Higher Education. The Planning Division came to be known as the Policy Division and has two sections namely Research and Planning on one hand, and Policy and Planning on the other .... The Ministry intensified support for the policy of expanding manpower training and development which had been initiated by the two Ministries from which it inherited its functions, i.e., Teacher Education from the Ministry of Education and Technical and Vocational Training from the Ministry of Labour, Manpower Planning and social Welfare (Annual Report of the Secretary for Higher Education, 1990; p.2).

The Ministry of Higher Education also took over responsibility for the University of Zimbabwe and the Bachelor of Technology Degree programme that had been started by the Ministry of Labour, Manpower Planning and social welfare at Harare Polytechnic and the Bulawayo Technical College. The Bachelor of Technology degree programme was then handed to the University of Zimbabwe in 1989 (Annual Report for the Secretary for Higher Education, 1990). A Department of Curriculum and National examinations was created in 1989 and it had the two Units of Curriculum Research and Development (CRADU) and National Examinations Research and Development Unit (NERDU). The

Curriculum Research and Development Unit was responsible for the administration of research development and the production of all curricula for vocational and technical institutions while the National Examinations Research and Development Unit was to institute and manage a system of setting, marking, moderation and documentation of all examinations under the Further Educations Examinations Board (FEEB) inherited from the Ministry of Labour, Manpower Planning and Social Welfare. The Department of Curriculum and Examinations successfully designed and introduced 126 courses with local syllabi in technical institutions in 1989, and examinations were successfully set, marked, moderated, processed, ratified and released in these course that year (Annual Report for the Secretary for Higher Education, 1990).

These developments were in line with the new independence government's desire to change policy in order to achieve its Socialist objectives as had been expressed by Mugabe (1981) and Mutumbuka (1981). Mutumbuka was appointed as the first minister of the Ministry of Higher Education, a move that was aimed at ensuring the implementation of the new TVE policy. By 1990, the various departments in the Ministry were functional. However, the economy was declining and the government was working on an economic revival plan, leading to the adoption of a World Bank funded Economic Structural Adjustment Programme in 1991. This Programme required a shift from Socialist principles to a market economy. In line with this shift in fiscal policy, the Ministry had to review its TVE policy from 1990 onwards. Nevertheless, the TVE policy growth and development ushered by the introduction of the Manpower Planning and

Development Act (1984) bore fruit with the establishment of the Ministry of Higher Education.

In line with the need to monitor the activities of private institutions, an Inspectorate Unit of the Policy Division of the Ministry of Higher Education was set up in 1988 with responsibility for the modalities regarding the establishment and operations of independent colleges. By 1989, 106 private vocational and technical training institutions, and sixteen technical high schools and four training institutions had been registered by the Ministry (Annual Report for the Secretary for Higher Education, 1990). Thus, the Ministry immediately set out to carry out its mandate of implementing Government TVE policy from its establishment in 1988. The monitoring of the activities of private institutions was aimed at avoiding the exploitation of school leavers and other trainees by the private institutions. Government institutions could not absorb all school leavers requiring training, hence the need for private institutions to fill the gap. Nevertheless, the discussion below shows that the Manpower Planning and Development Act (1984) was flawed and steps had to be taken to correct its weaknesses.

### **6.3.1 The Shortcomings of the Manpower Planning and Development Act (1984)**

When the Ministry of Higher Education was created in 1988, the Manpower Planning and Development Act of 1984, had to be amended as a way of rationalising the legislative framework for the Ministry's functions. The Ministry of Higher Education had jointly

administered the Act with the Ministry of Labour, Manpower Planning and Social Welfare since the latter Ministry was responsible for only Part V of the Act which related to Manpower Research and Planning, enabling it to access ZIMDEF which was controlled by the former. On the other hand, the Ministry of Higher Education jointly administered the Education Act (1987) with respect to teacher education and teachers' colleges which were covered by that Act. Teacher education had become the responsibility of the Ministry of Higher Education on its inception since it was classified as part of human resource development. The arrangement where some of the functions of the Ministry of Higher Education were covered under acts of parliament other than the principal act was unhealthy, leading to a need to review the 1984 Act to include all aspects of manpower research and the control of teacher education activities. This prompted the drafting of another manpower planning and development legislation, finally passed by the Parliament of Zimbabwe in 1996.

The other major shortcoming of the Manpower Planning and Development Act of 1984 was its failure to place all manpower planning and development activities under one ministry. As in 1990, the following Government Ministries were providing institutional technical and vocational education activities under individualised Acts of Parliament: (1) Community and Co-operative Development, (2) Defense, (3) Education and Culture, (4) Environment and Tourism, (5) Health, (6) Higher Education, (7) Home Affairs, (8) Public Service, Labour and Social Welfare. (9) Lands, Agriculture and Rural Development, (10) Mines and (11) Political Affairs (Government of Zimbabwe, 1995). In addition to the Government Ministries, the following Government Parastatals were also

involved in formal training; (a) Air Zimbabwe, (b) Forestry Commission, (c) National Railways of Zimbabwe, (d) Posts and Telecommunications Co-operation, (e) Zimbabwe Tourist Development Co-operation and (f) Zimbabwe Iron and Steel Company (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991). Most of the training offered by the Government Ministries and Parastatals was at certificate level and to locally designed syllabuses (Ministry of Higher Education, 1991). The Manpower Planning and Development Act (1984) did not apply to the education and training activities outside the Ministry of Higher Education, unless the training institutions followed syllabi from the Ministry's Higher Education Examinations Council (HEXCO). This was a shortcoming in the legislation in that the coordination of total human resource development efforts within the country was lacking, a situation leading to duplication of efforts and failure to optimally utilise the limited resources, especially public funds, available for that purpose. The situation in other countries at that time, for example the United Kingdom and South Africa, was that the polytechnics and technical colleges were under those countries' ministries of education and provided training for all technical and vocational employment in industrial, commercial and public sectors, the only exceptions being training for the uniformed forces. The training included for professions in the health and agricultural sectors, which was being offered by individual ministries in Zimbabwe.

Key stakeholders who were interviewed for this research saw the competing for training among government ministries as one of the weaknesses of Zimbabwe's TVE policy. The United Kingdom and South Africa were given as some examples where tertiary institutions fall under the Ministries of Education for those countries where they train in

all professions, with practical training taking place in those ministries' respective departments, such as schools, hospitals, farms, offices and laboratories and workshops. One respondent observed that "Zimbabwe needs to move from the concept of manpower development to that of the development human capital through accurately determined national labour needs and optimally utilising limited resources". This means that the country needs to move from its focus on meeting the social demand for training to a situation where the nation clearly defines its human capital requirements and uses tertiary level institutions to meet this requirement. In such a scenario, identifying manpower requirements through scientific surveys is critical.

#### **6.4 POLICY GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT: 1980 - 1990**

The significant TVE policy growth and development elements between 1980 and 1990 were focusing on the principles of skills upgrading for African workers, increased access to tertiary education, management and entrepreneurship training, localisation of curriculum and examinations, vocationalisation of the secondary school curriculum, development of science and technology and promotion of self reliance (Government of Zimbabwe, 1981). TVE policy had to be put in place to cater for the skills upgrading of the huge pool of workers who were classified as unskilled or semi-skilled as revealed by the National Manpower Survey (1981). The skills of those trained outside the country during the liberation struggle had to be upgraded to suit local conditions. To this end, new TVE institutions had to be established and entry into tertiary level institution was democratised through the removal of non-academic barriers to enrolment. In response to

increased access to technical and vocational education by those already in employment, vocational training centres were established in Harare and Bulawayo with the assistance of Germany aid to train workers from industry who did not hold the qualifications for normal entry into the Harare Polytechnic or the Bulawayo Technical College (Government of Zimbabwe, 1984). This was important TVE policy growth and development since the semi-skilled and un-skilled workers in industry were given a chance to improve their skills and acquire new skills.

Another important development was that a mechanism to trade test those who were already working so that they could be classified as skilled was put in place, with the Industrial Training Department of the Ministry of Labour being given the responsibility to test and certify workers in designated trades. In Zimbabwe, designated trades are occupations in which one cannot practice as a skilled worker unless tested and certified by the relevant authority. The trades are referred to as artisan trades. Increased enrolments into artisan trades were achieved when direct entry trainees were enrolled into colleges without signing contracts of apprenticeship to train in these trades where this was not possible before independence (Government of Zimbabwe, 1981).

In order to discourage those that would have been trained in critical professions from leaving the country, “bonding” was introduced, first for apprentices in 1982, and then for other fields such as the health professions and university graduates in the mid 1980s (Government of Zimbabwe, 2003). Bonding required that one had to work in Zimbabwe for a period equal to at least the length of training into the profession. If one opted to

leave the country, the person then had to refund to government the amount received as assistance in the form of a loan or scholarship. However, due to a rising unemployment rate mainly as a result of declining economic growth rates, a large number of bonded graduates opted to pay and leave the country making bonding ineffective (Government of Zimbabwe, 2003; Chetsanga, 2002).

An unhealthy situation with respect to TVE policy between 1980 and 1990 was that the TVE system soon after independence was characterised by a multiplicity of courses being offered by private, government, parastatal and local authority institutions (Government of Zimbabwe, 1990). These training programmes were leading to various levels of award, with varying curriculum demands and durations sometimes leading to similar certificate levels. In some cases, diplomas offered by private colleges were from international examining bodies and were judged to be below the standard of a certificate offered by Government colleges in the same area. For example, a diploma in computer technology from some international computer associations lasted only one year while that from the polytechnics lasted three years, with a diploma for the Hotel Industry lasting four years. This prompted Government to come up with a policy called “The Rationalisation of Vocational and Technical Education in Zimbabwe” in 1990 aimed at standardising and localising the TVE system curriculum in the country. The Government of Zimbabwe (1990; p.1) stated:

The new policy establishes that Vocational and Technical Education be structured basically at 5 levels: Pre-Vocational Certificate (PVC), National Foundation

Certificate (NFC), National Certificate (NC), National Diploma (ND) and Higher National Diploma (HND). This entails qualitative changes in terms of the target population and the content of post-secondary education, in order to not only facilitate the establishment of linkages, especially with university education, but also effective transfer and development of technological expertise in Zimbabwe.

The first level for technical qualifications, the Pre-Vocational Certificate, was to be taken at primary school level and was equivalent to a Grade 7 qualification. This ensured that those who drop out at primary school level would leave with a qualification that could be used for employment purposes (Government of Zimbabwe, 1990). The National Foundation Certificate was to be taken at secondary school level and was to be equivalent to an 'O' level qualification. The Prevocational Certificate and the National Foundation Certificate were to be single subject qualifications aimed at entry into a profession. The National Certificate, National Diploma and Higher National Diploma were higher-levels to be taken in tertiary level institutions. The entry qualification to the National Certificate was a pass in five subjects at 'O' level and the entry requirements to the National Diploma was a pass at National Certificate level, or at 'A' level. These vocational levels were aimed at producing artisans, technicians and technologists. The National Diploma was to be equivalent to 1<sup>st</sup> year university work while the National Higher Diploma was to be equivalent to two years of university work.

The rationalisation of vocational education policy required that there was to be a National Examinations Council for Higher Education composed of professional and technical

representatives of specialist disciplines and institutions that would become the authority responsible for setting and controlling standards and the award of certificates and diplomas at non-degree levels (Government of Zimbabwe, 1990). NAMACO played the role of advisor to the Council through representation in specialist syllabus design and review sub-committees composed of its representatives, those from the ministry and lecturers from polytechnics. The sub-committees undertook the work of localising technical and vocational curricula on offer in tertiary institutions in the country. This led to a situation where, by 1990 over ninety-five percent of courses on offer in vocational institutions, technical colleges and polytechnics were on locally designed syllabuses as compared to less than one-percent at independence (Government of Zimbabwe, 1981, 1990).

The localisation of syllabi in Zimbabwe's technical and vocational institutions was an important TVE policy growth and development in that it sought to make human resource development relevant to the needs of the country. Foreign syllabi are based on foreign socio-economic conditions, making them largely inappropriate to local conditions. The joint participation of government and industry in designing these local syllabi was a welcome development since it ensured the graduates would be appropriate and acceptable to commerce and industry. As a guide, the Rationalisation of Vocational and Technical Education in Zimbabwe policy provided the benchmark for levels of training within technical and vocational institutions. It is interesting to note that, coming into force at the end of the first ten years of independence, the Rationalisation of Vocational and Technical Education in Zimbabwe (1990) policy aimed at bringing some sanity into the

human resource development field in the country. The linking of training at polytechnic or college level, to training at university level was a noble idea indeed. This is because the technical college system seemed to have operated independently of the university system, without a clear progression route linking the two. However, it will be interesting to determine, through research, whether this link was eventually established after 1990.

## **6.5 CONSEQUENCES OF POST-INDEPENDENCE POLICY**

In line with the Prime Minister's 1981 call for transforming the socio-economic environment using education, policy was put in place to enable the massive expansion of the education and training system. For example, most rural primary schools were turned into secondary schools often referred to as "upper tops". In addition, schools that had been destroyed during the war of liberation were rebuilt and TVE institutions were established in all major towns. Youth training centres were built in all the eight provinces of the country to train youth from the refugee camps and those from the rural areas whose education had been disrupted by the war. The limit of six years on the school going age was suspended to cater for older youths and young adults who intended to go back to school. These initiatives resulted in a massive expansion of the education system, and a notable TVE policy growth and development.

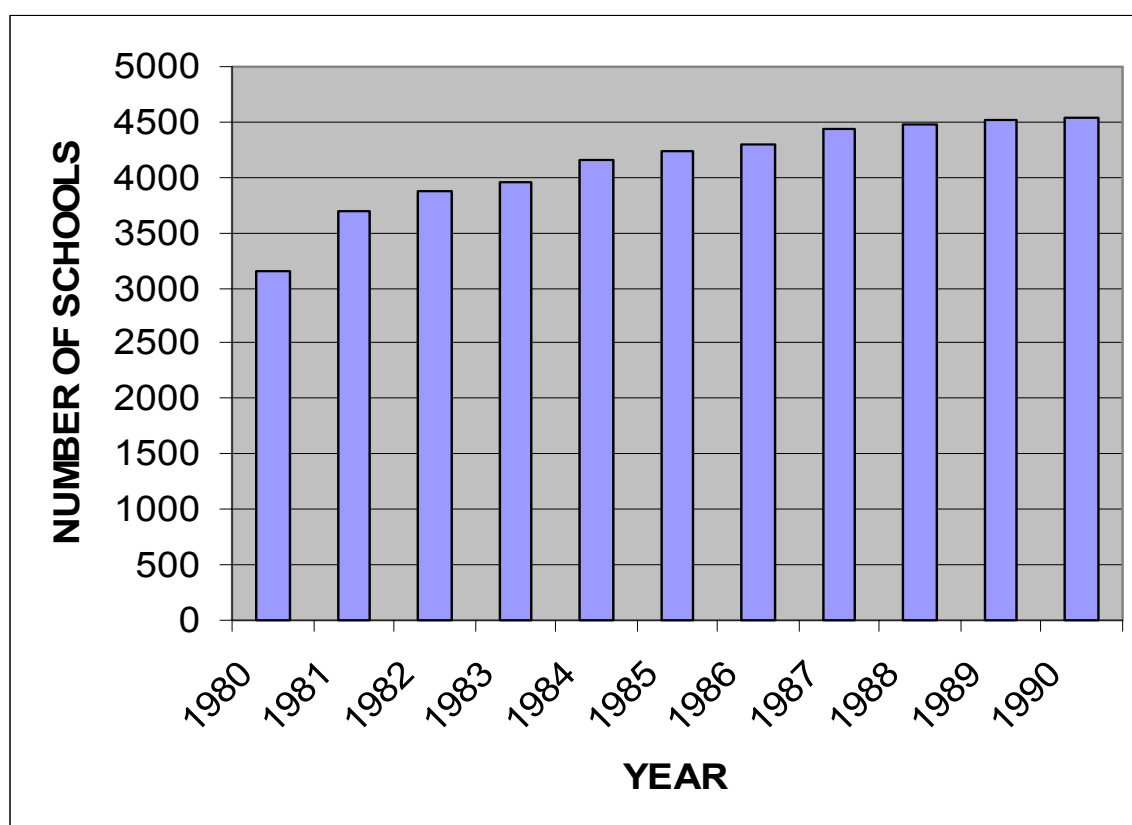
It is important to note at this stage that the education system in Zimbabwe has five parts, that is, pre-school, primary, lower secondary, upper secondary, higher and tertiary education. Pre-schools accommodate the 3 to 5 years age group, primary schools the 6 to

13 years age group, secondary schools the 14 to 18 years of age group and higher education and tertiary institution from 16 years onwards. TVE policy has to cater for those who complete secondary school as well as those who fail to complete. Unfortunately, the system in Zimbabwe focuses on those school leavers with at least a recognised formal qualification, that is, those with five passes at 'O' Level (after four years of secondary education). This is at the expense of those who drop out of the school system without formal qualifications. The drop out rate is rather high at all levels in the general education system, requiring TVE policy to respond to the needs of these school dropouts in an appropriate manner.

### **6.5.1 Primary School Enrolments, Dropouts and Graduates**

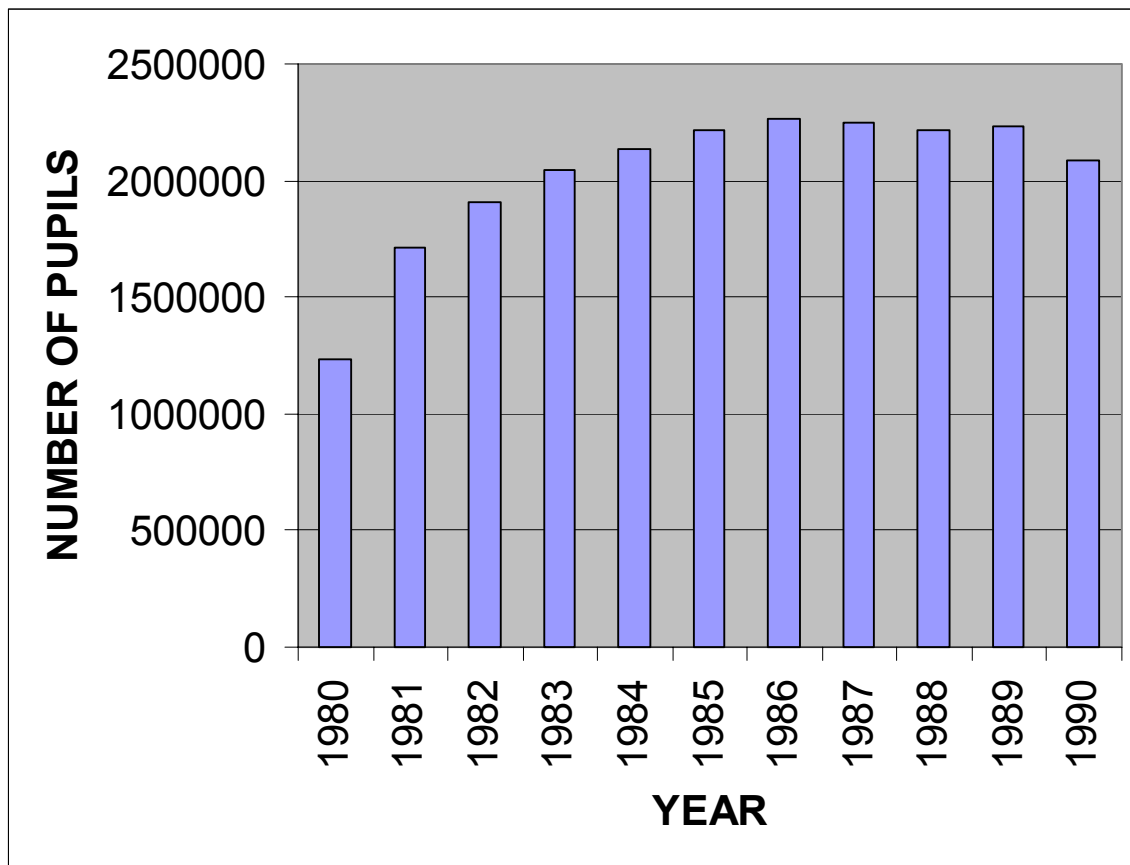
As at 1990, general education was provided under the Ministry of Education in Zimbabwe. These levels were pre-school, primary school and secondary school. Even if pre-school education is available in most urban centres, primary schools form the foundation for formal education to the majority of Zimbabwean children. Primary school dropouts are those children who enroll into school but fail to complete, or progress beyond, a given level within primary school (Government of Zimbabwe, 2003; Piromruen & Keoyote, 2001). The dropout rate is usually expressed as the number of pupils who leave school before completing a stage of schooling in a cycle of education, expressed as a percentage of the total enrolment of the previous grade or stage of schooling. Figure 6.1 shows that the number of Zimbabwean primary schools increased

by forty-three percent in the first ten years after independence (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991).



**Figure 6.1: Number of Primary Schools in Zimbabwe: 1980 – 1990 (Ministry of Education and Culture, Secretary's Report for 1991)**

Figure 6.1 shows a steady increase in the number of primary schools in Zimbabwe between 1980 and 1990. The Government of Zimbabwe (1991) shows that primary schools rose from 3160 in 1980 to 4530 in 1990 a huge expansion considering the size of the country. Figure 6.2 shows primary school enrolments between 1980 and 1990.



**Figure 6.2: Primary School Enrolments: 1980 – 1990 (Ministry of Education and Culture, Secretary's Report for 1991)**

Figure 6.2 shows that enrolments in primary schools increased considerably from independence to 1990. The drop in enrolments from 1986 to 1990 was most likely due to the re-introduction of school fees that had been removed in 1980 and were re-introduced in 1986 (Government of Zimbabwe, 1998). However, Figure 6.1 on Page 240 shows that the number of primary schools had been steadily increasing from 1980 to 1990, while Figure 6.2 shows that the number of pupils started dropping from 1986 even if the number of schools kept on rising. The drop in enrolments against an increase in the number of schools may be attributed to the use of some of these primary schools for enrolling secondary school classes as “upper tops” as explained earlier, and to a high

number dropping out of school. Table 6.1 shows the dropout rate at primary school level between 1980 and 1990.

**Table 6.1: Primary School Dropouts\* by Enrollment Cohorts: 1980 - 1990**

<b>YEAR</b>	<b>NUMBER</b>	<b>NUMBER</b>	<b>DROPOUTS</b>	
<b>ENROLLED</b>	<b>ENROLLED INTO</b>	<b>ENROLLED</b>		
<b>INTO</b>	<b>GRADE 1 SEVEN</b>	<b>INTO GRADE 7</b>		
<b>GRADE 7</b>	<b>YEARS EARLIER.</b>			
			<b>NUMBER</b>	<b>%</b>
1980	159,328	97,099	62,229	39.06%
1981	164,056	140,680	23,376	14.25%
1982	163,505	148,886	14,619	8.94%
1983	168,294	168,769	-475	-0.28%
1984	157,215	181,050	-23,835	-15.16%
1985	170,090	212,100	-42,010	-24.70%
1986	376,392	288,729	87,663	23.29%
1987	471,448	325,902	145,546	30.87%
1988	408,780	305,136	103,644	25.35%
1989	368,329	281,715	86,614	23.52%
1990	528,248	252,000	276,248	52.30%
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>3,135,685</b>	<b>2,402,066</b>	<b>733,619</b>	<b>23.40%</b>
<b>AVERAGE</b>	<b>313,569</b>	<b>240,267</b>	<b>73,302</b>	<b>23.38%</b>

**Source: Ministry of Education and Culture, Secretary's Report for 1991.**

\*Dropouts are those students who did not complete 7 years of primary education.

Table 6.1 shows that the dropout rate decreased drastically from 39 percent in 1980 to about zero in 1983 and then to -25 percent in 1985 (which was an excess over enrollment at Grade 1 seven years earlier). This was most probably due to the readmission of primary school students whose education had been disturbed by the war, the lifting of the age restriction, and due to free primary education at that time. However, the rate rose again to 23 percent in 1986 when primary school fees were re-introduced. It then rose gradually to a peak of 52 percent in 1990. Government of Zimbabwe (1998) notes that

even if the percentage enrolment for girls was about fifty percent of total enrolment for the period 1980 to 1990, their dropout rate was higher than that for boys during the same period. Table 6.2 shows the progression from Grade 7 to Form 1.

**Table 6.2: Primary School Graduates Progression: 1980-1990**

<b>YEAR ENROLLED (1980-90)</b>	<b>PRIMARY SCHOOL GRADUATES</b>	<b>FORM 1 ENROLLMENTS</b>	<b>PRIMARY SCHOOL LEAVERS</b>	
			NUMBER	%
1980	97,099	22,200	74,899	77.14%
1981	140,680	83,491	57,189	40.65%
1982	148,886	97,752	51,134	34.34%
1983	168,769	110,725	58,044	34.39%
1984	181,050	138,904	42,146	23.28%
1985	212,100	148,002	64,098	30.22%
1986	288,729	166,168	12,2561	42.45%
1987	325,902	202,899	12,3003	37.74%
1988	305,136	211,816	93,320	30.58%
1989	281,715	206,634	75,081	26.65%
1990	251,997	192,753	59,244	23.51%
<b>TOTALS</b>	<b>2,402,063</b>	<b>1,581,344</b>	<b>820,719</b>	<b>34.17%</b>

**Source: Ministry of Education and Culture, Secretary's Reports for 1991 and 1989.**

Table 6.2 shows that the rate of progression from Grade 7 to Form 1 increased steadily from 1980 to 1990. It is unfortunate, though, that not all primary school graduates proceeded to Form 1 as per Government policy of automatic progression from Grade 7 as shown by the average drop out rate of 34 percent between 1980 and 1990. The failure to progress to Form 1 by many children is probably due to a shortage of enrolment places and the payment of school fees at this level. The Government of Zimbabwe (1998) notes

that the dropout rate for girls was higher than that for boys at primary school level and this surely curtailed the girl child's chances of participating in TVE activities.

Piromruen and Keoyote (2001) note that poverty seems to be one of the major international causes for failing to attend, or for dropping out of, school. This is because dropout rates tend to be highest in poor communities or families. For example, in the United States of America, poverty is high among Hispanics and African Americans and dropout rates among these groups are higher than for non-Hispanics. In Zimbabwe, among the very poor, 18 percent aged five years and above had never been to school in 1995 compared with 13 percent and 8 percent for the poor and non-poor (Government of Zimbabwe, 1997).

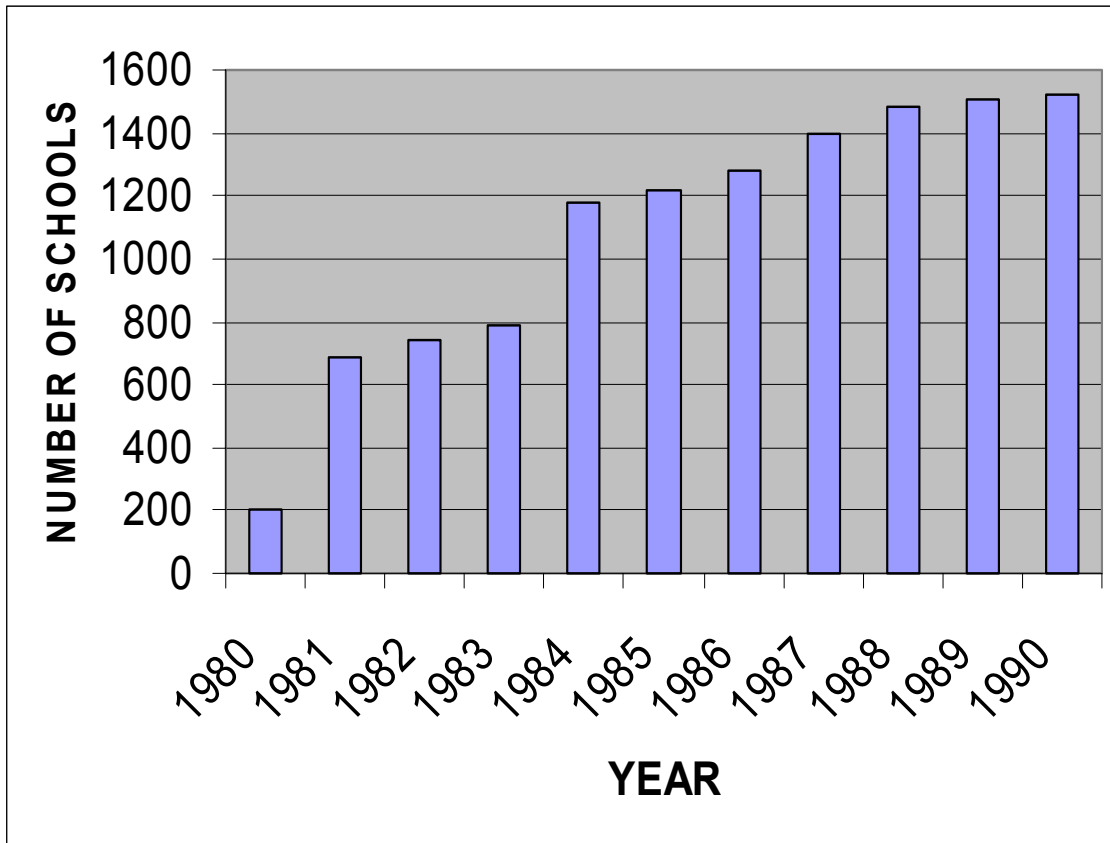
The main causes associated with dropping out of school are generally grouped into six factors, namely, demographic, family, socio-economic status, school-related, behavioural, and psychological (Piromruen & Keoyote, 2001; UNESCO, 2005). Demographic factors are to do with sex, age, having one parent and being a minority group. Family factors include home environment, family support and attitude towards education. Socio-economic factors include parental occupation, parental educational attainment, family income and assisting the family. For example, in the USA, 71 percent of all school dropouts in 2001 were from fatherless homes (African Christian Action, 2003). School factors are to do with school transfer, academic, homework, school safety, suspense, and grades attained. Psychological factors involve intelligence, attitude towards learning, attitude towards school, learning satisfaction and school boredom (UNESCO, 2005).

Therefore, the causes are many and varied, suggesting that the problem of children dropping out of school is a challenge unlikely to be completely eradicated by any community or country. The solution seems to lie in reducing the effects of the factors that lead to one dropping out of school, and implementing interventions aimed at meeting the education and training needs of those that drop out of school.

The rationalisation of vocational and technical education in Zimbabwe policy of 1990 required that those at primary school study Pre-Vocational subjects so that they would leave with some technical and vocational qualification that could be easily developed into a career (Government of Zimbabwe, 1990 & 2000). Nevertheless, there had been insignificant adoption of this policy by schools by 1990 suggesting that those dropping out at primary school level are leveling with no meaningful technical and vocational education skills to talk about. Such a situation calls for appropriate TVE initiatives to enable these dropouts to contribute more meaningfully to the national economy.

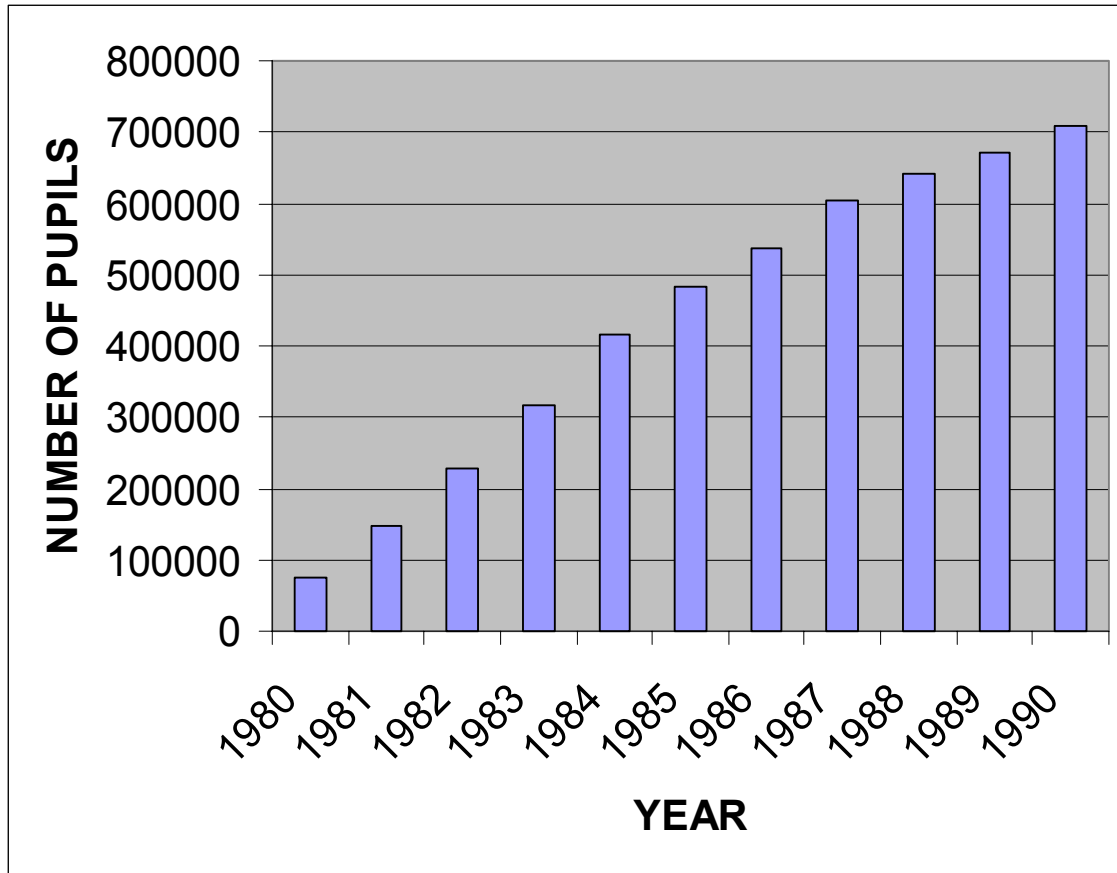
### **6.5.2 Secondary School Enrolments, Dropouts and Graduates**

In Zimbabwe, secondary school education is for those who will have completed seven years of primary school education. Progression from primary school to secondary school is supposed to be automatic (Government of Zimbabwe, 1992). Figure 6.3 shows the number of secondary schools from 1980 to 1990.



**Figure 6.3: Number of Secondary Schools: 1980 – 1990 (Central Statistical Office, 1993; p.28)**

The huge increase in the number of schools offering secondary education from independence onwards shown in Figure 6.3 resulted in a large number of secondary school graduates being released into the Zimbabwean society, placing a huge demand on the tertiary education system. Secondary school enrollment increased by 853 percent between 1980 and 1990 and girls made up an average of forty-two percent of the total enrolment during this period (Government of Zimbabwe, 1998). Figure 6.4 shows the increase in enrolments.



**Figure 6.4: Secondary School Enrolments: 1980 –1990 (Annual Report of the Secretary for Education, 1993)**

Figure 6.4 shows that secondary school enrolments had a very steep rise from 1980 to 1990. This was most likely due to the relaxation of requirements for entry into secondary school that had been in place before independence, notable among them being the need to pass Grade 7 examinations. The policy on automatic progressing from Grade 7 to form one ensured increased enrolments at secondary school level. The increase in secondary school places shown in Figure 6.4 tallies with the increase in the number of secondary schools shown in Figure 6.3. This presents a picture different to the primary school situation where the increase in the number of enrolments did not match the increase in the

number of schools from 1986 onwards. However, the increase in Form 4 places was not matched by a similar growth in Form 5 places. This was mainly because the number of schools offering 'A' level classes remained low during the period. Table 6.3 shows the numbers of 'O' level graduates who did not proceed to 'A' level between 1980 and 1990.

**Table 6.3: Secondary School Leavers: 1980 - 1990**

<b>YEAR ENROLLED (1980-90)</b>	<b>"O" LEVEL GRADUATES WITH 5 OR MORE SUBJECTS</b>	<b>FORM FIVE ENROLLMENTS</b>	<b>"O" LEVEL SCHOOL LEAVERS WHO DID NOT PROCEED TO "A" LEVEL</b>	
			NUMBER	%
1980	12,926	2,700	10,226	79.11%
1981	15,323	4,992	7,934	61.38%
1982	15,772	5,478	9,845	64.25%
1983	24,509	5,869	9,903	62.79%
1984	71,014	7,137	17,372	70.88%
1985	89,517	8,839	62,175	87.55%
1986	97,820	6,299	83,218	92.96%
1987	113,915	6,401	91,419	93.46%
1988	112,865	7,946	105,969	93.02%
1989	122,118	8,376	104,489	92.58%
1990	125,418	8,273	113,845	93.23%
<b>TOTAL</b>	<b>801,197</b>	<b>79,499</b>	<b>721,698</b>	<b>90.08%</b>
<b>AVERAGE</b>	<b>72,836</b>	<b>7,227</b>	<b>65,609</b>	<b>81.21%</b>

**Source: Ministry of Education and Culture, Secretary's Report for 1991.**

Table 6.3 shows an average of over eighty-percent dropout rate during transition from 'O' to 'A' level between 1980 and 1990. This dropout rate became rather high from 1986 onwards when it exceeded ninety percent (90%). This is worrisome because it shows the creation of a huge bottleneck during transition from Form 4 to Form 5. It is worrying to note that the dropout rate rose gradually from 1980 to 1990. By 1990, over 113,000 Form 4 graduates could not find places to proceed to Form 5, creating a huge pool of school

leavers with 'O' level qualifications needing training at tertiary level. Related to this scenario is the worrying statistic that enrolment figures show that the number of candidates who sat for 'O' level examinations increased from 5,400 in 1980 to 220,300 in 1989, then dropped to 201,555 in 1990, while those who enrolled for 'A' level only increased from 2,700 to 8,300 during the same period confirming the high dropout rate at these levels (Government of Zimbabwe 1988 & 1993). This suggests that a high number of secondary school pupils are dropping out of secondary school and, by 1990, over ninety percent (90%) of 'O' graduates were failing to proceed to 'A', requiring TVE policy and development to address their tertiary level education and training needs.

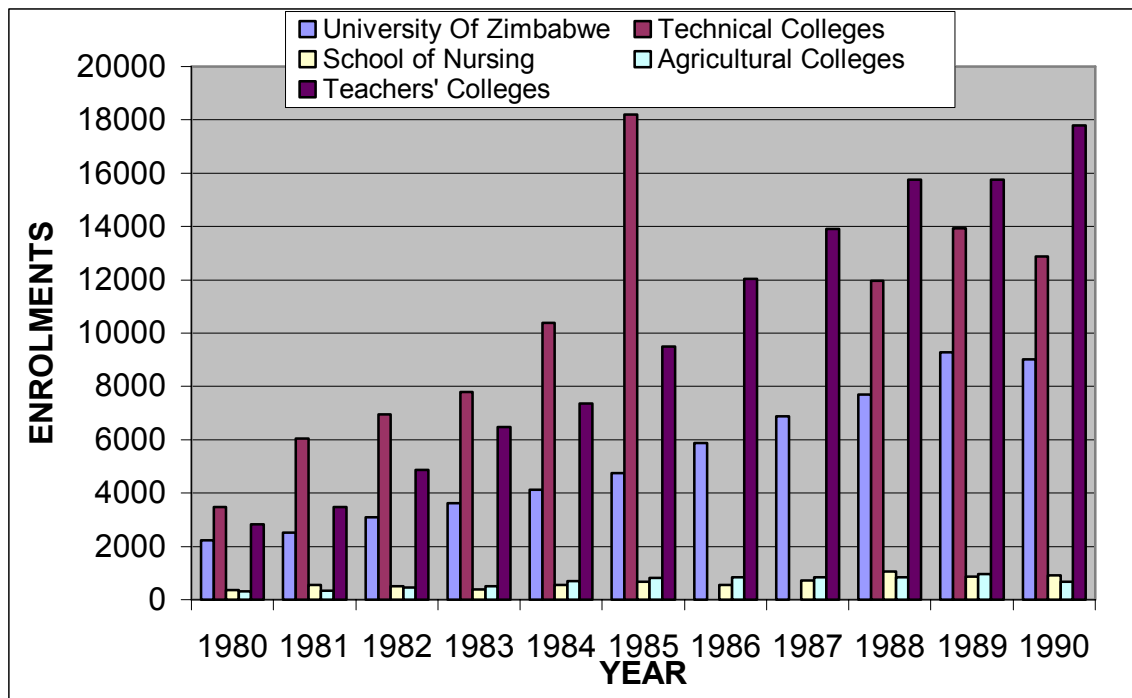
Another source of secondary school dropouts was the Zimbabwe Foundation for Education with Production (ZIMFEP) schools. Eight technical and vocational schools for former refugees from Zambia, Mozambique and Tanzania were established in 1981 through ZIMFEP. The philosophy behind the project was Scientific Socialism based on the Marxist Leninist philosophy (Ministry of Education, 1987). This project was donor funded and it linked practical subjects to production for use by the schools and the surrounding community. ZIMFEP was based in both the primary and secondary school system and was an off-shoot of practice in refugee camps during the war of liberation where the schools had to produce for the sustenance of the camps (Mutumbuka, 1981). In a way, ZIMFEP was similar to the practice of industrial training that had been in place during BSAC Rule, Responsible Government and after UDI. However, agriculture became the dominant activity and an evaluation report revealed that there was a heavy reliance on agriculture related activities in which the trainees were being used as cheap

labour (Ministry of Education, 1987). It is unfortunate, though, that ZIMFEP suffered the shortcomings of its predecessor because it produced low-level skills that were useful only in supportive roles to graduates of tertiary institutions and suffered funding problems. Its other shortcoming was its focus on subjects that were not part of the formal examination system for secondary schools, incurring the wrath of the general public whose preference was for academic subjects (Government of Zimbabwe, 1999; Zvobgo, 1990; Ministry of Education, 1987). All the ZIMFEP schools had become ordinary primary and secondary schools by 1990.

### **6.5.3 Tertiary Institutions Enrolments**

An average of 66 000 secondary school graduates (or 81 percent of the total number of graduates) with five passes or more at 'O' level were released into society annually after failing to secure 'A' level places between 1980 and 1990 (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991). These graduates, plus the dropouts at that level, are in addition to the graduates and dropouts at primary school, plus those that never attended school, posing policy growth and development challenges for TVE policymakers. According to the policy on rationalisation of vocational and technical education in Zimbabwe, all those who attend school are supposed to leave with a vocational qualification (Government of Zimbabwe, 1990). The Pre-Vocational Certificate (PVC) and National Foundation Certificate (NFC) are single subject courses offered at primary and secondary school levels while the National Certificate (NC), National Diploma (ND) and Higher National Diploma (HND) are full courses at tertiary college level. The PVC and NFC are single-subject courses

offered within the general education system by very few primary and secondary schools (less than fifty in total as at 1990), and in a few private colleges and Government vocational training centers (Zimbabwe Government, 1991). The NC and ND courses are offered in tertiary institutions and are designed for preparing one into employment at the artisan or technician levels. The HND courses produce technologists and are considered to be at the level of two years of university education for degrees in similar areas (Government of Zimbabwe, 1990). Figure 6.5 gives enrolments to tertiary level institutions during the period 1980 to 1990.



**Figure 6.5: Enrolments in Tertiary Institutions: 1980 – 1990 (Central Statistical Office, 1993; pp.31-40)**

Figure 6.5 shows that teachers and technical colleges catered for the largest percentage of the total enrolments to Government tertiary level institutions between 1980 and 1990. This is understandable due to the popularity of these programmes, the institutions' expanded capacity soon after independence and their contribution to national labour requirements. Technical college training prepares one for employment in government, commerce and industry, hence the large enrolments in these institutions. Teachers' colleges' demand for training is obviously linked to the need for teachers to fill vacancies in the expanded school system. Those that train as teachers are normally absorbed into the school system soon after training, reducing the danger of failing to find employment after training, hence the popularity for teacher training with school leavers. This study examined these institutions' contribution to the provision of the nation's skilled and professional human resources.

#### **6.5.4 University Education in Zimbabwe**

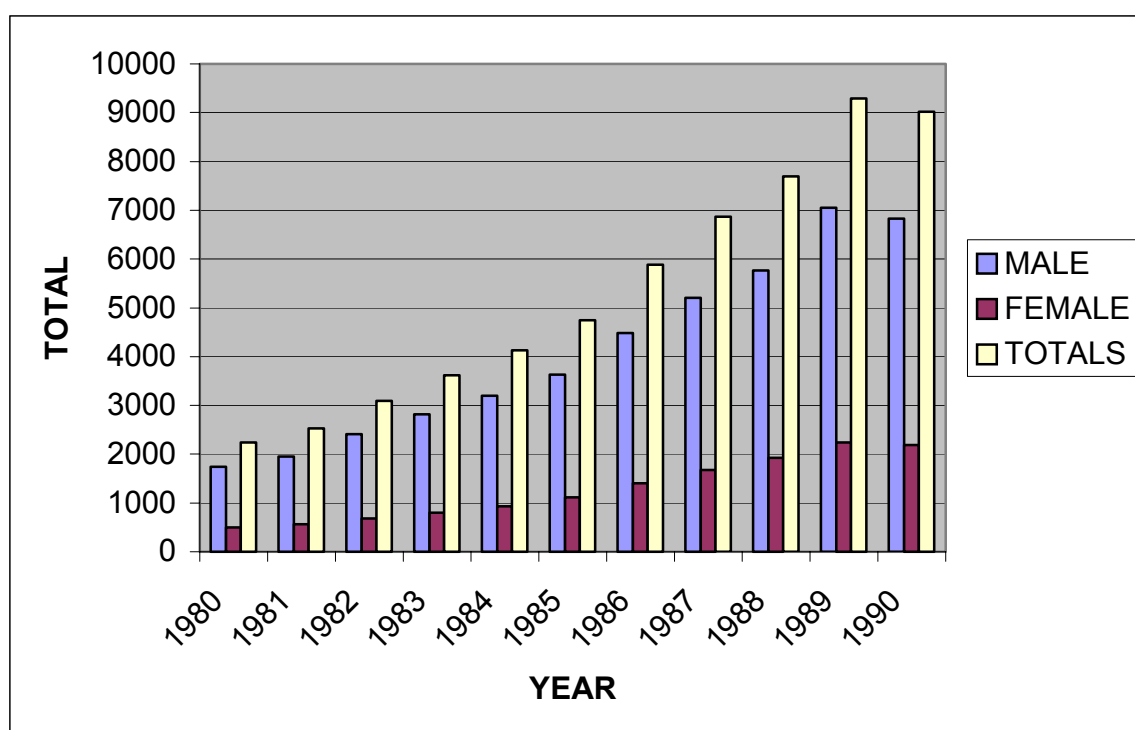
The University college of Rhodesia and Nyasaland, established by Royal Charter in 1957, became the University of Rhodesia in January 1971 and the University of Zimbabwe in April 1980 (University of Zimbabwe, 1990). The University of Zimbabwe existed as the only university in the country between 1980 and 1990. It was a multiracial institution from its inception onwards, but its curriculum before independence tended to be metropolitan and it enrolled a very small number of indigenous Africans compared to enrolled Europeans. At independence, the name of the University was changed to The University of Zimbabwe. According to Robert Mugabe, then Prime Minister of

Zimbabwe, the university's change of name was more than just a mere formality, but a hope and expectation of the institution's transformation to make it relevant to the needs of the country. According to him:

(The) University shall convert itself from a University in Zimbabwe into a genuine and authentic University of Zimbabwe. Its structure and procedures must be rationalized and infused with a democratic content. Its curriculum ... must necessarily lay considerable emphasis on our national realities in all their diversity and interconnections (Mugabe, 1981).

In line with the envisaged changes, the Royal Charter was surrendered and the institution came under local control from 1982 onwards. The University of Zimbabwe Act of 1982, was passed in order to facilitate for the University's transformation. The 1982 Act provided for a new administrative structure, that included a Chancellor, Vice-Chancellor and Pro-Vice Chancellors, elected deans and a University Council made up of members who were from among Zimbabweans (University of Zimbabwe, 1990; Mumbengegwi, 1986). The President of Zimbabwe became the first Chancellor under the new Act and Black Zimbabweans filled most key positions. The University had eight faculties at independence and these faculties were restructured after the passing of the Act, with two new faculties of Veterinary Science and Law being established. The Faculty of Veterinary Science was established with the aim of strengthening the country's cattle industry to enable it to serve both the domestic and export markets. Changes were made to the administration structures of the university. At independence, professors led

faculties and the new Act placed the appointment of deans in the hands of the Vice Chancellor, enabling him to appoint African lecturers who were not necessarily professors. These changes resulted in the introduction of new programmes and an increased enrolment at the University, a remarkable TVE policy growth and development. Figure 6.6 shows enrolment levels for the University of Zimbabwe between 1980 and 1990 (University of Zimbabwe, 1990).



**Figure 6.6: University of Zimbabwe Enrolments: 1980 – 1990 (Central Statistical Office, 1993; p.31)**

The University of Zimbabwe took initiatives to increase the participation of females in its education and training activities. One of these initiatives was “affirmative action” in

recruiting females to hardcore engineering areas. In response to the recommendations of a paper presented to Senate after a research study by Professor Rudo Gaidzanwa, the university reduced the entry requirements for female applicants by two points, setting itself a target of 50 percent female enrolment by 1990. This policy seems to have suffered a setback, though, since enrolment of females at the institution remains low as shown by Figure 6.6 above.

The enrolment at the University increased by a total of 315 percent between 1980 and 1989, a huge jump in deed (Government of Zimbabwe, 1998, p.36). Figure 6.6 shows that the enrolment of females has gradually risen over the years, but is still less than 30 percent of total enrolment. The policy of affirmative action in favour of women that was put in place in the early 1980s was still to be achieved by 1990. The total enrolment at the University of Zimbabwe increased gradually up to 1989 then declined in 1990. This suggests that the University had reached saturation point in 1989, and additional, or alternative, similar institutions needed to be established. The University's enrolment capacity was no longer adequate considering that, in 1990, 9,984 'A' level graduates qualified for university education from schools against the university's enrolment of 9,017. The figure for those who qualified from high schools in 1990 does not include those who had qualified earlier and had failed to secure a place at the university in previous years. It also fails to account for those that qualified for enrolment at the university through other routes, such as mature entry, passing re-written single subjects failed earlier, and those qualifying from schools outside Zimbabwe. This means that the

university of Zimbabwe was failing to cater for the demand for entry into undergraduate studies as at 1990.

In an interview on April 28, 2004, the Deputy Registrar (Academic) of the University of Zimbabwe revealed that the university reacted to the brain drain on academic staff that occurred soon after independence by engaging in an extensive expatriate recruitment drive in tandem with staff development for locally recruited junior staff. The policy was that for each expatriate recruited, a Zimbabwean would be sent on staff development to take over when the expatriate's contract expires. This led to the sending of many young lecturers on staff development to universities outside Zimbabwe, especially to Canada, the United Kingdom, United States of America and the Eastern Block countries. The Deputy Registrar (Academic) observed that between 1980 and 1990, most of those recruited in this manner returned to take up their posts at the university, and further noted:

With the help of donors, the university managed to send many young Zimbabweans to other universities outside the country. Most of those sent out between 1980 and 1990 completed their studies very successfully and returned to teach at the university, a situation that has changed now since most that have been sent on staff development in the last five years or so are no longer coming back at the end of their training, opting to resign or to be discharge from university employment.

The Deputy Registrar (Academic) was of the view that the policy of staff developing young lecturers to take up posts filled by expatriates was very effective in enhancing the availability of Zimbabweans as lecturers at the University of Zimbabwe. According to her, it enabled the university to expand to meet training in areas that were in demand but were not available. All Faculties are said to have benefited from this arrangement. Nevertheless, she noted that the injection of a large number of young and inexperienced lecturers led to the senior lecturers expressing discomfort at what they saw as a situation compromising on the quality of education at the university. The University also failed to meet the demand for training in the areas it offered and in new areas in demand, such as architecture.

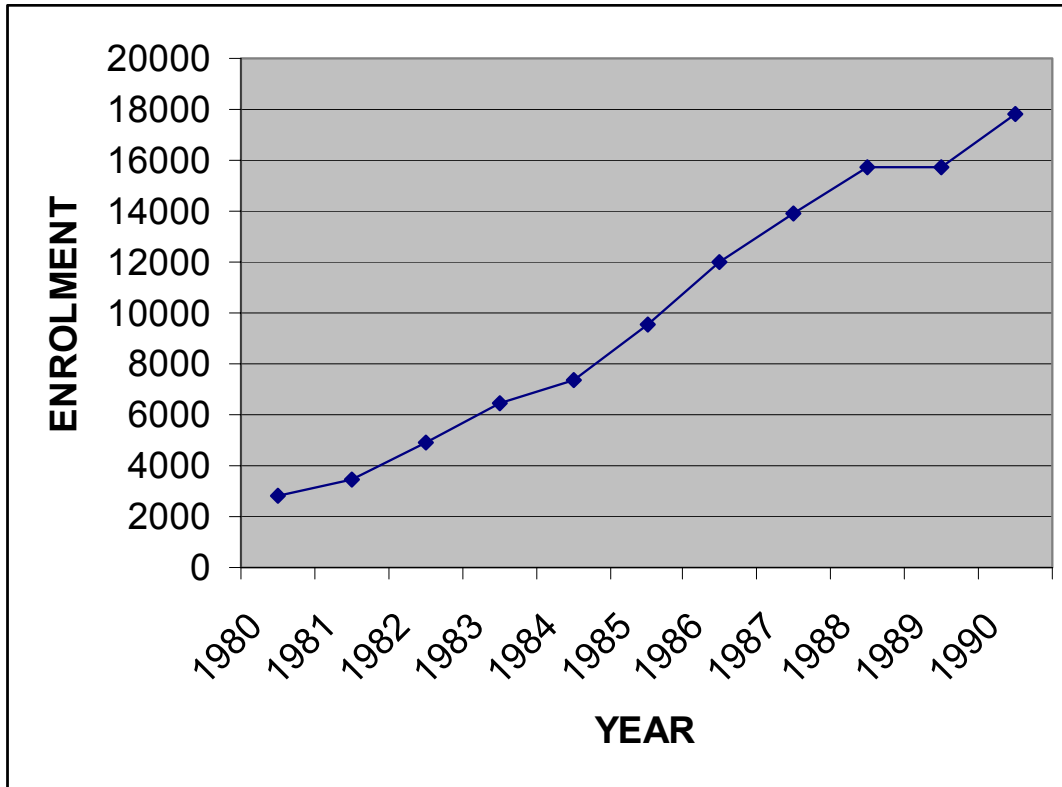
The demand for additional university capacity seems to have led to the passing of the National Council For Higher Education Act of 1990 (Act No. 32) that facilitated the establishment of private universities and university colleges in Zimbabwe. The Act established a National Council for Higher Education whose functions included ensuring the maintenance of standards within institutions of higher learning relating to teaching, courses, examinations and academic qualifications, facilitating the establishment of new universities and university colleges, and the coordination of training at institutions of higher learning (National Council For Higher Education Act of 1990). This Act created the legal framework for the establishment of new universities in Zimbabwe. This was an important development since the new universities would absorb the high school graduates who could not be enrolled at the University of Zimbabwe, offer new programmes which

were not available in the country and introduce an element of competition which was lacking at that time.

The University of Zimbabwe's Faculty of Education produces graduate teachers as well as diploma holders through an associate scheme with approved teachers' colleges. The reports by the permanent secretary for the Ministry of Higher Education for the years 1981 to 1994 show that the number of teachers' colleges on the associate scheme increased from 4 in 1980 to 14 in 1990. The University of Zimbabwe's Handbook on the Scheme of Association issued by the Department of Teacher Education states that the University approves the curriculum for these colleges and monitors training. It lays out the guidelines to be followed by teachers' colleges benefiting from this scheme. The university approves the curriculum to be implemented at the teacher's college. The examinations for the programmes are then set at the teachers' college and submitted to the University for approval before they are administered at the college as University of Zimbabwe examinations (University of Zimbabwe, 1990). The students that pass the examinations then receive a Diploma in Education from the university. This supervision and monitoring of teacher training by the University was borrowed from practice in the United Kingdom and seems to have helped in maintaining a high standard of teacher education in the country as evidenced by the demand for holders of the University's Diploma in Education locally and abroad (Chetsanga, 2002).

### 6.5.5 Enrolments in Teachers' Colleges

Figure 6.7 shows the enrolments in teachers' colleges between 1980 and 1990.



**Figure 6.7: Teachers' College Enrolments: 1980 – 1990 (Central Statistical Office, 1993; p.31)**

Figure 6.7 shows that the increase in enrolment in teachers' colleges was high between 1980 and 1990 suggesting that this increase was in response to the growing number of schools and school enrolments. The numbers of enrolled students increased from 2829 to 15,761 during that period (Central Statistical Office, 1993, p.31). Teaching is one of the most popular vocations among Zimbabweans as evidenced by the demand for places in teachers' colleges (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991 & 2000). Teachers' colleges absorb

those secondary school graduates with a minimum of five subjects passed at 'O' level who wish to train as teachers. The teachers colleges train for teaching either in primary schools or in secondary schools. Between 1980 and 1990, those wishing to train as secondary school teachers were required to have either 'O' level qualifications, or a minimum of two passes at 'A' level, and were trained at teachers' colleges in Gweru, Bulawayo, Mutare, Harare and Chinhoyi. The university of Zimbabwe and the Gweru Polytechnic also produce teachers for secondary schools. There were twenty-seven teachers' colleges as at 1990, three primary school teachers' colleges being run by missionary organisations and the rest being Government colleges (Government of Zimbabwe, 1993). Nevertheless, the teachers' college output did not match the demand for teachers in the schools leading the Secretary for Education and Culture to report:

Despite the injection of 4000 trained teachers during the year (1989) and the presence of student-teachers, the staffing position in most schools was unsatisfactory .... Schools in remote areas which were security sensitive had even higher percentages. There was a high turn over of trained and untrained teachers through resignations, retirement, discharges and deaths (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991; p.5).

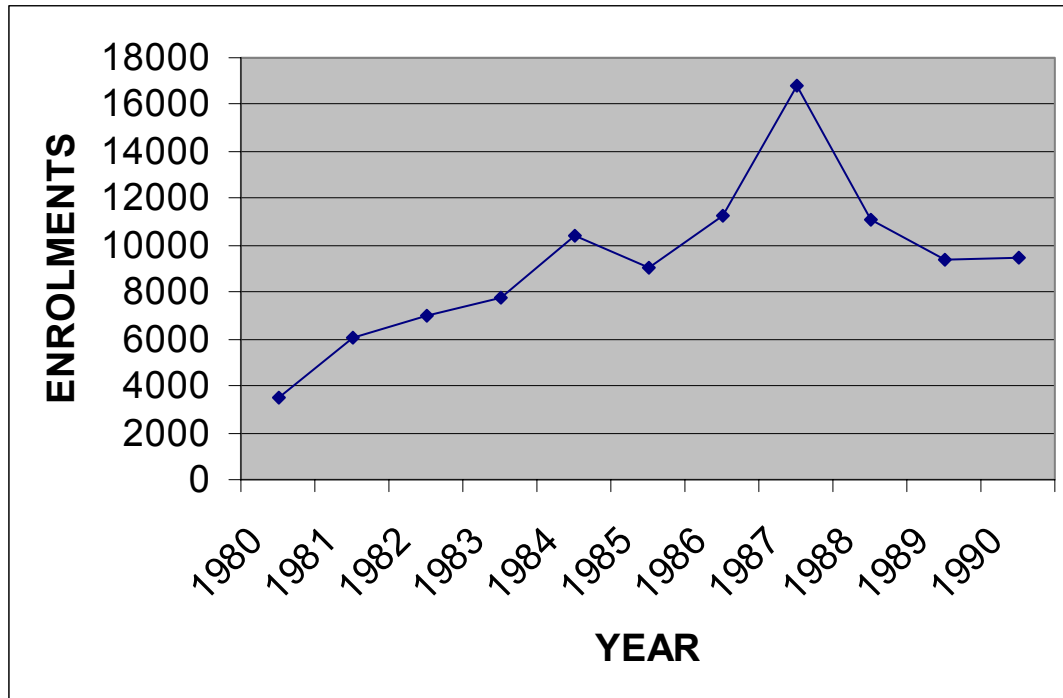
Most of the resignations from teachers in rural schools were caused by poor conditions of service, especially poor accommodation, water supplies and other amenities (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991, 2000). Recruiting untrained teachers and engaging expatriates, especially from Britain, Canada and West Germany addressed teacher shortages in these

schools (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991). This suggests that TVE policy was being called upon to grow and develop in a direction that would address the locally trained teachers shortages in the country's schools, especially those in rural areas.

A new teacher training programme, the Zimbabwe Integrated National Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC), that enrolled its first intake in 1981, pioneered a new teacher training scheme in the country (Chivore, 1982). The conventional teacher training programmes in Zimbabwe required the trainee to be at college for a period of three years, with one term of teaching practice in the schools. ZINTEC trainees spent the bulk of their training time working in schools attached to a mentor teacher. In the ZINTEC programme, the trainees spent 16 weeks at college, two-and-half years at a school and the last 16 weeks at college. The philosophy for the programme was Socialism involving working with rural communities around the school to which the trainee was attached, with community service being part and parcel of the course (Mutumbuka, 1981). However, the continuation of teacher shortages in primary schools in the rural areas suggests that the ZINTEC programme only managed to lessen the problem of teacher supply at primary school level, but did not eliminate it. The programme targeted primary school teachers only and did not provide teachers for the secondary school system. Untrained teachers were engaged at all levels in the school system, and in some schools 'O' level graduates were teaching at 'O' level without higher qualifications or training as teachers (Central Statistical Office, 1998, 2000). However, the increase in the number of teachers at this level resulted in some experienced primary school teachers being deployed at secondary school to cater for a severe shortage of trained teachers.

### **6.5.6 Technical and Polytechnics Education**

There was one polytechnic and one technical college at independence in 1980 and, by 1990, there were two polytechnics, five technical colleges, one institute of technology and two vocational training centres. Technical colleges and polytechnics were the responsibility of the Ministry of Labour at independence. Responsibility was transferred to the Ministry of Labour Manpower Planning and Social Welfare at independence, and was then transferred to the Ministry of Higher Education in 1988 (Government of Zimbabwe, 1989). Technical colleges met the demand for the training of artisans, technicians and other professionals who worked in government departments, and in commerce and industry. Technical college education and training was the second most popular training, after teacher education, among school graduates as shown in Figure 6.5 on Page 251. The technical colleges trained in virtually all the disciplines for employment in the private and public sector, except training for specific government departments, such as nursing, the police, army and agriculture. Figure 6.8 shows the enrolments in technical institutions from 1980 to 1990.



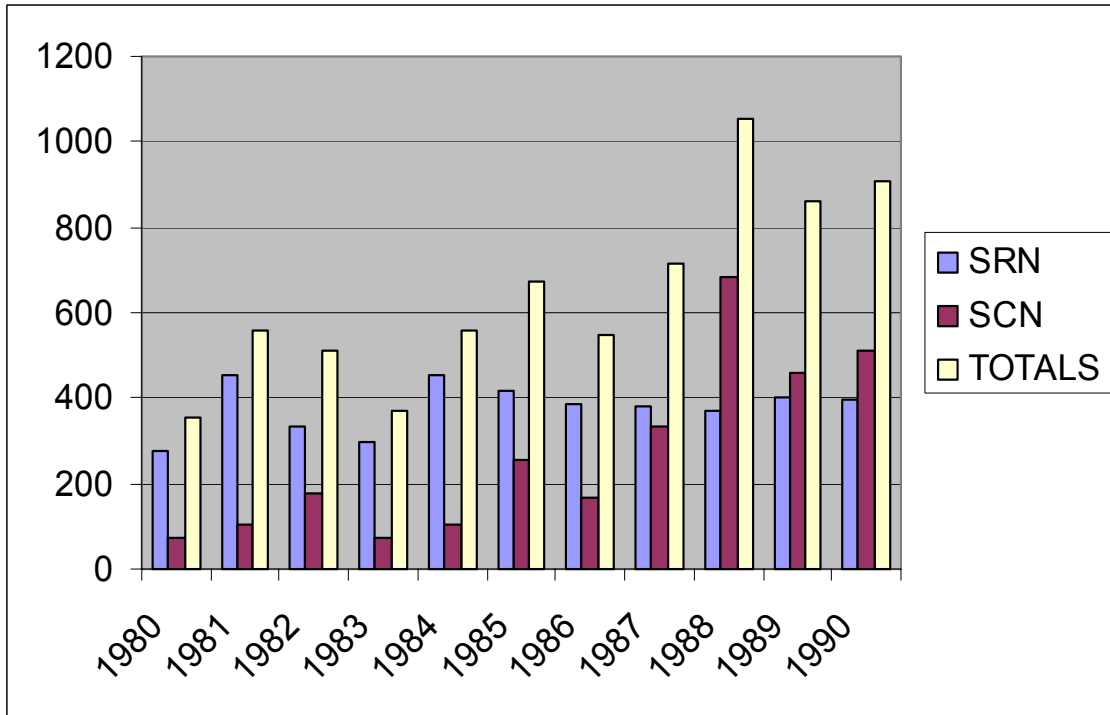
**Figure 6.8: Polytechnic and Technical College Enrolments: 1980 – 1990**  
(Central Statistical Office, 1993; p.34)

Figure 6.8 shows that technical college enrolments during the period 1980 to 1990 peaked in 1987, then gradually decreased to the 1990 level. The sharp increase after 1985 was mainly due to the opening of new colleges in Gweru, Mutare and Masvingo. The drop in enrolment from 1987 to 1990 was most probably due to resource constraints and the change of responsibility for technical colleges from the Ministry of Labour to that of Higher Education.

### **6.5.7 Ministry of Health Training Programmes**

The Ministry of Health offered opportunities for school leavers to train in the fields of medicine, dental technician, nursing, medical assistant, environmental health inspectors,

radiography, physiotherapy, scientific laboratory technician and orthopaedic technician. The training was at degree, diploma and certificate levels (Government of Zimbabwe, 1990, 1998). Degrees were offered at the University of Zimbabwe only, while the diploma programmes were offered in conjunction with the two polytechnics in Harare and in Bulawayo, or at United Bulawayo Hospitals, Mpilo Central Hospital, Parirenyatwa Hospital or Harare Central Hospital. Certificate programmes were offered at provincial or in mission hospitals. The degree programmes required 'A' level passes while the diploma and certificate programmes require 'O' level qualifications. Nevertheless, enrolments into these programmes were very small and demand exceeds available places. For example, the enrolments shown in Figure 6.9 on Page 265 show a total enrolment of only about 6500 between 1980 and 1990, yet Table 6.3 on Page 246 shows that the total national 'O' level graduate output during this period was about 800,000. It is this researcher's view that such a low enrolment within nurse training hospitals places a huge challenge on those with the responsibility for selecting candidates for enrolment. During the period 1980 to 1990 there were no technical and vocational colleges specifically built for training nurses in Zimbabwe (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991). Nursing schools attached to hospitals and clinics provided this service. Nurses trained at two levels, that is, State Registered Nurse (SRN) and the State Certified Nurse (SCN). While the entry qualifications for both levels were the same, training for SRN took three years while that for SCN took two. Figure 6.9 gives nurse training output by level between 1980 and 1990.



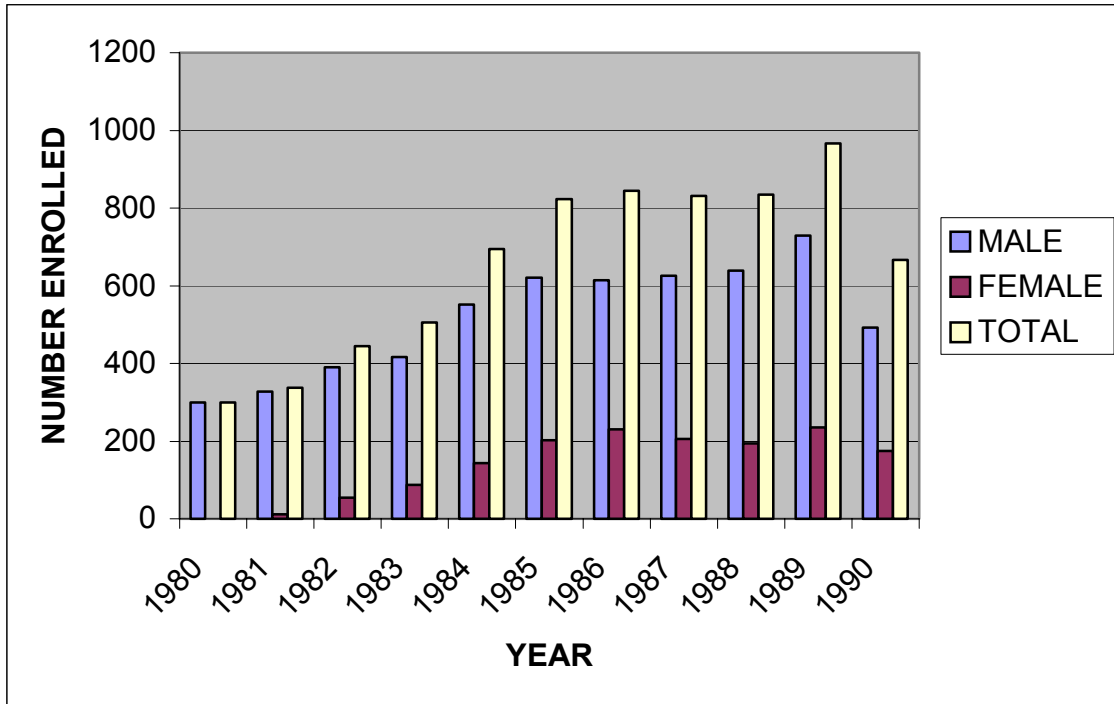
**Figure 6.9: Nurse Training Output by Level: 1980 – 1990 (Central Statistical Office, 1998; p.39)**

Figure 6.9 shows that the number of nurse graduates has been fluctuating between 1980 to 1990, with a gradual increase over those years. Average nurse output between 1980 and 1990 was about 650 annually, giving a total graduate output of only about 6 700 during this period (Central Statistical Office, 1998, p.39). The total number of graduates increased steadily from 1980 to peak at 1055 in 1988, then it dropped to 908 in 1990. This drop in graduates was evident in the entire TVE system, suggesting that the socio-economic environment could not allow these institutions to absorb an increase in enrolments. The national economy was declining, leading to the introduction of the E.S.A.P in 1991 as a solution to this decline. From 1980 to 1987, the number of state registered nurse graduates had been greater than that of state certified nurse graduates. From 1988 to 1990, the state certified nurse graduates were more than state registered

nurse graduates. This was mainly due to an increase in the number of district hospitals offering state certified nurse training in response to demand for training. However, the SCN programme was phased out in 1992 and was replaced by SRN training that was extended to district hospitals.

### **6.5.8 Ministry of Agriculture Colleges**

Training for the agricultural industry is the responsibility of the Ministry of Agriculture. The ministry runs a three-tier agricultural education and training system at degree, diploma and certificate level. The degree programme was on offer at the University of Zimbabwe. Entry requirement for the degree programme is an 'A' level certificate while that for the certificate and diploma is five passes at 'O' level. As at 1990, the degree programme was offered at the University of Zimbabwe only, while the diploma programme was offered at Chibero College of Agriculture and Gwebi Colleges of Agriculture and a certificate programme was offered at Mlezu, Esigodini, Kushinga-Phikelela and Rio-Tinto Agricultural Institutes. There were five agricultural colleges in the country at independence, and a sixth, Kushinga Phikelela, was built soon after independence. There were no females enrolled in agricultural colleges in 1980. Figure 6.10 shows total enrolment for agricultural colleges, 1980 to 1990.



**Figure 6.10: Enrolments in Agricultural Colleges: 1980 – 1990 (Central Statistical Office, July 1998)**

Bearing in mind the size of agriculture as an industry in the country and the output from secondary schools, Figure 6.10 shows that enrolments in agricultural colleges were rather low. The average enrolments at agricultural colleges during the period 1980 to 1990 was about 660 and the enrolment rose gradually from 300 in 1981 to peak at 966 in 1989, then it dropped to 667 in 1990 (Central Statistical Office, 1998; p.37). It is the researcher's view that this drop in enrolment that was characteristic of enrolments in Zimbabwe's education and training institutions from about 1986 to about 1990 was due to the socio-economic challenges that led to the adoption of the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme in 1991. It is interesting to note that, as was the case with other Government tertiary level institutions, enrolments at agricultural colleges have been very low

compared to the demand for training from school graduates and dropouts. Even if the university of Zimbabwe undertook training in this fields at degree level, training at diploma and certificate level was still very popular with school leavers who hold 'O' level qualifications. The enrolment of females into this field was very low compared to that for males, although female participation in agriculture was at 60 percent of the total labour force in that industry (Government of Zimbabwe, 1992).

The above examples of some of the training offered in the ministry tertiary level institutions show a huge gap between the secondary school system output and the enrolment capacity of these institutions. This situation cuts across ministries and the private sector institutions, calling for a TVE policy growth and development aimed at providing a correction.

## **6.6 POLICY GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT CHALLENGES**

The above discussion has shown that the TVE policy growth and development soon after independence resulted in a phenomenal growth of the TVE system. The TVE policy that emerged was based on the principles of decolonisation, abolition of racial structures, democratisation of access to education, localisation of curriculum and examinations, vocationalisation of the secondary school curriculum, promotion of Socialism and social transformation in human resource development. Other important influences on the TVE policy growth and development were (a) quality and relevance of training, (b) development of science and technology, (c) management and entrepreneurship

development and (d) the development of skills that promote self reliance and self-employment. The Manpower Planning and Development Act of 1984 was a result of the TVE policy growth and development process. The setting up of new infrastructure and a huge jump in enrolments and system output evidenced TVE policy growth between 1980 and 1990. However, this TVE policy growth and development placed a heavy burden on optimum system performance with respect to human, financial, technical and infrastructure resources.

The employment of untrained teachers in both primary and secondary schools (especially in rural areas) resulted in a huge demand for the training of those who had no professional qualifications but had been given the responsibility to teach. Even if expatriates were recruited from outside the country to teach in schools, they had to contend with the challenges of adapting to the Zimbabwean system of education and training. The large classes resulting from the demand for education brought with them the challenges of facility limitations, and a shortage of teaching resources. Since independence, the government has grappled with the challenges of reforming TVE policy to achieve an efficient and effective TVE system to meet the human resource needs of the country. One such challenge was meeting the needs of a variety of groups who had been disadvantaged during the colonial period. The other challenge related to training for the inexperienced young Zimbabweans who had to take over leadership positions in commerce and industry to fill the gaps created by the whites who had emigrated en-masse soon after independence. The expansion in the education system after independence led

to a huge jump in the numbers of school graduates needing training in tertiary level institutions, posing a strong challenge to policy makers.

An important observation is that enrolments in schools and colleges given in the Tables and Figures above rose significantly from 1980 onwards, then started dropping from about 1987 to 1990. This drop suggests that the institutions in the education and training system in Zimbabwe started having capacity problems from about 1987 onwards. These capacity problems seem to have been linked to an inadequate TVE policy growth and development during that period (Government of Zimbabwe, 1995; Munetsi & Simango, 1994). Data that were analysed for this study suggest that the TVE system in Zimbabwe failed to adequately address the training demands of the country from 1980 to 1990. A few examples of this inadequacy were seen as: (1) inability of the education and training system to absorb a high proportion of school dropouts; (2) inability of tertiary institutions to enroll a large number of applicants with acceptable qualifications; (3) inability to significantly increase female participation in Engineering programmes in tertiary institutions; (4) failure to meet the training needs of a predominantly rural population whose main source of employment is agriculture; (5) under-utilisation of Government Technical and Vocational Education Institutions; (6) a high unemployment rate for graduates of tertiary institutions; (7) inability to adequately diversify and increase the range of technical and vocational education programmes; (8) absence of accurate forecasts of national manpower needs; (9) inability to meet the training needs of the informal sector of the economy; and (10) absence of a single national human resource development policy. The discussion below looks at these shortcomings in more detail.

### **6.6.1 School Dropouts**

Tables 6.1 and 6.2, respectively, give the total number of primary school leavers and drop-outs between 1980 and 1990 as about 1,550,000. To this number may be added to those that never went to school, the drop-outs at secondary school and those that failed to achieve five 'O' level passes. This is the population that could not be absorbed into conventional technical colleges and polytechnics because of not having the requisite five 'O' level passes. Tertiary institutions absorbed a total of about 300,000 between 1980 and 1990, leaving a large proportion of school graduates and drop-outs un-catered for. Granted, the school graduates and drop-outs may find education and training in public and private institutions, but the country's state sponsored TVE system has to cater for them as well. It is imperative, therefore, that TVE policy grows and develops in a direction aimed at meeting the technical and vocational education needs of both school graduates and drop-outs. Such technical and vocational education should address the lifelong education and training needs for these school graduates and drop-outs, in line with International Labour Organisation (ILO) recommendations.

### **6.6.2 Large Number of School Graduates**

In his report for the year ended 31<sup>st</sup> December 1988, the Secretary for Higher Education observed that thousands of applicants, some of them with excellent 'O' level results, were turned away because the colleges were full. This seems to have been the trend for the

entire period 1980 to 1990. Table 6.3 (Page 248) shows that between 1980 and 1990 the TVE system had to cope with an annual average of about 65 600 secondary school graduates with five 'O' level passes. These school graduates had to compete with those who had left school before them and had not been trained, and with "A" level graduates, for places at tertiary level institutions. The government tertiary level institutions only managed to annually enroll less than 30,000 'O' level graduates during the same period. This figure is less than half the secondary school system output, creating a huge surplus of graduates un-catered for by the system. Even if private tertiary level institutions absorbed some of the school graduates, the majority of them search for enrolment places in Government institutions that charge very low-levels of fees compared with private colleges. This suggests that the enrolment capacity of Government tertiary institutions was failing to cope with 'O' level graduates by 1990.

One example where the demand for training outstripped available places was in apprenticeship. The Ministry of Higher Education's Registrar of Apprenticeship and Skilled Manpower noted that only about 4 percent of those who applied for apprenticeship training were recruited in 1990 (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991). In 1990, 48 percent of the applicants for skilled worker classification tests could not be tested because of inadequate facilities for conducting trainability potential tests (Secretary for Higher Education, 1993). These figures seem to show that the human resource development system in this country failed to meet demand by a very wide margin. The situation was prevalent in all fields of tertiary level education and training. One consequence of such a situation was the increase in the number of private training

institutions to fill the gap. However, the services provided by these institutions caused a few problems as indicated by the reports of inspectors from the Ministry of Higher Education who monitored these private colleges. For example, the institutions were noted as not responding positively to the localisation of curricula in a study carried out by the Ministry in 1990 (Ministry of Higher Education, 1990). The institutions were also not readily providing information on their activities to the Ministry. This meant that even if private colleges were an important component in the provision of technical and vocational education to the country's school leavers and other active participants in the economy, they still had to be monitored closely to ensure that the training they offered was of an acceptable standard and relevant to the needs of the economy.

### **6.6.3 Increasing Female Participation In Engineering Fields**

Enrolments in tertiary level institutions in Zimbabwe show a serious under representation of women in most colleges (Annual Reports of The Secretary For Higher Education, 1980 to 1990). For example, between 1980 and 1990, women made up only 21 percent of total enrolment at the University of Zimbabwe and in agricultural colleges, and about 27 percent of total enrolments in technical colleges (Central Statistical Office, 1993; Government of Zimbabwe, 1991). Female enrollments to hard-core engineering courses, such as wood technology, Automotive Engineering, Mechanical Engineering and Construction Engineering, remained very low (Government of Zimbabwe, 1993). This was despite the efforts by the Ministry of Higher Education to take deliberate steps to increase the enrollment of females in management and engineering fields. This under

representation in tertiary institutions is similar to the situation in the labour market (Government of Zimbabwe, 1992). Table 6.4 shows the ratio of females enrolled in technical colleges during 1989 to 1990.

**Table 6.4: Technical College Female Enrolment Percentages: 1989 - 1990**

SUBJECT AREA	PERCERNTAGE OF FEMALES	
	1989	1990
Adult Education	65%	N/A
Automotive Engineering	4%	2%
Business Studies	53%	34%
Computer Studies	39%	48%
Construction Engineering	6%	41%
Electrical Engineering	4%	44%
Hotel Keeping & Catering	35%	38%
Instructor Training	N/A	38%
Library & Information	31%	46%
Mass Communication	42%	49%
Mechanical Engineering	2%	36%
Mining Engineering	N/A	38%
Printing	22%	45%
Science Technology	22%	42%
Secretarial Studies	N/A	66%
Wood Technology	0%	N/A
<b>AVERAGE</b>	<b>40%</b>	<b>35%</b>

**SOURCE: Secretary For Higher Education Annual Reports, 1989 & 1990**

N/A = Figure not available.

Table 6.4 shows that the average female enrolment in all technical colleges was about 40 percent in 1989 and 35 percent in 1990. The table shows that female trainees made up 66 percent of the enrollment in the Secretarial Studies course in 1990, yet they made only 2 percent of the enrollment in the Automotive Engineering course. Women were, therefore, seriously under-represented in the engineering disciplines, a fact confirmed by Table 6.5.

**Table 6.5: 1992 Census Results For Employed Zimbabweans**

OCCUPATION GROUP	MALE	FEMALE	TOTAL	% FEMALE	TOTAL %
Government & Senior Officials	1,927	433	2360	0.18	0.09
Directors, Managers and Company Secretaries	26,569	5,660	32,229	0.18	1.18
Natural Sciences	318	54	372	0.15	0.01
Business and Finance	59,335	31,416	90,751	0.35	3.31
Engineers and Technicians	18,075	994	19,069	0.05	0.70
Life Science Professionals	11,778	13,958	25,736	0.54	0.94
Education	54,369	40,784	95,153	0.43	3.48
Law and Security	83,322	3,696	87,018	0.04	3.18
Information	511	313	824	0.38	0.03
Social Science	281	153	434	0.35	0.02
Artists	6,602	1,519	8,121	0.19	0.30
Religion	2,839	550	3,389	0.16	0.12
Machine Operators	60,936	1,633	62,569	0.03	2.29
Administration	15,047	6,122	21,169	0.29	0.77
Clerks and Secretaries	61,430	35,788	97,218	0.37	3.55
Transport	54,845	667	55,512	0.01	2.03
Services	155,517	226,158	381,675	0.59	13.94
Agriculture	565,613	601,779	1,167,392	0.52	42.64
Mining and Construction	215,607	16,268	231,875	0.07	8.47
Mechanics	65,606	739	66,345	0.01	2.42
Manufacturing	153,376	90,621	243,997	0.37	8.91
Others	41,243	3,148	44,391	0.01	1.62
<b>Totals</b>	<b>1,655,146</b>	<b>1,082,453</b>	<b>2,737,599</b>	<b>0.40</b>	<b>100.00</b>

**Source: Government of Zimbabwe: 1992 National Census Report (1992; p.120)**

Table 6.5 shows that even if women made up about fifty-one percent of the total population in the 1992 census, they made up about forty percent of the labour force eleven years after political independence. Of this percentage, the highest proportion (in descending order) was employed in occupations categorised as Services (226,158), Life Science Professions (13,958), Agriculture (601,779), Education (40,784), Information (313) and Clerks and Secretaries (35,788). The lowest percentages of female employees were in occupations categorised as Transport (667), Mechanics (739), Natural Sciences (54), Religion (550), Government & Senior Officials (433) and Directors, Managers and

Company Secretaries (5,660) (Central Statistical Office, 1992). This is in spite of the view that women perform very well in engineering fields, especially in electronics (Zengeya, 1994; Williams, 2000).

In 1992 women constitute about fifty-one percent of Zimbabwe's population but made up only sixteen percent of the total labour force of the country (Government of Zimbabwe, 1994). In 1993, women comprised only 2.2 percent of the total number of engineers in Zimbabwe (and this included expatriates) and just 1.2 percent of the total number of engineering technicians in the country (Zimbabwe Institute of Engineers, 1993). In 1990, women were only one percent of the total number of apprentices recruited to train as engineering artisans by industries in Zimbabwe (Registrar of Apprenticeship and Skilled Manpower, 1994). Zimbabwe's TVE policy should, therefore, grow and develop in a direction that will ensure the equal participation of women in engineering disciplines.

#### **6.6.4 Training For Rural Agriculture**

According to the Zimbabwe Government (1987), about seventy-five percent of Zimbabwe's economically active population lives in the rural areas. Within the rural population, 55 percent were females, and 60 percent of them were in the agricultural occupations. This means that a higher overall economic activity was in rural areas than in urban areas, and agriculture was the dominant activity at an average of 65 percent between 1982 and 1987. Table 6.6 shows the distribution of occupations as shown by the 1992 population census.

**Table 6.6: Percentage Occupational Classification by Rural and Urban Areas: 1992 Census**

<b>OCCUPATION GROUP</b>	<b>RURAL</b>	<b>URBAN</b>	<b>TOTAL</b>
Government & Senior Officials			
Directors, Managers and Company Secretaries	0.36	2.58	0.18
Natural Sciences	0.00	0.03	0.01
Business and Finance	1.66	6.14	3.31
Engineers and Technicians	0.16	1.62	0.70
Life Science Professionals	0.64	1.45	0.94
Education	3.02	4.25	3.48
Law and Security	1.56	5.93	3.18
Information	0.01	0.07	0.03
Social Science	0.00	0.04	0.02
Artists	0.10	0.63	0.30
Religion	0.08	0.20	0.12
Machine Operators	1.57	3.51	2.29
Administration	0.20	1.76	0.77
Clerks and Secretaries	0.84	8.18	3.55
Transport	0.79	4.14	2.03
Services	8.25	23.65	13.94
Agriculture	66.65	1.67	42.64
Mining and Construction	7.13	10.76	8.47
Mechanics	0.90	5.03	2.42
Manufacturing	5.12	15.39	8.91
Others	0.91	2.84	1.62
<b>Total Percent</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>	<b>100.00</b>
<b>Total Person</b>	<b>1726204</b>	<b>1011395</b>	<b>2737599</b>

**Source: Census 1992: Zimbabwe National Report (p.121)**

Table 6.6 shows that, at about sixty-seven percent overall, agriculture has a high percentage within national occupations. Considering that the occupations that follow it are ‘Services’ at only eight percent (8%) and ‘Manufacturing’ at five percent (5%), the contribution of agriculture to employment in Zimbabwe is very big. Of this percentage involved in agriculture, about 67 percent is within rural areas. Even if some training for rural peasants takes place in community training centres, research centres and cotton training institutes (such as the one in the town of Kadoma), the number of rural peasants

requiring training in agriculture heavily out-weighs the training centres' or colleges' capacity in Zimbabwe. The agricultural colleges whose enrolments are given in Figure 6.10 on Page 267 recruit 'O' level graduates only, excluding most of the active human resource in rural areas. TVE policy has to grow and develop in a direction that best addresses the needs of the rural population without 'O' level qualifications. This is in view of the fact that most secondary school graduates prefer to look for employment opportunities in urban areas rather than in rural areas (Government of Zimbabwe, 1991). Such a preference should lead to a situation where the majority of tertiary institution system graduates with 'O' level qualifications are likely to be found in urban rather than in rural areas.

One can propose, therefore, that since the majority of Zimbabweans reside in rural areas and derive their livelihood from agriculture, TVE policy should grow and develop in a direction aimed at addressing this reality. In line with the Human Capital perspective, technical and vocational education policy has to harness the human resource in the rural areas for it to meaningfully contribute towards economic development. Adult education theory requires that appropriate education and training opportunities be availed to those adults in the rural areas so that they can meaningfully participate in the socio-economic development of their communities. TVE policy should, therefore, grow and develop in a direction that addresses the human resource development needs of the rural population without the 'O' level qualifications currently required for entry into existing tertiary institutions.

### **6.6.5 Under-Utilisation of Government Colleges**

Annual Reports of the Secretary for Higher Education published between 1980 and 1990 show that the Ministry's colleges were being underutilised. For example, staffing levels were reported to be at an average of around 30 percent below capacity for the entire period, while equipment in old colleges was in a bad state of repair with new colleges needing additional buildings and equipment (Government of Zimbabwe, 1995). Surveys conducted by the Ministry of Higher Education between 1986 and 1992 revealed the following situation; a) institutions were open for only 53 percent of the calendar year on an annual basis; b) lecturers trained for 60 percent of the allocated time; c) staffing levels were 31 percent below establishment and expatriates made up 81 percent of the staff in engineering disciplines; d) most buildings were in a poor state of repair, negatively affecting their use; e) equipment at the Harare and Bulawayo Polytechnics was generally old and most of it was in a poor working condition, leading to the colleges recruiting reduced numbers of trainees; g) the newer colleges needed additional equipment and buildings, affecting optimum utilisation of existing infrastructure; h) all institutions were generally short of training consumables and library books; and I) both physical and human resources were not being fully utilised in Government technical and vocational institutions (Ministry of Higher Education, 1986; 1990; 1993).

Underutilisation of institutions was said to be more acute in technical colleges than in vocational training institutions and teachers' colleges (Ministry of Higher Education, 1993). Heavy under-utilisation was reported in the science, technical and engineering

areas, including at higher-levels, that is, at National Diploma and Higher National Diploma levels, and in Business Studies courses. This underutilisation was seen as a worrying development during interviews with an eight-three year old white polytechnic graduate and a white former polytechnic principal who were comparing practices from when they trained in the 1930s and 1950s, to the situation in 1990. As at 1989, Ministry of Higher Education institutions operated at 65 percent of the total staff establishment and continued to lose staff during 1990 (Annual Reports for the Secretary for Higher education, 1989 and 1990). The staff vacancy position in Government technical colleges during 1989 and 1990 was at 35 percent and 26 percent, respectively. During the same period, the Ministry reassigned some lecturing staff posts from areas where recruitment posed problems, especially in specialist areas or for high-level courses, to areas where recruitment was relatively easy to fill. For example, from 1988 to 1990, posts were borrowed from other subject areas to the easy to fill areas of Computer Science, Hotel Keeping/Catering and Science Technology (Annual Report of the Secretary for Higher Education, 1996). Areas with hard to fill posts, such as Mechanical Engineering, Printing/Graphic Arts, Electrical Engineering, Construction (Civil) Engineering and Automotive (especially Aircraft) Engineering had to suspend the courses for which the posts had been redeployed. These resource constraints led to the underutilisation of Ministry of Higher Education institutions, an unhealthy situation in light of the huge demand for training by school leavers with the requisite qualifications.

### **6.6.6 High Unemployment Rate for College Graduates**

There was a high unemployment rate for tertiary education system graduates in Zimbabwe (Government of Zimbabwe, 1992). Trainees in institutions under ministries other than Higher Education were normally trained for specific occupations in those ministries, resulting in very little, or no, graduate un-employment. For example, the Ministry of Health employed nurse trainees while on training and after training, and the Ministry of Home Affairs employed police recruits before and after training them. However, the employment of graduates from most tertiary institutions depended on their demand in the economy. The 1992 Population Census showed that the highest number of unemployed Zimbabweans (fifty-three percent) were in the level of education categorised as “Secondary/Diploma”. This was a worrying picture since the secondary school leavers and diploma holders comprised the majority of unemployed persons in Zimbabwe in 1992. This suggests that, while the utilisation of graduates from ministry specific training institutions was high, that of graduates from the rest of the TVE system seems to have been rather low. Most graduates from the university, polytechnics and technical colleges graduated without employment and had to secure employment in the private and public sectors of the economy on their own. The 1992 census gave an estimated unemployment rate of twenty-two percent of the economically active section of the population. The unemployment was highest within the 15 - 40 years age group, with the bulk of those unemployed being holders of ‘O’ level certificates and college diplomas (Central Statistical Office, 1992). This suggests that the country’s TVE policy was failing to produce employable graduates that could contribute positively to Zimbabwe’s economic

development. Maybe this was as a result of an over focus on training for formal employment, leaving the graduates at the mercy of employers in commerce and industry. The alternative would be to training for self-reliance within the small and medium enterprises, or within the informal sector.

### **6.6.7 Diversified Range of College Programmes**

From its inception, the TVE system in Zimbabwe largely relied on courses or programmes that were already on stream before independence when certification was by foreign examining bodies, such as Pitman, the City and Guilds of London Institute and the South African National Examination Board (Ministry of Higher Education, 1990). In addition, courses that were being offered in technical colleges in 1980 were still on offer in 1990 using syllabi that were said to be local but were exact copies of the original foreign syllabi (World Bank, 1991; Ministry of Higher Education, 1990). This is because the courses have tended to remain with the same content, despite the changes from the external examining bodies to the local Higher Education Examinations Council (HEXCO). This was in spite of the Ministry of Higher Education's efforts to localise these courses, and the need to infuse new technology.

Further to this, the introduction of new or higher-level courses had been very slow, despite strong demand from the Zimbabwean community, especially from commerce and industry (for example, from the clothing and textile industry), the small and medium-scale enterprises and the informal sector. The system was unable to readily absorb people

requiring training in fields such as traditional crafts, agricultural mechanics, leather and footwear technology, clothing and textile technology, insurance and real estate courses and computer repair technicians (Ministry of Higher Education, 1993). As at 1990, the introduction of courses at National Diploma (ND) and Higher National Diploma (HND) especially engineering courses, had only been achieved in a few disciplines, such as electrical, mechanical and business studies. The HND courses were offered at Harare and Bulawayo Polytechnic only. On the other hand, the apprenticeship programme continued to be focused on those traditional trades that were on offer long before 1980. This failure by the TVE system to change and meet the needs of the community was a problem that needed serious attention by the policy makers in order to make the country catch up with the rest of the world in human resource development efforts. For example, the United States of America and the United Kingdom had long drastically reduce reliance on the apprenticeship system for human resource development, opting for modern practices such as vocationalisation of the high school curriculum and competency-based training within tertiary education institutions (Gow & McDonald, 2000; Wilson, 1992). The concepts of core-skills, multi-skilling and lifelong education and training were being implemented on a wide scale in the developed world as discussed in Chapter 2. TVE policy in Zimbabwe needed to grow and develop along those lines.

#### **6.6.8 Regular Forecasts of Human Resources Needs**

The National Manpower Survey of 1981 revealed critical shortages of human resources and provided an historical/analytical framework in which the utilisation of the available

skills could be understood, and in doing so provided a strong basis for TVE policy growth and development. The National Manpower Survey suggested an idealistic positive TVE policy growth and development direction for Zimbabwe in line with the human capital theory from a Socialist, Pan-Africanist perspective. This is because its recommendations were aimed at an optimum utilisation of the available human labour, and its development in a manner that would best meet the socio-economic needs of the majority of the people.

Following the publication of the results of the National Manpower Survey in 1981, the then Ministry of Labour, Manpower Planning and Social Welfare published Annual Reviews of Manpower (ARM) were published in 1983 and in 1985 which provided statistics on the labour situation in the country and offered an objective reference for formulating and reviewing the country's TVE policy. These ARM were not as detailed as the National Manpower Survey, but provided useful information that could be used for planning purposes for TVE policy growth and development. However, the Ministry of Higher Education that took over the Ministry of Labour, Manpower Planning and Social Welfare's Division of Research and Planning, that used to publish these ARMs, did not issue them between 1988 and 1990. The last ARM was published in 1988. It is observed that the ARM was discontinued because it could not be produced timeously because of resource constraints (Ministry of Higher Education, 1996). In the first Annual Review published in 1983, the Ministry of Labour, Manpower Planning and Social Welfare had given the objectives of these reviews as to include:

- (i) update information on the nation's stock of human resources;
- (ii) provide analyses of the determinants of manpower utilisation and development;
- (iii) assess and evaluate the nature and adequacy of facilities and resources available for manpower development;
- (iv) discuss issues and problems in the field of human capital with a view to influencing policy formulation, evaluation and review; and
- (v) report on the findings of mini-surveys that were carried out from time to time.

The unavailability of quantitative data on the manpower situation in the country meant that the TVE system was not responding to accurately assessed needs from 1988 to 1990. In a bid to correct this situation, the Ministry of Higher Education carried out a Survey of National Manpower Needs in June 1995. The survey identified skills shortage areas as being in the engineering disciplines of civil, mechanical, electrical and agricultural engineering, in quantity surveying and land surveying, analyst programmers and computer technicians in the computer industry, in accounting, business and financial management, in the health professions of critical care and theatre nurses, doctors and medical technologists, in the production and manufacturing technician disciplines for leather, textiles, foot wear and for mining, and in the areas of pilots and heavy duty drivers for the transport industry (Ministry of Higher Education, 1996). These shortages were attributed to inadequate local training (in terms of both capacity and quality) and to the brain drain, and to a lesser extent, economic expansion. Occupations particularly affected by lack of adequate training capacity and brain drain included architect, surveyor, solar engineer, textile and leather technologist/technician, business

development manager, manufacturing consultant, chartered accountant and medical specialists (Chetsanga, 2002; Ministry of Higher Education, 1996).

Skills surpluses were identified in the jobs for clerks, general labourers, machine operators, mechanics and accounting personnel. The computer was seen as adversely affecting clerical occupations such as kardex, wages and accounting clerks, and mechanisation was seen as affecting general labour occupations such as manual lashers, cotton pickers and cane loaders, and over-training was seen as the reason for the surpluses of artisans in the trade of Fitter and Turner (Ministry of Higher Education, 1996). New skills said to be emerging were in the areas of computers, marketing, financial and quality control. The introduction of new technology and international competition introduced by the Structural Adjustment Programme led to the development of new skill areas. TVE policy, therefore, had to grow and develop to accommodate these new skills.

#### **6.6.9 Training for the Informal Sector Skills**

While numerous Government of Zimbabwe policy papers (for example, Zimbabwe Government, 1981, 1982, 1984, & 1990) have highlighted the importance of the informal sector in the country's economy, very little has been done with respect to TVE policy for the informal sector. For example, the Manpower Planning and Development Act of 1984 does not address issues of training in this sector. The National Manpower Advisory Council created by the Act did not have any representatives from the informal sector. The

Advisory Council's functions seem to have been limited to the formal sector of the economy, leaving out the informal sector. The recruitment of apprentices provided for in the Manpower Planning and Development Act of 1984, focused on narrowly serving the interests of the formal sector since contracts of apprenticeship could only be entered into between a registered employer and the apprentice. The Act was intended at correcting the human resource development imbalances of the pre-independence error, but, as Munetsi (1993; p.84) observed, "... academic considerations were substituted for racial considerations, as TVE was generally restricted to formal qualifications, in terms of both entry requirements and final qualifications." This created a situation where it was difficult for the informal sector to be catered for. With regards to recruitment of apprentices, applications had to be sent to the Registrar of Apprenticeship for screening and selection, with successful applicants being referred to interested employers. While 110,000 applicants were received in 1986, only 1,164 were recruited into formal employment (Report of the Registrar of Apprenticeship, 1986). This indicated a huge gap between training places for apprentices and the demand for training. The informal sector could have easily absorbed the surplus if it was allowed to participate in apprenticeship training.

During an interview on June 15, 2004, the then National Chamber of Commerce President indicated that the centralised recruitment of apprentices was not popular with the majority of employers because it tended to exclude the workers whom they already employed and were showing an aptitude for the trades they were working in. Most of the affected workers did not have the five passes at 'O' level that had been made a

requirement. This was also mentioned in interviews with other stakeholders from industry. However, government officials defended the policy, citing the need to train those with the correct minimum level of general education and the need to afford the chance for training to the majority of school leavers who would otherwise be shunned by industry. Industry reacted by reducing apprenticeship intakes and carrying out training on their own. For example, in an interview on 22 August 2004, the Matebeleland Chamber of Commerce President indicated that the Construction Industry Federation of Zimbabwe (CIFOZ) now conducts training on behalf of its members. The fact that industry reduced recruiting school leavers as apprentices surely contributed to the increasing unemployment rate in the country.

As has been noted earlier, the majority of unemployed persons in Zimbabwe are secondary school and college graduates. Bennell (1991; p.37) notes that most of the unemployed school and college graduates in Sub-Saharan Africa have little choice but to become self-employed. According to him, in many African countries the informal sector now employs the majority of the urban labour force. This then means that the informal sector, and not the formal sector, should be considered to be the growth and development direction for African economies. In view of this, governments are being called upon to create enabling environments that will facilitate micro-enterprise development throughout the economy (Bennell, 1991; World Bank, 1989). A number of studies on the informal sector in Zimbabwe have shown the importance of education in the informal sector (Chinyamunzore, 1999; Mandebvu, 1994). However, TVE policy within the country does not adequately address the needs of this important sector of the economy.

### **6.6.10 Harmonising Human Resources Development Policy**

As noted earlier, there is a wide variety of un-coordinated education and training provision in Zimbabwe. Most Government Ministries carry out own specific education and training, while Government parastatals, private tertiary education institutions and Non-Governmental Organisations contribute towards human resource development in Zimbabwe. However, the need for a coordinated human resource development approach cannot be over emphasised. The rationalisation of vocational and technical education in Zimbabwe policy should remove lack of uniformity with respect to qualifications and levels of awards in the TVE system.

## **6.7 ANALYSIS OF POLICY GROWTH AND DEVELOPMENT: 1980 - 1990**

The analysis below combines data from documentary sources and from the survey and interviews. The questionnaire for the survey had questions that solicited views on TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe during the period 1980 to 1990. Questionnaire item 15 related to research Question a), items 20, 21, 22 and 23 related to research Question b), items 16 and 17 related to research Question c) and items 18 and 19 related to research Question d). The discussion below presents the views from the questionnaire and from the interviews on TVE policy growth and development in the

country relating to the period 1980 to 1990. The numbers in brackets show the total number of respondents for each item.

### **6.7.1 Policy Growth and Development: 1980 - 1990**

The documents looked at showed that indicators for TVE policy growth and development during 1980 to 1990 included the passing of new policy after the National Manpower Survey of 1981 that include the Three Year Transitional Development Plan, the building of new TVE facilities, the passing of new acts of parliament on TVE (for example the University of Zimbabwe Act of 1982 and the Manpower Planning and Development Act of 1984), the setting up of bodies with responsibility for TVE such as NAMACO and ZIMDEF, setting up of a system for centralised recruitment of apprentices and bonding of trainees, making vocational subjects compulsory in schools and the establishment of the Ministry of Higher Education. The attainment of independence led to the establishment of a new socio-economic environment and initiatives to review TVE policy, leading to its growth and development.

Respondents to the survey and to interviews noted that the new majority rule government that came into power in 1980 put into motion policy reform initiatives that resulted in policy growth and development. Some of the policy growth indicators for this period were identified in response to Item 15 on the questionnaire included the introduction of training centres (8), the building of new technical and vocational institutions (6), introduction of higher academic qualifications (3), removal of racial discrimination in

enrolments in technical and vocational institutions (2), increasing of capacity of technical and vocational institutions (2), and rationalisation of levels of award to enable smooth progression to the National Higher Diploma level and into university education (1).

These responses tally with the data from documentary sources, and the data from the survey and interviews confirmed the TVE policy growth and development indicators. Documents had shown that the new government's TVE policy focused on the principles of decolonisation, abolition of racial structures, democratisation of access to education, localisation of curriculum and examinations, vocationalisation of the secondary school curriculum, promotion of Socialism and promotion of social transformation. Thus, one can conclude that TVE policy growth and development after independence was shown by the passing of new policy (acts of parliament and policy documents) and expansion of the TVE system. Policy development indicators included democratisation of the governance of institutions within the TVE system, improvement in quality through localisation of syllabi and examinations, involvement of local communities in the supervision and monitoring of training in tertiary institutions and the making of technical subjects in schools as important as academic subjects.

### **6.7.2 Social, Political and Economic Influences on Policy: 1980 - 1990**

The social, political and economic influences on TVE policy growth and development between 1980 and 1990 identified in documents, research articles and books included the gaining of political independence, the emigration of skilled whites, the return of exiled

blacks most of whom needed education and training to be assimilated into the mainstream economic activities, a huge expansion of the primary and secondary education system that was not matched by a similar expansion of 'A' level facilities and those for tertiary education, the coming into the country of a large number of donors supporting the TVE system, access by blacks to facilities that had been designed to train whites only who were a small section of the population and improved socio-economic status of indigenous blacks.

Survey question items 20, 21, 22 and 23 sourced data on respondent's views on link between the social-economic development and TVE policy growth and development between 1980 and 1990. The questions also sought to determine respondents' views on the strengths and weaknesses of TVE policy growth and development during this period. In response to questionnaire item 22, sixty-nine percent (69%) of respondents felt that TVE policy growth and development between 1980 and 1990 was linked to the country's socio-economic development needs. Reasons for this view that were given in Items 23 included the increased training of blacks (9), the development of local syllabi (7), the system catering for a large number of school leavers (2), filling the gaps left by fleeing whites (2), training for personnel in key sectors of the economy and sending school leavers for training where it was necessary (1). The strengths of TVE policy growth and development during this period were given in Item 20 as: the strong link between government and industry through NAMACO (4); emphasis on practical expertise (4); recognising the importance of technical subjects and making them compulsory in schools (4); and sought to remedy the skills gap that was obtained by bringing blacks into the

technical fields that were once the preserve of whites (1). The weaknesses were given in Item 21 as: training lost direction with academic subjects diluting labour requirements (6); slow response from government (4); expansion in training was not matched with the provision of increased resources (3); related (academic) subjects, for example mathematics, having a lot of weighting compared to technical subjects as entry to skills training (3); even if the system was expanded, more people still do not have access to the training system (3); closure of F2 schools – more should have been done by government to market their importance and necessity (1); slow pace in establishing (enough) colleges for TVE oriented students (1); a high reliance on ‘O’ level examination system for entry requirements yet in England (the architects of the system) only the top 20% of the academic school population is expected to sit for the examination (1); and it is not in sync with modern technology (especially the computer age) (1).

Even if Items 20 to 23 did not directly seek data on social, political and economic influences to TVE policy growth and development after independence up to 1990, they asked for responses that were pertinent in analysing the impact of these factors. Thus one can conclude that the TVE policy growth and development that took place after independence was viewed as having been met with strong challenges that tended to compromise the attainment of intended outcomes of the policy. The general view from the survey and interviews seems to have been that the policy put in place after independence did not achieve the intended result of matching policy with socio-economic development mainly because of the TVE system’s failure to meet the demand for training and reliance on syllabi that were not appropriate to the needs of the country.

### **6.7.3 Influence of International Trends on Policy: 1980 - 1990**

International influences on TVE policy growth and development between 1980 and 1990 included the making of TVE a basic human right, the introduction of a training levy on industry to fund TVE activities, the setting up of college advisory councils as a way of democratising institutional governance, localising syllabi and examinations, removing all forms discrimination leading to increased access by blacks and monitoring of TVE in private colleges by government. International support helped in increasing access to the TVE system by Africans through the building of new TVE institutions by donors. Regional agreements and protocols led to the development of facilities for joint training (such as the Hotel School in the City of Bulawayo).

Data from the survey and interviews shows that the TVE policy's link with international trends after 1980 was seen as having been rather weak despite the removal of economic sanctions and the heavy involvement of donors in the country at independence. Economic difficulties and the localisation of curricula and examinations was seen as having reduced international influence on TVE activities. Questionnaire items 16 and 17 sought data on respondents' views on how the TVE policy growth and development after independence was linked to international trends. In response to Item 16, thirty-one percent (31%) indicated YES and sixty-nine percent (69%) indicated NO. This means that the majority of respondents believed the TVE policy growth and development after independence was not linked to international trends. Those who believed that it was linked to international trends gave reasons that included the demand for locally trained skills internationally

shows that the country's TVE system was linked to international trends(9) and the country has been fully participating and benefiting from the international pace setters like UNESCO and the Commonwealth (7). Those who believed it was not linked to international trends gave reasons that included the country has always lagged behind international trends (6), lack of foreign currency led to focusing internally and the development of local courses (6), and policy tended to favour academia (5).

One may conclude, therefore, that generally, TVE policy growth and development between 1980 and 1990 was linked to international trends. Nevertheless, this link was weaker than the one that existed before independence where the practices were based on what was happening either in South Africa or the United Kingdom.

#### **6.7.4 Policy and Human Skills for Socio-Economic Development: 1980 - 1990**

Document analysis showed that TVE policy growth and development after independence resulted in increased TVE system capacity, higher output of graduates, specialised training in industry-specific institutions (such as the School of Mines and the Hotel School), institutional training in traditional apprenticeship trades, setting up of private universities and introduction of new areas of training identified by advisory councils in TVE institutions. The increased range of courses and enrolment in TVE institutions offered new training opportunities to a larger number of school leavers. Nevertheless, the demand for training largely remained unmet, with a large number of school leavers requiring training failing to find places in tertiary institutions.

Questionnaire items 18 and 19 sought data on whether TVE policy growth and development during this period was linked to identified human resources. Seventy-six percent indicated yes and thirty-four percent indicated No. This means that the majority of respondents believe that TVE policy growth and development was linked to producing human resources for socio-economic development. Those who gave a positive response gave reasons that included: there was a need to replace white skilled labour that had left the country (14); post colonial policy was targeted at a broader human resource base and was driven by the need to fulfill local requirements and expectations (3); and policy addressed pressing social and economic needs (2). Those that gave a negative response gave reasons that included: technical side of training was not upgraded, especially the design of technology (5); training was too focused on answering political need, for example introduction of institutional training (5); the Government technical and vocational institutions designed courses that were sometimes irrelevant for human resource requirements for national development (4); and the system tended to give inadequate training to non-traditional groups, hence the failure of cooperatives and SMEs during that period (3).

Even if three-quarters of respondents believed that Zimbabwe's TVE policy after independence was linked to identified human resources, mainly because of the National Manpower Survey (1981), the data from documents seems to suggest a different picture. This is because of the rather high underutilisation of the graduates of TVE system as shown by a high unemployment rate. The fact that some industries ended up ignoring the training offered in government tertiary institutions and offering their own training as what

was happening in the construction industry suggests that there was a perceived mismatch between training offered in tertiary institutions and the skills that industry and commerce required. The results of the population census of 1992 also showed a high unemployment rate for tertiary institution graduates, suggesting a mismatch between TVE policy growth and development and socio-economic development.

### **6.7.5 Legacy From Colonial Policy: 1980 - 1990**

The legacy from colonial rule that was apparent in TVE policy growth and development ten years after independence included reliance on the apprenticeship system as the main vehicle for human resources development, the focus of training in low level skills while ignoring training for the informal sector and small to medium enterprises and heavily borrowing from practices in the United Kingdom and South Africa.

### **6.7.6 Suggestions for Future Policy Growth and Development**

Questionnaire item 27 sought data on the changes that were needed on Zimbabwe's TVE policy for to meet the current human resource needs of the country and responses included: policy makers should have listened more to industry than to politicians (5); policy should have been based on clearly identified national human resource needs (4); TVE system should have focused on developing a skilled workforce to service local needs and requirements rather than develop skills that are largely inappropriate for Zimbabwe's needs (4); adequate resources should have been provided for the TVE

system (4); and an equipment upgrading programme should have been put in place for polytechnics and colleges (3).

The issue that policy makers should have listened to industry instead of politicians does not hold water because the drivers of policy are the politicians. Unfortunately at times politicians change policy just for the sake of change and in a subjective manner, leading to the replacement of some useful and appropriate policies. Also politicians have to fulfill election campaign promises made to the people, and some of these promises may lead to TVE policy growth and development that may not be best for the country. For example, opening up access to training institutions without the necessary expansion of the capacity of industry to employ the extra numbers that graduate leads to not linking TVE policy growth and development to socio-economic development.

Item 29 asked for suggestion on how future TVE policy should best respond to the nation's human resources requirements. Responses included: research and development skills should be developed at all levels within the TVE system (4); polytechnics should offer degree programmes bearing in mind that a degree is now the basic qualification for high-level human resources in the developed world (3); make polytechnics autonomous from close government control (3); establish training institutions closely linked to specific industries, e.g., colleges of agriculture, a School of Mines and a Hotel School (3); expose training personnel in TVE institutions to latest technology through attachments to industry and to similar institutions outside the country (2); provide more education and training resources to TVE colleges and polytechnics (2); improve the

technical skills and working conditions of trainers in TVE system (2); view training as the production of human capital rather than to meet socio-political needs (1); set a TVE policy to turn the brain drain into a brain gain (1); urgently identify the core skills that should be compulsory at all levels in the country's general education and TVE systems (1); address the training needs of the informal sector and the Small to Medium Scale Enterprises adequately (1); and remove the apprenticeship system since it is no longer in tune with the modern human resource development initiatives (1).

The issue of establishing colleges that aim at training for specific industries is in line with the SADC Protocol on Education and Training. Unfortunately, this cannot be on a large scale because of the size and complexity of the country's industry. Nevertheless, such a development for the critical industries such as agriculture, mining, manufacturing and retailing would enhance the performance of those industries. From the survey and interviews, the most mentioned changes that need to be urgently made to Zimbabwean TVE policy were the development of research and development skills at all levels, offering of degree programmes in polytechnics, making polytechnics semi-autonomous institutions and establishing institutions closely linked to specific industries. This was interestingly similar to recommendations from UNESCO and ILO (2002) and SADC (2003). This shows that the majority of respondents believe that research and development is critical for socio-economic development in line with the views that TVE policy research should lead to the development of the technology and other resources needed for socio-economic development (Weiss, 1983; Gow & McDonald, 2000). Making polytechnics semi-autonomous would be in line with Neo-liberal theory that is

currently being applied in most developed countries (though it is being criticised now, for example, Fitzsimons, 1995).

### **6.7.7 Comparing Data from Documents and from the Survey**

Generally, data from the survey and interviews agreed or supported that from documents. However some new information emerged from the survey and interviews. For example, the view that Zimbabwe's TVE policy after independence was not linked to international trends in TVE policy growth and development was new. The documents looked at seemed to suggest that TVE policy and development was aimed at matching international practices (Zimbabwe Government, 1981, 1991 and 2002). This suggests that the key stakeholders who supplied the data were of the opinion that Zimbabwe's TVE policy growth and development after independence was out of tune with international trends, a seemingly rather unhealthy situation. This was unhealthy because the country was supposed to move in tune with international practices in its efforts to improve the socio-economic environment.

The data from the survey and interviews showed a concern for: the absence of a research and development culture; the training to low-level skills; the lack of autonomy within TVE institutions; the shortage and age of equipment being used for training; focus on academic subjects at the expense of practical ones; failure to cater for non-traditional groups; offering programmes based on syllabi that had been localised but were not relevant to the needs of the country; government's close control of TVE institutions

stifling the autonomy of state colleges; closure of the F2 schools that were offering a vocational route for secondary school students; and the fact that even if the infrastructure for TVE programmes was expanded, a large number of school graduates with the requisite qualifications are still failing to find training places. These issues need urgent attention from the policy makers in order to ensure a positive TVE policy growth and development for the country.

A view that seems to sum up the concerns from the survey and interviews is from one respondent who noted:

Zimbabwe has never had a very strong technical/vocational policy other than some verbal pronouncements on the inception of a new minister or permanent secretary. The country is lagging behind technically in prevailing international trends in TVE policy growth and development. Therefore, there is a dire need for such a policy.

As a way forward, respondents suggested a new policy to promote development of higher-level skills within tertiary institutions. The autonomy of TVE institutions was advocated, with the institutions developing a closer links with industry. Government was urged to establish training institutions closely linked to specific industries and expose training personnel in TVE institutions to the latest technology through attachments to industry and to similar institutions within and outside the country. The provision of adequate education and training resources to TVE institutions was seen as critical for the effectiveness and efficiency of the TVE system.

## 6.8 SUMMARY

This chapter has shown that TVE policy growth and development that occurred during the first ten years of political independence in Zimbabwe was propelled by the new ZANU (PF) government's philosophy of Scientific Socialism. The new TVE policy that emerged focused on the principles of decolonisation, abolition of racial structures, democratisation of access to education, localisation of curriculum and examinations, vocationalisation of the secondary school curriculum, promotion of Socialism and promotion of social transformation.

TVE policy growth between 1980 and 1990 included the passing of new policy such as the Three Year Transitional Development Plan, the University of Zimbabwe Act of 1982 and the Manpower Planning and Development Act of 1984. New policy provisions included the setting up of bodies with responsibility for TVE such as NAMACO and ZIMDEF, setting up of a system for centralised recruitment of apprentices and bonding of trainees, making vocational subjects compulsory in schools and the establishment of the Ministry of Higher Education. Policy development was evidenced by democratisation of the system through setting up of advisory councils made up of representatives from the local communities, localization of syllabi and examinations, rationalisation of vocational qualifications and introduction of programmes that were seen as needed for socio-economic development (for example veterinary science at the university of Zimbabwe) and establishment of a ministry to be responsible for tertiary education in Zimbabwe.

The major social, political and economic influences on TVE policy growth and development between 1980 and 1990 included the gaining of political independence, the emigration of skilled whites soon before and soon after independence, the return of exiled blacks most of whom urgently needed education and training to be assimilated into the mainstream economic activities, a huge expansion of the school system that was not matched by a similar expansion of the tertiary education system, donors coming in to support the TVE system and an improved socio-economic status of indigenous blacks. The major international influences on TVE policy growth and development were making of TVE a basic human right and the adoption of recommendations from international bodies (for example from SADC and from ILO and UNESCO) on TVE policy growth and development. International support helped in increasing access to the TVE system by Africans through the building of new TVE institutions by donors. TVE policy growth and development, to some extent, provided the human resources needed for socio-economic development through attempting to meet the recommendations of the National Manpower Survey of 1981. However, the rising unemployment as at 1990 persuades one to conclude that the link between the policy growth and development and economic development was rather weak. With this in mind, Chapter 7 that follows presents the study's summary, conclusions and recommendations.

## **CHAPTER 7**

### **SUMMARY, CONCLUSION AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

#### **7.0 INTRODUCTION**

The previous three chapters presented an analysis of Zimbabwe's TVE policy growth and development over a period of one hundred years. This chapter presents a comparative summary of the research findings for the three chronological periods that were studied, concluding that the TVE policy growth and development for the hundred years covered by the study period was not focused on the socio-economic needs of the country. It then ends with recommendations for an improved situation that include the need for a unifying clear and focused TVE policy within the country. A recommendation for further research on TVE policy growth and development beyond 1990 is made.

#### **7.1 SUMMARY**

This study was prompted by the researcher's observation that Zimbabwe was experiencing a rather high rate of unemployment and underemployment of graduates of its technical and vocational education system. Failure by Zimbabwe to adequately utilise graduates of its TVE system developed using scarce national resources suggested a mismatch between TVE policy growth and development and the country's socio-economic environment.

The study sought to identify policy growth and development lessons from the past that could be useful in suggesting a more appropriate policy direction that would create the environment for graduates of the country's TVE system to contribute more towards national socio-economic development. Technical and vocational education policy growth and development was defined as quantitative and qualitative changes within the policy framework that result in increases in the number of policy documents, policy provisions and areas covered, and in increases in the education and training system's ability to contribute towards national socio-economic development. The critical factor within policy growth and development was identified as the need for establishing and maintaining clarity and focus within the policy, with clarity relating to the lucidity, preciseness and lack of contradictions within the policy, and focus relating to the policy being intended to guide activities towards a specific national objective, or focal point. Thus, TVE policy growth and development had to be guided by definite national objectives for social-economic development. Technical and vocational education policy growth and development analysis was seen as important in guiding policy reform initiatives and had to evaluate, among other issues, the policy's clarity and focus and its achievement of specifically stated national socio-economic growth and development objectives. Table 7.1 presents a comparative summary of the research findings.

**Table 7.1: Comparative Analysis of TVE Policy Growth and Development: 1890 - 1990**

<b>QUESTION</b>	<b>BSAC RULE: 1890-1923</b>	<b>RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT: 1923-1980</b>	<b>MAJORITY RULE: 1980-1990</b>	<b>COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS</b>
a) How did technical and vocational education policy grow and develop in Zimbabwe during the period 1890 to 1990?	Passing of Masters and Servants Ordinance of 1891 and the Education Ordinance of 1899 and their amendments that had provisions governing apprenticeship and for industrial training in schools.	New acts, such as, Industrial Conciliation Act (1934), the Education Acts (1930 & 1934), the Apprenticeship Act (1959), the Vocational Education & Training Act (1978) and the University of Rhodesia Act (1952).	New policy such as the Three Year Transitional Development Plan of 1982, the University of Zimbabwe Act of 1982 and the Manpower Planning and Development Act of 1984.	Original policy was in the form of ordinances. The later was in the form of acts of parliament. Growth mainly through new and additional provisions and development through system transformation.
b) What social, political and economic factors influenced the growth and development of Zimbabwe's technical and vocational education policy between 1890 and 1990?	Social: the colonisation of Zimbabwe; introduction of formal TVE system; domination of European culture, values and norms; and development of industry and commerce. Political: new centralised system of government; European views dominate political arena; taking of land from Africans; British & South African influence on policy. Economic: introduction of cash economy; forced labour for Africans; grants-in-aid to schools; safeguarding of settlers' jobs; shift of economic focus from mining to agriculture.	Social: domination by settlers; focus shifts from South Africa to Britain; softening of attitudes against blacks; establishment of colleges and a university; and separate TVE system emerges. Political: responsible government & a new constitution; racial segregation continues; Unilateral Declaration of independence in 1965; war of liberation; and political settlement. Economic: introduction of cash crops; manufacturing became main economic activity; economic sanctions imposed; introduction of levy to fund TVE activities.	Social: return of Africans from exile; adoption of Scientific Socialism as official philosophy; flight of Europeans with critical skills; expansion of TVE system; removal of all forms of discrimination; and localisation of syllabi. Political: rule by blacks; Africans dominate policymaking; participation in regional bodies; new TVE policy after manpower survey. Economic: rebuilding the country after war of liberation; strong donor support; levies on industry to fund TVE activities.	Similar social, political and economic influences from colonisation to independence, but a radical change at independence. TVE policy growth and development was slow during BSAC rule but increased during responsible government and at independence. The focus on low level skills started during colonisation continued up to 1990. The domination by whites in the social and political sphere waned after independence but they remained active economically.

**Table 7.1: Continued**

<b>QUESTION</b>	<b>BSAC RULE: 1890-1923</b>	<b>RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT: 1923-1980</b>	<b>MAJORITY RULE: 1980-1990</b>	<b>COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS</b>
c) To what extent did international trends affect the growth and development of technical and vocational education policy in Zimbabwe between 1890 and 1990?	Adoption of TVE policy based on practices in South Africa; use of recommendations from local commissions and conferences; use of expatriates in the TVE system; and state participation in TVE activities	Major local and international influences included the 2 <sup>nd</sup> World War, the separation of the school system into primary, secondary and tertiary; the economic boom of the 1940s; the Federation of Rhodesia & Nyasaland; UDI and the War of liberation.	End of armed struggle. Political settlement. Return of refugees. Majority rule government. Large-scale white emigration. Scientific Socialism policy. New ministry in charge of TVE system.	Practices in South Africa and Britain were major international influences before independence. Donor influence and recommendations from international bodies (e.g. ILO & SADC) dominated after independence.
d) Was the growth and development of technical and vocational education policy in Zimbabwe between 1890 and 1990 aimed at providing the human resource needed for achieving national social-economic development objectives?	Government granted land to missionaries to build schools; vocationalisation of the school curriculum; use of commissions of inquiry to guide policy growth and development; use of grants-in-aid; and supervision and monitoring of TVE activities. Graduates of industrial training provided the low-level skills needed to support expatriates with higher level skills. Evening schools provided opportunity for European workers to upgrade their skills and be more useful for socio-economic development. Community development training for Africans produced graduates to serve local communities.	British policy of 1925 influenced local policy. Industrial boards similar to practices in Britain. Control of training in industry. Setting up TVE colleges to meet local training needs. Using committees to review policy. Formalisation of apprenticeship training was in response to demands from industry. University education was introduced after private individuals had taken the initiative. TVE within schools and colleges was for developing the supportive skills needed in the employment sector. Involvement of industry in college training improved graduate employability.	Universal Declaration of Human Rights and Socialism as practiced in Eastern Block countries influenced post-independence policy. Localisation of syllabuses and use of regional TVE protocols. The National Manpower Survey (NMS) of 1981 established human resources requirements. New TVE policy based on NMS. Annual reviews of manpower main source of data for human resources requirements for commerce and industry. High unemployment suggested need to review type and range of training.	Pre-independence TVE policy heavily influenced by practices in South Africa and Britain while post-independence policy was influenced by Socialism. Donors brought practices from funding countries. TVE policy growth and development before independence more focused on local environment than after independence. However, TVE policy in the country has generally not been clear and focused as evidenced by high levels of graduate unemployment before and after 1980.

**Table 7.1: Continued**

<b>QUESTION</b>	<b>BSAC RULE: 1890-1923</b>	<b>RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT: 1923-1980</b>	<b>MAJORITY RULE: 1980-1990</b>	<b>COMPARATIVE ANALYSIS</b>
e) What legacy of the growth and development of Zimbabwe's technical and vocational education policy between 1890 and 1990 is apparent in the current initiatives for policy reform within the country?	Useful aspects include: importance of linking local policy to international practice; adequate funding for TVE activities; usefulness of research based information in guiding policy reform; and importance of TVE system regulation and monitoring.	Useful aspects include: role politicians play in policy making; importance of focusing training to economic development; adequate provision of training resources; developing appropriate skills within locals; and usefulness of import substitution.	Improved access to majority of school leavers. Relevancy of training programmes as determined by local communities. Industry specific TVE facilities. Bond graduates to reduce their leaving the country.	Important lessons for future policy reforms include: wide consultation of stakeholders before finalising new policy; adequate provision of resources for the TVE system; and linking skills to local environment. Establish centres of excellence closely linked to specific industries in line with regional and international initiatives (6); Carry out regular manpower surveys and design TVE policy to address local needs and demand (4); TVE policy growth and development should aim at urgently creating the inventors that Zimbabwe needs so that local inventions reduce dependence on imported tools and machinery and save foreign currency (3).
f) How should the country's current technical and vocational education policy grow and develop in response to social and economic developmental challenges of the twenty-first century?				

The research findings given in Table 7.1 show that TVE policy growth and development took place slightly differently during the three chronological periods studied. With respect to how TVE policy growth and development that happened between 1890 and 1990, ordinances were the primary policy instruments during BSAC rule while acts of parliament became the major instruments during responsible government and after independence. BSAC rule set the foundation which was expanded on by responsible government and later by the independent government. Growth was mainly through new and additional provisions for controlling training in schools, the university, in colleges and in polytechnics. These provisions were generally targeted at the development of low-level skills to support those of expatriates recruited from the developed world. Development was through system transformation from being resident in primary schools to a fully fledged tertiary education system governed by its own legislation. The development was, unfortunately along racial lines up to independence and for meeting the social demand for training after independence.

The foundation set by the British South African Company in 1890 established the social, economic and political environment for a formal TVE policy growth and development in the country. The major social, political and economic influences on TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe during BSAC rule included the introduction of the first formal TVE policy, the domination of European culture, values and norms, and the development of a modern cash economy and a system of industry and commerce. Influences during responsible government included domination of social, political and economic activities by the European electorate, shifting of focus from practices in South

Africa to those in Britain, introduction of cash crops, manufacturing becoming main economic activity, imposition of economic sanctions, and introduction of a levy to fund TVE activities. Influences after independence include the return of Africans from exile, adoption of Scientific Socialism as official philosophy, the flight of Europeans with critical skills, expansion of TVE system, and localisation of syllabi and examinations. This means that European views dominated the TVE policy growth and development environment for over ninety percent of the period covered by this study. Thus, the greatest social, economic and political influences on TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe between 1890 and 1990 were from a Euro-centric perspective. This means the TVE system in the country was largely based on practices from South Africa and Britain, even beyond the attempts to localise it after independence.

During BSAC rule, the major international influences on policy included the adoption of TVE policy based on practices in South Africa, the use of recommendations from commissions and conferences, use of expatriates in the TVE system and the state's participation in TVE activities. During responsible government, major international influences included the 2<sup>nd</sup> World War, the separation of the school system into primary, secondary and tertiary, the economic boom of the 1940s, the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland and the War of liberation. After independence, major international influences included adoption of recommendations from international bodies (such as, the ILO and SADC), the use of donors to fund TVE system expansion and the localisation of syllabi and examinations. Nevertheless, the survey and interviews revealed that the international influence was seen as stronger before, than after, independence in 1980.

The data analysed revealed that TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe between 1890 and 1990 was largely out of sync with socio-economic development. This is because graduates of industrial training provided the low-level skills needed to support expatriates with higher level skills though evening schools provided an opportunity for European workers to upgrade their skills and be more useful for socio-economic development. Community development training for Africans produced graduates to serve local communities and not the mainstream economy. Interestingly, formalisation of apprenticeship training was in response to demands from industry but the system was inadequate in meeting national human resource requirements as evidenced by persistent skills shortages. University education was introduced after private individuals had taken the initiative but the numbers produced and the areas covered were inadequate. Even if the involvement of industry in college training improved graduate employability, the numbers that could be absorbed into this training were very small, perpetuating the skills shortages.

The legacy of Zimbabwe's TVE policy growth and development between 1890 and 1990 that were lessons for the period after 1990 included the importance of linking local policy to international practice, the need to provide adequate resources for TVE activities, the usefulness of research based information in guiding policy reform, the importance of appropriate TVE system regulation and monitoring, the importance of focusing training to socio-economic development and the usefulness of research and development skills within graduates in order to develop own technology and improve quality of locally manufactured products.

On how Zimbabwe's TVE policy should have grown and developed between 1890 and 1990, respondents to the survey and interviews suggested that policy makers should have listened more to industry than to politicians (5), policy should have been based on clearly identified national human resource needs (4), TVE system should have focused on developing a skilled workforce to service local needs and requirements rather than develop skills that are largely inappropriate for Zimbabwe's needs (4), adequate resources should have been provided for the TVE system (4), and an equipment upgrading programme should have been put in place for polytechnics and colleges (3). The idealistic TVE policy growth and development for Zimbabwe can be deduced to be one that accords industry room to make meaningful contributions to policy formulation and implementation, is based on research findings that increase its chances of meeting the country's human resources needed for socio-economic development and the policy ensure the provision of an adequate level of the appropriate resources for producing the right quantity and quality of graduates.

Recommendations for an improved situation from the survey and interviews included establishing centres of excellence closely linked to specific industries in line with regional and international initiatives, carrying out regular manpower surveys, reforming TVE policy to address local needs, that TVE policy growth and development should aim at creating the inventors that Zimbabwe urgently requires to address local needs and produce local inventions that reduce dependence on imported tools and machinery and save foreign currency.

## **7.2 CONCLUSSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS**

The research aim was to analyse Zimbabwe's TVE policy growth and development during the period 1890 to 1990 with the view of generating new information that may be used to guide policy reform initiatives in the country. The study showed evidence of TVE policy growth and development in Zimbabwe. For example, the Manpower Planning and Development Act of 1984 (see Appendix IV) is evidence of TVE policy growth and development in that it contains more provisions and is more complex than the Education Ordinance of 1899 (see Appendix III). However, this TVE policy growth and development seems to have lacked clarity and focus in that the TVE system failed to adequately meet the human resources requirements of the country even if it produced a high number of graduates.

The documents looked at and the responses to questions during data gathering from key stakeholders suggest that Zimbabwe's TVE policy growth and development lacked a local focus and clarity since it was based on foreign models and it failed to provide a useful homegrown solution to the human resource challenges that had been facing the country between 1890 and 1990. This failure is evident in the high unemployment rate for graduates of the TVE system, suggesting a mismatch between policy and national human resources needs. It appears Zimbabwe's TVE policy has to grow and develop in a direction that should be guided by scientific data provided by regular state sponsored research.

As at 1990, Zimbabwe's TVE policy had grown and developed in leaps and bounds. The TVE system had expanded greatly to accommodate the larger section of the population that had hitherto been neglected before independence. Nevertheless, at that point, TVE policy still faced the challenges of relevancy, and clarity and focus as evidenced by the continued use of syllabi based on foreign models and the underutilisation of system graduates. It is true that TVE policy alone cannot address the economic challenges facing a nation, but the system can be guided by appropriate policy to produce graduates that can be gainfully utilised within the country. The country's major economic activities have been agriculture, mining and manufacturing, requiring that the TVE system to develop a strong bias towards training for these sectors. In time of strong economic challenges, industry and commerce tend to retrench employees and shun TVE system graduates. Training for self-employment, or for employment in the small and medium scale enterprises, and for participating in agricultural activities, seems an ideal logical focus for TVE policy in this country. In order for the TVE policy to be relevant and sustainable it has to take cognisance of issues relating to equality, financing and international relevance.

These views lead one to recommend the implementation of the following recommendations which require central coordination:

- 7.3.1 The country's TVE policy has to effectively address the technical skill needs of socially disadvantaged groups, such as women, the unemployed or underemployed and rural communities;

- 7.3.2 The education and training of school dropouts should be given special consideration in order for the country to effectively utilise its entire human resource base that encompasses all economically active Zimbabweans;
- 7.3.3 All economically active workers should contribute towards the Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund through a levy in order to strengthen the Fund and enable it to benefit the self employed and those in small and medium scale enterprises;
- 7.3.4 The wastage of resource for training through duplication of training programmes within government TVE institutions has to be curtailed through reduced funding for common programmes and increased funding for unique and relevant human resources development efforts that address identified critical national human resources requirements;
- 7.3.5 Zimbabwe's TVE policy has to urgently address the issue of the establishment of centres of excellence and a qualifications framework as required by the Southern African Development Community (SADC) and the Common Market for Eastern and Southern Africa (COMESA); and
- 7.3.6 There is an urgent need for the central coordination of human resources development efforts through increased responsibilities for the Ministry of Higher and Tertiary Education where the ministry supervises the education and training activities in all government ministries other than the uniformed forces.

In conclusion, one may confidently observe that Zimbabwe's TVE policy growth and development from colonisation to ten years after political independence has not adequately met the country's human resources requirements. An idealistic future growth and development direction is one in which the TVE policy adequately addresses the country's human resource challenges in relation to socio-economic development objectives. This means that the policy should best grow and develop in a direction that is in tandem with socio-economic development policy to ensure optimum utilisation of system graduates. The TVE policy should set the right environment for producing the national human resources in adequate quantities and qualities for the various levels of skills required by an economy that is now looking at homegrown solutions to its socio-economic challenges. Zimbabwe urgently needs a dedicated and patriotic labour force to turnaround the economy and TVE policy should produce this labour force. This should see the country's TVE policy grow and develop in an ideal direction that should guarantee the nation's prosperity both socially and economically.

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## 9.0 LIST OF APPENDICES

### APPENDIX I

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DEPARTMENT OF ADULT EDUCATION

UNIVERSITY OF ZIMBABWE

26 February 2004

\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_  
\_\_\_\_\_

Dear Sir/Madam,

#### LETTER OF INTRODUCTION.

This interview is aimed at gathering data for a research study on the growth and development of technical and vocational education policy in Zimbabwe during the one hundred years spanning the period 1890 to 1990. The study's goal is to determine, from historical information in documents and from surviving key stakeholders, the major influences for technical and vocational education policy growth and development in the country during the selected period. The information gathered will be used to propose an idealist future growth and development direction.

You have been identified as one of the participants in the technical and vocational education system during the selected period. Therefore, your views are being sought through responses to specific questions included in the attached questionnaire. The information you provide will be treated in the strictest confidence. Your name will not be mentioned in the research report against your wish. In the main, the responses to the questionnaire will be group averaged and the general view highlighted. Where permission is granted, individual views will be used to stress a point.

May I take this opportunity to thank you most sincerely for agreeing to participate in this important research study on the growth and development of Zimbabwe's technical and vocational education policy. A summary of the findings will be mailed to you if you so wish.

Munyaradzi Alexander Zengeya (University of Zimbabwe DPhil Student).

## APPENDIX II

### RESEARCH QUESTIONNAIRE/INTERVIEW SCHEDULE

My name is Alexander Munyaradzi Zengeya, a Doctor of Philosophy student with the University of Zimbabwe. I am carrying out a research study on the growth and development of Technical and Vocational Education (TVE) policy in Zimbabwe during the one hundred year period between 1890 and 1990. You have been identified as one of the key players in either TVE policy formulation or implementation during this period. Please answer the following questions as truthfully as possible, giving the responses that best match your views. Your views are intended to verify information already identified in documents and will be used specifically for this study. The information you provide will be treated in strict confidence, with your responses being combined with those from other selected key participants to give a general view. May I thank you most sincerely in advance for your participation in this important research study.

1. The colonisation of Zimbabwe in 1890 ushered in a strong foundation for Technical and Vocational Education policy growth and development in the country. YES/NO.
2. Please give the major reason for your view in Question 1.  
\_\_\_\_\_
3. Zimbabwe's Technical and Vocational Education policy grew and developed between 1890 and 1980? YES/NO.
4. Please give ONE reason for your view in Question 3.  
\_\_\_\_\_
5. Identify ONE change that occurred to Zimbabwe's Technical and Vocational Education policy between 1890 and 1980.  
Change: \_\_\_\_\_  
Period: \_\_\_\_\_
6. What was ONE of the major socio-economic influences leading to the change you identified in Question 5.  
\_\_\_\_\_
7. Was Zimbabwe's Technical and Vocational Education policy in place between 1890 and 1980 linked to international trends. YES/NO.
8. Please give the major reason for your view in Question 7.  
\_\_\_\_\_
9. Was the Technical and Vocational Education policy in place between 1890 and 1980 linked to identified human resource needs of the country? YES/NO.

10. Please give the major reason for your view in Question 9.
- 
11. What was ONE of the major strengths of Zimbabwe's Technical and Vocational Education policy between 1890 and 1980?
- 
12. What was ONE of the major weakness of Zimbabwe's Technical and Vocational Education policy between 1890 and 1980?
- 
13. In your view, was the Technical and Vocational Education policy for the country between 1890 and 1980 relevant to the socio-economic needs of the country? YES/NO.
14. Please give the major reason for your view in Question 13.
- 
15. What was ONE of the major changes to Zimbabwe's Technical and Vocational Education policy at independence in 1980?
- 
16. Was the country's Technical and Vocational Education policy in place between 1980 and 1990 linked to international trends. YES/NO.
17. Please give the major reason for your view in Question 16.
- 
18. Was the Technical and Vocational Education policy in place between 1980 and 1990 linked to identified human resource needs of the country? YES/NO.
19. Please give the major reason for your view in Question 18.
- 
20. What was ONE of the major strengths of Zimbabwe's Technical and Vocational Education policy between 1980 and 1990?
- 
21. What was ONE of the major weakness of Zimbabwe's Technical and Vocational Education policy between 1980 and 1990?
- 
22. Was Technical and Vocational Education policy for the country between 1980 and 1990 relevant to the country's socio-economic needs? YES/NO.

23. Please give the major reason for your view in Question 22.

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24. What ONE aspect of pre-independence Technical and Vocational Education policy were still apparent in the country's policy as at 1990?

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25. Did Zimbabwe's Technical and Vocational Education policy grow and develop with time? YES/NO.

26. Please give the major reason for your view in Question 25.

---

27. What changes should have occurred in Zimbabwe's Technical and Vocational Education policy between 1990 and now for it to best meet the current human resource needs of the country?

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28. What do you see as ONE of the most urgent changes needed to be made on Zimbabwe's Technical and Vocational Education policy today?

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29. Please give ONE suggestion on how Zimbabwe's Technical and Vocational Education policy should grow and develop in the near future for it to best respond to the nation's human resource requirements in a fast changing economic environment within a the global village.

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**THANK YOU VERY MUCH FOR THE VALUABLE INFORMATION THAT YOU HAVE PROVIDED!**

Alexander Munyaradzi Zengeya  
University of Zimbabwe  
March 2004

**-END-**

## APPENDIX III

## EDUCATION ORDINANCE OF 1899

## ORDINANCES

No.18 of 1899

(Published December 15, 1899.)

No. 18 of 1899

To provide for the appointment of an Inspector of Education and Assistants to him and for the regulating, the appropriation of grants and the granting of loans from the Public Revenue in aid of General Education.

BE IT ENACTED by the Administrator of Southern Rhodesia with the advice and consent of the Legislative Council thereof as follows:-

1. All sums of money granted by the Legislative Council for the purpose of Education and all loans authorized by the said Council to be made for the erection of buildings for public schools or for examinations thereof shall be administered or made as the case may be, by the Administrator, in accordance with such rules and regulations as shall from time to time be approved by him with the advice and consent of the Executive Council and published by Notice in the Gazette: Provided

Grants and loans  
regulated

- (1) that no such rule or regulation, nor any alteration or rescission thereof which may from time to time become expedient shall be published as aforesaid or shall take effect until such rule or regulation shall have been assented to by the Legislative Council by resolution thereof;
- (2) that the regulations contained in the schedule to this Ordinance shall be and are hereby declared to be the regulations touching Education for the time being subject to alteration or recession in the manner herein before set forth;
- (3) that a report of the allocation of such grants and of such loans shall each year be laid before the Legislative Council.

2. The Administrator may appoint an inspector of schools for Southern Rhodesia, who shall receive such salary as may be appointed and approved for that purpose, and who shall be the Superintending Inspector of all schools aided in any way by grants or loans made under the provisions of this Ordinance: and the Administrator shall further have power, if need be, to appoint any other person or persons to be Assistant or Assistants to such Superintending Inspector, who shall receive such salary or salaries as shall from time to time be appointed and provided for the purpose.

3. The Inspector or his Assistant shall enforce the rules or regulations in the Schedule hereto or such rules or regulations as may hereafter be made under the provisions of this Ordinance and shall visit and inspect every school aided as aforesaid at such times and in such manner as shall be directed by the Administrator and the Inspector shall furnish an Annual Report showing the number and conditions of such schools and the state of education throughout Southern Rhodesia which report shall be laid before the Legislative Council at the next Session following the date of such report.

Duties of  
Inspectors and  
Assistants

4. This Ordinance may for all purposes be cited as “The Education Ordinance, 1899.” Short title

## SCHEDULE

### School Regulations.

Order “ A. “

### GRANTS.

## UNDENOMINATIONAL PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND VOLUNTARY PUBLIC SCHOOLS.

Conditions on which Aid will be granted from the Public Revenue towards the maintenance of Undenominational Public School and Voluntary Public Schools.

1. For the purpose of these Regulations.

Inspections

- (1) a “Voluntary Public School” shall mean a public school under the management and superintendence of some recognised religious body;
- (2) a Public Undenominational School shall mean a purely non-sectarian open to children of such age as the Administrator may prescribe and under the control of Managers appointed in accordance with the provisions of these Regulations.

2. In respect of every school

Allowances in  
respect of teachers’  
salaries

- (a) which shall be in existence at the date of the commencement of these regulations and in which the daily average pupils during the preceding six months shall have been not less than twenty-five and in which the subjects of inspection shall be such as are set forth in Section ten of these Regulations there shall be upon the recommendation of the Inspector and upon his report that in every respect the conditions of these Regulations have been complied with be allowed for the first year from the public funds a sum not exceeding one half the salary of the principal Teacher and of such Assistant Teachers as may be certified by the Inspector to be necessary, provided that in no case shall such allowances exceed £180 and £120 respectively: Such allowances shall be made annually if the daily average of pupils shall in the preceding year not have been less than as is specified herein – provided that in case in any year such average shall have been less than above set forth the Administrator may upon the recommendation of the Inspector make such allowance in respect of the salary of the principal Teacher and every Assistant Teacher for that year, not exceeding the respective sums herein mentioned, as he shall deem fit.
- (b) To be established in any town or village if the Administrator upon the report of the Inspector be satisfied that such town or village is one which ought to be provided with such a school, there shall be allowed for the first year in aid of the salary of the principal Teacher a sum not exceeding one half of his salary and in aid of the salary of every Assistant Teacher

appointed with the approval of the Administrator a sum not exceeding one half his salary, such allowances not exceeding £180 and £120 respectively. Such allowances shall be made annually after the expiration of the first year upon the Administrator being satisfied that the daily average of pupils in the preceding year shall not have been less than 25 and upon the report of the Inspector that the school has in every respect complied with the provisions of these Regulations – provided that in case in any year such daily average shall have been less than 25 the Administrator may upon the recommendation of the Inspector make such allowances in respect of such salaries not respectively to exceed £180 and £120 as to him shall seem fit.

3. If any principal teacher or assistant teacher in any voluntary public school subject to the conditions of these regulations shall not be in receipt of any salary but shall be maintained at the cost of the managing body there shall be paid to such body in lieu of the above allowances in respect of every such Teacher such respective sums as the Administrator may after due enquiry sufficient to amount to one-half of the cost of such maintenance not exceeding the respective amounts mentioned in Section 1.

Teachers maintenance allowances in lieu of salary.

4. The names of the managers shall in every case be submitted to the Administrator for approval before any grant is made and in the case of all schools receiving aid under these Regulations the Administrator shall satisfy himself with the arrangements for the management and maintenance thereof – The names and credentials of the Teachers nominated, the rate of school fees and all further Regulations shall be subject to the approval of the Administrator.

Approval of Managers and teachers.

5. The managers or religious governing body shall provide and keep in repair the necessary accommodation for the school and teachers, namely: a school room with suitable offices attached and proper school furniture, together with suitable residence for the principal Teacher or an annual allowance in lieu thereof being one-fifth at least of the salary.

School accommodation and teachers residence.

6. (a) No new grant, nor renewal or augmentation of any existing grant shall take place until the Inspector is satisfied that suitable out-offices and in addition a suitable recreation ground, have been provided, and that the school can efficiently provide for the wants of the locality.

Conditions on which new grants, renewals &c. will be made.

(b) The Administrator may upon being satisfied that any school aided under these Regulations is being conducted in an unsatisfactory manner withhold the whole or any portion of the annual grant.

7. The school shall be under the control and management of the local managers, but shall be subject to inspection by the Inspector or his deputy appointed by the Administrator, who shall have the right of entering the school at any time during school hours, of examining into the state of buildings and the school furniture, of ascertaining the progress of the children under instruction, and of enquiring generally into the efficiency of the school in regard to the locality in which it is placed, and of calling for such returns as he may require in order to obtain satisfactory information on these subjects.

Control and inspection.

8. The ordinary school hours are to be computed at not less than two hours in the forenoon and two hours in the afternoon.

School hours

9. The first half hour of every morning after roll call shall be at the disposal of the minister of recognised denominations for religious instruction of the children of such several denominations. Such ministers shall arrange with the managers or principal teachers as to the days they will attend and it shall be the duty of the principal to see that such arrangements are properly carried out. Children may at the request of the parents or guardians be exempted from religious teaching, and in such cases they

Religious instruction.

shall during the above period receive such secular instruction as may be determined by the Managers or Principal. In case any Minister shall on any day not attend at the appointed hour for religious instruction the children usually attending such instruction shall during that period receive secular instruction in such subject as may be determined by the Principal.

10. The subjects of instruction shall include Reading, Writing, Arithmetic, English Grammar and descriptive Geography in the primary or elementary course and physical drill.

Subjects of instruction.

11. In schools attended by both sexes provision shall be made if possible for the separation of the sexes, by having separate apartments for the female section under a female teacher, but should the inhabitants of the locality having children of school age prefer the establishment of separate boys and girls schools, the aid will be extended to both, provided that the Administrator be satisfied that the maintenance of separate schools is justified.

Separation of sexes.

12. The grant in aid of the salary of the Teacher in girls' school shall not exceed £120 per annum and provision must be made in such a school for superior instruction in the English language and composition, outlines of history and geography, arithmetic, plain needlework and domestic economy as far as may be practicable.

Grants in aid of teachers in girls schools.

13. The instruction during the ordinary school hours shall be given through the medium of the English language.

Instruction in English language.

14. There shall be granted towards the cost of school requisites for every school subject to these regulations upon the recommendation of the Inspector a sum amounting to one-half of the cost of the same as certified by the Inspector.

Aid towards school requisites.

15. Where an evening class is held in connection with any school receiving aid under these regulations a quarterly allowance of £1 will be made upon the recommendation of the Inspector in respect of every pupil who shall have attended such school for at least two-thirds of the total number of holdings of such school during the preceding quarter.

Aid to evening classes.

16. An additional annual grant of £2 shall be made in respect of every pupil who shall satisfy the Inspector that he has reached a certain standard of proficiency to be fixed by such Inspector in any four of the following additional subjects, namely, Latin, English Literature, History, Elementary Mathematics, Elementary Science, Shorthand, Book-keeping, Vocal or Instrumental Music.

Grants for extra subjects

17. The numbers and lengths of holidays shall be such as shall be prescribed by the Administrator, but in no case shall the total period during which the school shall be open be less than thirty-eight weeks in each year.

Holidays and terms

18. The Managers of any undenominational public school receiving aid under these Regulations shall be of such number and shall be nominated and appointed in such manner as the Administrator may prescribe.

Order "B."

## NATIVE SCHOOLS

### CONDITIONS ON WHICH AID WILL BE GRANTED FROM THE PUBLIC FUNDS TO NATIVE MISSION SCHOOLS.

Where a Native Mission School is kept for not less than four hours daily, of which not less than two hours shall be devoted to industrial training by any teacher or teachers approved of by the Administrator and the average daily attendance is not less than 50 there will be allowed annually for and in respect of each pupil who shall during

Aid to native mission schools

the preceding year have attended the school on at least two hundred occasions the sum of ten shillings provided that in no case shall such annual allowance exceed fifty pounds.

Order "C."

## BUILDING LOANS

### CONDITIONS ON WHICH MONEYS WILL BE ADVANCED TO CERTAIN SCHOOLS FOR BUILDING PURPOSES.

#### 1. Undenominational Public Schools.

- |  |                    |
|--|--------------------|
| <p>(i.) The Administrator, if satisfied upon the recommendations of the Inspector that a school is needed for the educational requirements of any locality may upon application made to advance on loan from the public funds on the conditions in the next succeeding clause mentioned, such amount of money not exceeding £2,000 as shall cover the cost of erecting on land to be provided by the British South African Company for the purpose, an Undenominational Public School and Offices; a guarantee being furnished by the Managers of the school to the satisfaction of the Administrator that the regular payment of interest on the money advanced will be made.</p> | Maximum of loan    |
| <p>(ii.) The sum of money so provided and advanced shall bear interest at the rate of £10 per £100 per annum which interest one-half shall be paid out of the Public Funds provided for educational purposes.</p>  | Rate of interest   |
| <p>(iii.) After regular payment of such interest for a period of fifteen years the principal amount shall be held to have been redeemed and the land and buildings thereon shall be vested in the Municipality if any, or Managers of the school if there be no such Municipality, to be held by them in perpetuity in trust for the inhabitants of such locality for educational purposes.</p>  | Redemption of loan |
| <p>(iv.) Until the whole of the principal sum and interest shall have been paid in the manner aforesaid the land and buildings thereof shall be and shall remain vested in the British South African Company</p>   |                    |

#### 2. Public Voluntary School

- |  |                  |
|--|------------------|
| <p>(i.) The Administrator, if satisfied upon the recommendations of the Inspector that a school is needed for the educational requirements of such locality and where it may appear to his satisfaction that such requirements may be more advantageously met by the establishment of a Public Voluntary School under the superintendence of some recognised religious body may upon application make advance on loan from the public funds on the conditions in the next succeeding clause mentioned a sum of money not exceeding £1,000 towards the erection of Public Voluntary School and Offices, provided that the sum of money so advanced shall not be in excess of a similar amount to be advanced by the religious body aforesaid : a guarantee being furnished to the satisfaction of the Administrator that the regular payment of interest on the amount advanced will be made.</p> | Maximum of loan  |
| <p>(ii.) The sum of money so provided and advanced shall bear interest at the rate of £10 per £100 per annum of which interest one-half shall be paid out of the Public Funds provided for educational purposes. After the regular</p>   | Rate of interest |

payment of such interest for a period of fifteen years the principal amount shall be held to have been redeemed.

3. Such Public Voluntary School may be built on land either
  - (i.) the property of the British South African Company, in which case the land and buildings thereon shall remain vested in the British South African Company until the whole of the principal amount and interest shall have been redeemed in the manner aforesaid, whereupon the land and buildings thereon shall become the absolute property of the religious body aforesaid;
  - (ii.) the property of the religious body aforesaid, who shall in such case furnish to the British South African Company a first mortgage bond upon the whole of the land and buildings thereon, which mortgage bond shall be redeemed when the whole of principal and interest shall have been paid in the manner aforesaid.

Bond if on land not  
vested in British  
South African  
Company

## APPENDIX IV

1984 MANPOWER PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT No. 36

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### ZIMBABWE

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### ACT

To provide for the establishment and maintenance of manpower training schemes and institutions; to provide for the research and planning of manpower resources; to provide for the imposition of a levy and the establishment of a fund to finance manpower development and for other purposes; to establish the National Manpower Advisory Council; to repeal the Apprenticeship Training and Skilled Manpower Development Act (Chapter 266) and the Vocational Education and Training Act, 1978; and to provide for matters incidental to or connected with the foregoing.

### ARRANGEMENT OF SECTION

### PRELIMINARY

#### Section

1. Short title and date of commencement
2. Interpretation

### Part I

### VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL TRAINING

3. Establishment of Government vocational or technical training and research institutions.
4. Private vocational or technical training institutions to be registered.
5. Conditions of regulation.
6. Cancellation of registration of private vocational or technical training institution.
7. Appeals to Minister.
8. Prohibition of further operations after cancellation of registration.
9. Refund of fees paid to private vocational or technical training institution.
10. duty of principals of private vocational or technical training institutions to maintain certain records.
11. Powers of inspection of private vocational or technical training institutions.
12. Restriction of training in designated trades by private vocational or technical institutions.

## PART II

### NATIONAL MANPOWER ADVISORY COUNCIL

13. Establishment of Council.
14. Disqualifications for appointment to Council.
15. Vacation of office by member of Council.
16. Minister may require member to vacate office or suspend him.
17. Filling of vacancies.
18. Meetings and procedure of Council.
19. Committees of Council.
20. Functions of Council.
21. Guidance of professional bodies in respect of national manpower requirements.
22. Minutes of proceedings of Council and committees.

## PART III

### ZIMBABWE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT FUND

23. Establishment of Fund.
24. Levies.
25. Payment of levy by employers.
26. Accounts and audit of Fund.
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28. Disbursements from Fund.

## PART IV

### APPRENTICESHIP TRAINING AND SKILLED MANPOWER CERTIFICATION

29. Designation of trades.
30. Recruitment of persons for apprenticeship.
31. Registration of employers.
32. Assignment of apprentices to employers.
33. Contracts of apprenticeship.
34. Contract of apprenticeship not affected by lawful strike or lockout.
35. Credit for previous training or experience.
36. Extension of period of apprenticeship.
37. Registrar's powers to inspect and obtain information.
38. Transfer, modification and rescission of contracts.
39. Completion of contract of apprenticeship.
40. Certification of skilled worker qualifications.
41. Cancellation and suspension of certificate of qualification.
42. Employment in designated trades.
43. Appeals from decisions of Registrar.

## PART V

## MANPOWER RESEARCH AND PLANNING

- 44. Manpower survey and statistics.
- 45. Power to obtain information.
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## PART VI

## GENERAL

- 47. Officials.
- 48. Sale of products or practical training.
- 49. Establishment and administration of Government scholarships.
- 50. Offences and penalties.
- 51. Presumptions.
- 52. Certificate as evidence.
- 53. Regulations.
- 54. Repeals and savings.

ENACTED by the President and the Parliament of Zimbabwe

## PRELIMINARY

5. (1) This Act may be cited as the Manpower Planning and Development Act 1984.

Short title and  
date of  
commencement

- (4) This Act shall come into operation on a date to be fixed by the President by notice in the Gazette.

6. (1) In this Act – “apprentice” means any person employed under a apprenticeship registered in terms of section thirty two: Interpretation

“Committee” means any committee of the Council established in terms by National Manpower Advisory Council established by section thirteen;

“designated trade” means a trade designed as such in terms of section twenty-nine;

“Director” means the Director of Vocational and Technical Training appointed in terms of section forty-seven;

“employer” means –

- (a) any person who employs or provides work for any person and remunerates or expressly or tacitly undertakes to remunerate him, and includes the agent or representative of such first mentioned

person who is in charge or control of the work upon which such second mentioned person is employed; or

- (b) the Ministry, in respect of any apprentice indentured to the Ministry; or
- (c) any person for whom any other person carries out skilled work in a designated trade for which such second mentioned person is not remunerated or entitled to remuneration; or
- (d) any self employed person who carries out skilled work in a designated trade;

“examination” means –

- (a) the test that may be conducted by the Registrar or any person authorized by him in that behalf, to determine whether or not an applicant is qualified to be issued with a certificate specified therefore; or
- (b) a formal examination conducted at a vocational or technical training institution; or
- (c) any other formal examination recognised by the Minister for the purposes of this Act;

“Fund” means the Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund established by section twenty-three;

“hostel” means supervised lodging for students attending a vocational or technical training institution which is provided by such institution;

“industry” includes any class of industrial undertaking and any section or portion of an industry and any group of industries;

“Minister” means the Minister of Labour, Manpower Planning and Social Welfare or any other Minister to whom the President may from time to time assign the administration of this Act, and “Ministry” shall be construed accordingly;

“premises” means –

- (a) any land or building or structure upon or below the surface of any land; or
- (b) any vehicles, aircraft or vessel;

“profession” includes occupation;

“registered employer” means an employer registered in terms of section thirty-one;

“Registrar” means the Registrar of Apprenticeship and Skilled Manpower appointed in terms of section forty-seven;

“skilled worker” means the holder of a certificate of skilled worker qualification, and “skilled work” shall be construed accordingly;

“vocational or technical training” means any form of training or instruction, whether personal or by correspondence, which is intended to qualify or is capable of qualifying a person in whole or in part for any profession, calling or trade but does not include any training or instruction by the University of Zimbabwe or such other training or instruction as may be specified in terms of subsection (2).

(2) The Minister may, by notice in the Gazette, specify that any training or instruction shall not be regarded as vocational or technical training.

## PART I

### VOCATIONAL AND TECHNICAL TRAINING

3. (1) The Minister may establish, equip and maintain such of vocational or technical training institutions as he may deem necessary or desirable for the instruction of persons in vocational or technical skills, and shall secure the provision of a comprehensive and constantly developing service for such vocational or technical training, including the provision of hostels. (Establishment of Government vocational or technical training and research institutions.)

Establishment of Government vocational or technical training and research institutions.

(2) In addition to the institutions referred to in subsection (1) the Minister may also establish other schemes for manpower development, including the establishment, equipment and maintenance of institutions for training and research in advanced technology.

4. (1) No person shall conduct, maintain or manage any private vocational or technical training institution unless such an institution has been registered in terms of this Act.

Private vocational or technical training institutions to be registered.

(2) An application for registration shall be made to the Director not later than three months before the proposed date of opening the institution has been registered in terms of this Act.

(3) The Director shall examine every application and notify the applicant of his decision within thirty days of the submission of the application.

5. (1) If regarding any private vocational or technical training institution for which an application for registration has been made the Director is satisfied that –

Conditions of registration

- (a) the premises, including any hostel and any building to be used in connection with the instruction or accommodation of the students attending, are suitable and adequate for the purpose having regard to the number, ages and sex of those student; and
- (b) efficient and suitable instruction will be provided at the institution having regard to the number, ages and sex of the students attending; and
- (c) the principal and every member of staff of the institution is a proper person with appropriate qualifications to be the principal, or, as the case may be, a member of the staff of the institution; and
- (d) the funds of the proprietor of the institution are sufficient to satisfy and claim which a student may have for the repayment of fees paid by him; and
- (e) proper compliance will be made with the provisions of this Act and with any standards fixed by the Director in relation to any matter referred to in paragraph (a), (b) or (c);

he shall register the institution and publish notice of such registration in the Gazette within fourteen days of such registration.

(2) If the Director is not satisfied as to any matter referred to in subsection (1) in regard to any application he shall notify the applicant in writing that he has rejected his application has, within a period fixed by the Director, complied to the Director's satisfaction with such requirements regarding any matter referred to in subsection (1) as the Director may specify.

(4) If the applicant fails to comply to the Director's satisfaction with any requirement referred to in subsection (2) within the period fixed by the Director within the period fixed by the Director or within any extension of such period granted by the Director in writing, the Director shall notify the applicant in writing that he has rejected the application.

6. (1) If at any time the Director is not satisfied in regard to any matter referred to in subsection (1) of section five, shall notify the proprietor in writing that he proposes to cancel the registration of the institution unless, within a period fixed by the Director, the proprietor complies to the satisfaction of the Director with such requirements regarding any matter referred to in that subsection as the Director may specify.

Cancellation of registration of private vocational or technical training institution.

(2) If the proprietor of a private vocational or technical training institution fails to comply to the Director's satisfaction with any requirement referred to in subsection (1) within the period granted by the Director in writing, the Director shall notify the proprietor in writing that he has cancelled the registration of the institution, and shall publish a notice of the cancellation in the Gazette.

7. (1) Any person who is aggrieved by any decision of the Appeals to Minister.

Appeals to Minister.

Director –

- (a) in terms of subsection (2) or (3) of section five to reject his application for the registration of a private vocational or technical training institution; or
- (b) in terms of subsection (2) of section six to cancel the registration of his private vocational or technical training institution;

may, within fourteen days of the notification thereof, by notice in writing setting out his reasons, appeal to the Minister against the decision of the Director.

(2) The minister may on a appeal in terms of subsection (1) confirm the decision of the Director or make such other decision as, in his opinion, the Director should have made, and any such decision shall be deemed to be the decision of the Director.

(3) Any person who is dissatisfied with any decision of the Minister in terms of subsection (2) may, within thirty days of notification thereof, appeal to the Administrative Court.

- (4) The noting of an appeal in terms of paragraph (b) of subsection (1) or subsection (3) shall suspend the effect of the decision against which the appeal is made.

8. Subject to the provisions of subsection (4) of section seven, no person shall continue to conduct, maintain or manage a private vocational or technical training institution if the Director has, in terms of subsection (2) of section six, notified the proprietor thereof in writing that he has cancelled the registration of such institution.

Prohibition of further operations after cancellation of registration.

9. Notwithstanding the provisions of any law or agreement to contract, where the Director cancels the registration of any private vocational or technical training institution in terms of subsection (2) of section six, any student who has paid any fee for education or training at such an institution, or for lodging at any hostel or other boarding facility provided by such an institution, shall be entitled to recover such fee or, as the case may be, such part thereof as represents to the total fee paid.

Refund of fees paid to private vocational or technical training institution.

10. The principal of a private vocational training institution shall –

- (a) maintain and furnish to the Director, at his request, such particulars of the training given at the institution as the Director may in writing require; and
- (b) keep a register of the lecturers or instructors employed at the institution showing their qualifications and experience, if any, and such other records relating thereto as may be prescribed or as the Director in writing may require.

Duty of principals of private vocational or technical training institutions to maintain certain records.

11. The Director or any person authorized in that behalf in writing by the Director may, at any reasonable time, visit and inspect any private vocational or technical training institution, or any hostel or premises whatsoever at or attaching to such institution, other than accommodation provided for members of staff, where the Director or the person authorized by him has reasonable grounds for believing that the visit or inspection is necessary -

Powers of inspection of private vocational or technical training institutions.

- (a) for protecting the rights of persons attending thereat to the education, training or accommodation for the provision of which the institution has been registered in terms of this Act; or
- (b) for the prevention, investigation or detection of any contravention of this Act.

12. No person shall give training at a private vocational or technical training institution in any designated trade unless the institution is licensed by the Registrar for that purpose in such form and subject to such conditions as may be prescribed.

Restriction of training in designated trades by private vocational or technical training institutions.

## PART II

### NATIONAL MANPOWER ADVISORY COUNCIL

13. (1) there is hereby established a body to be known as the National Manpower Advisory Council.

Establishment  
of Council

(2) The Council shall consist of -

- (a) a chairman; and
- (b) a vice-chairman; and
- (c) not more than thirteen and not less than ten other members;

who shall be appointed by the Minister for their expertise and interest in national manpower development.

(3) The members of the Council shall be appointed after consultation with such-

- (a) employer and employee organisations;
  - (b) Government departments;
  - (c) Statutory bodies, including local authorities;
  - (d) Vocational, technical and professional groups or bodies;
- As the Minister may determine.

(4) A member of the Council shall hold office for such period, not exceeding five years, and on such terms and conditions as may be fixed by the Minister at the time of his appointment.

(5) A person ceasing to be a member of the Council shall be eligible for reappointment to the Council.

(6) A member of the Council who is not in the full-time employment of the State or a statutory body shall be paid out of the Fund such remuneration and allowances as the Minister may, after consultation with the Minister responsible for finance, fix for members of the Council, generally.

14. The Minister shall not appoint a person as a member of the Council and no person shall be qualified to hold office as a member who -

Disqualifications for  
appointment to Council.

- (a) is not a citizen of Zimbabwe, unless he has a right of residence in Zimbabwe for a period of not less than two years whether by virtue of a permit or otherwise; or
- (b) has in terms of a law in force in any country -
  - (i) been adjudged or otherwise declared insolvent or bankrupt and has not been rehabilitated or discharged; or

- (ii) made an assignment to or arrangement or composition with his creditors which has not been rescinded or set aside; or
- (c) has been convicted of an offence involving dishonesty.

15. A member of the Council shall vacate his office and his office shall become vacant

Vacation of office by member of Council.

- (a) one month after the date he gives notice in writing to the Minister of his intention to resign his office or after the expiration of such shorter period as he and the Minister may agree; or
- (c) on the date he is convicted of an offence involving dishonesty; or
- (d) if he becomes disqualified in terms of paragraph (a) or (b) of section fourteen to hold office as a member; or
- (e) if he is required in terms of section sixteen to vacate his office; or
- (f) if he is absent from three consecutive meetings of the Council of which he has had notice, without the permission of the Council.

16. (1) The Minister may require a member of the Council to vacate his office if the member -

Minister may require member to vacate office or suspend him.

- (a) has been guilty of any conduct which renders him unsuitable as a member; or
- (b) has failed to comply with any term or condition of his office fixed by the Minister in terms of subsection (4) of section thirteen; or
- (c) has ceased to represent anything or to possess any qualification by reason of which he was appointed; or
- (d) is mentally or physically incapable of efficiently performing his duties as a member.

(2) The Minister may suspend from office a member of the Council against whom criminal proceedings are instituted for an offence involving dishonesty and, whilst that member is so suspended, he shall not carry out any duties or be entitled to any remuneration or allowances as a member.

17. On the death of, or the vacation of office by, a member of the Council, the Minister may, subject to the provisions of section thirteen, appoint a person to fill the vacancy until the expiration of the period during which the member would, but for his death or the vacation of his office, have continued in office.

Filling of vacancies.

18. (1) The Council shall hold its first meeting on such date and at such place as the Minister may fix and thereafter the Council shall meet for the dispatch of business at such place and time as the chairman may direct.

Meetings and procedure of Council.

(2) The chairman of the Council may himself at any time and shall, at the request in writing of not less than two members, convene a special meeting of

the Council, which meeting shall be convened for a date not less than seven days or more than thirty days after the receipt of such request.

- (5) If, at a meeting of the Council, the chairman and the vice-chairman are both absent, the members present may elect one of their number to preside at that meeting as chairman.
- (6) A majority of members shall form a quorum at a meeting of the Council.
- (7) All acts, matters or things authorized or required to be done by the Council may be decided by a majority vote at a meeting of the Council at which a quorum is present.
- (8) At all meetings of the Council each member present shall have one vote and, in the event of an equality of votes, the person presiding shall have, in addition, a casting vote.
- (9) The Council may, with the approval of the Minister, co-opt any person to the Council, but a co-opted person shall have no vote in any decision by the Council.
- (10) Subject to the provisions of this section, the Council may regulate its own procedure.

19. (1) For the better exercise of its functions and powers the Council, with the approval of the Minister, may establish one or more committees in which may be vested and on which may be imposed such of the functions and powers of the Council as the Council, with the approval of the Minister, may direct:

Committees of  
Council.

Provided that the vesting in, or imposition on, a committee of any such functions and powers shall not thereby divest the Council of such functions and powers and the Council may amend or rescind any decision of any such committee in the exercise of its functions and powers.

- (2) The chairman of the Council or of a committee may at any time and at any place convene a meeting of that committee.
- (3) The procedure of a committee shall be fixed by the Council.
- (4) On the establishment of a committee the Council –
  - (a) may appoint to that committee persons who are not members of the Council.
  - (b) Shall appoint to that committee at least one member of the Council who shall be the chairman of the committee.
- (5) A member of a committee who is not in full-time employment of the State or a statutory body shall be paid out of the Fund such remuneration and allowances as the Minister may, after consultation with the Minister responsible for finance, fix for members of the committee, generally.

20. (1) The Council shall advise the Minister on any matter affecting national manpower development referred to it by the Minister and may, on its own initiative, investigate and make recommendations to the Minister on any matter connected with national manpower development or with administration of this Act.

Functions of Council.

(2) Without prejudice to the generality of the provisions of subsection (1), the advisory function of the Council may relate to –

- (a) the establishment and maintenance by the Minister of such schemes for manpower development as will ensure an adequate supply of trained manpower for industry and for all trades and occupations in Zimbabwe;
- (b) measures to improve national manpower development programmes;
- (c) techniques for detecting in advance the possible impact on any trade or occupation of technological developments;
- (d) conditions or requirements for the establishment and conduct of vocational or technical training institutions and the employers for apprenticeship training;
- (e) the designation of trades for the purposes of this Act;
- (f) standards for the certification of skilled worker qualifications and for the recognition of qualifications or levels of competence;
- (g) the standardisation of training programmes and examinations for the purposes of any trade or industry;
- (h) the selection of persons wishing to be trained at Government vocational or technical training or research institutions;
- (i) the imposition and collection of any levy referred to in section twenty-four;
- (j) promoting and mobilizing support for the manpower development programmes of the Government, including the organisation of an annual congress of representatives of such manpower development institutions and agencies as the Minister may approve.

21. (1) Where the Council considers the rules, regulations or criteria, by whatever name called, relating to the admission to practice in any profession, whether governed by an enactment or otherwise, as too restrictive in relation to the manpower requirements of Zimbabwe, the Council may make recommendations in writing to the Minister and the professional body concerned in regard to the alleviation of the problem, including recommendations for the admission of such additional class or classes of persons as the Council may consider necessary or desirable.

Guidance of professional bodies in respect of national manpower requirements.

(2) in making any recommendations in terms of subsection (1) the Council shall take into account the professional competence, skills and qualifications which would otherwise be required for admission to practice in the profession concerned and the relevant competence, skill or qualifications of the class or classes of persons it proposes should be admitted to practice or, as the case may be, should be admitted to engage in any limited form of practice in the profession concerned.

(3) Not later than two months after receiving any recommendations in terms of this section from the Council or from the Minister, the professional body concerned shall submit to the administration of the appropriate enactment concerned, if any, a report on the matter indicating whether or not it is prepared to take measures to give effect to the recommendations and the nature of such measures.

22. (1) The Council shall cause minutes of all proceedings of an decisions taken at any meeting of the Council or of a committee of the Council to be entered in books kept for the purpose.

Minutes of  
proceedings  
of Council  
and ...

(2) Any minutes referred to in subsection (1) which purport to be signed by the chairman of the meeting to which the minutes relate or by the chairman of the next following meeting of the Council or the committee concerned, as the case may be, shall be accepted for all purposes as prima facie evidence of the proceedings of an decisions taken at the meeting concerned.

### PART III

#### ZIMBABWE MANPOWER DEVELOPMENT FUND

23. (1) there is hereby established a fund to be known as the Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund.

Establishment of Fund.

(2) The Fund shall consist of -

- (a) such moneys as may be raised by any levy imposed in terms of section twenty-four; and
- (b) such moneys as may be payable to the Fund from moneys appropriated by Parliament for the purposes of the Fund; and
- (c) advances made to the Fund in terms o subsection (4); and
- (d) any other moneys to which the Fund may be lawfully entitled, including -

- (i) any moneys accruing from the sale of any articles in terms of section forty-eight;
- (ii) any moneys accruing from the enforcement of the financial obligations of any bond imposed in terms of paragraph (g) of subsection (2) of section fifty-three;
- (iii) fees payable for any examination conducted or held with moneys from the Fund;
- (iv) gifts from any person.

(3) The Fund shall be vested in the Minister and, subject to the provisions of this Act, shall be administered in accordance with his directions, which directions shall include-

- (a) the preparation of an annual-

- (i) capital budget for the approval of the Minister after consultation with the Minister responsible for finance; and
    - (ii) revenue and current expenditure budget for the approval of the Minister;
  - (b) the submission of annual reports on the Fund, copies of which shall be submitted to the Comptroller and Auditor –General.
  - (4) The Minister responsible for finance may, out of moneys appropriated for that purpose by Parliament, advance to the Fund, upon such terms, including interest, as he may determine, moneys sufficient to meet any deficiencies in the Fund.
  - (5) Subject to the provisions of this Act, the objects for which the Fund is established shall be the development of skilled manpower for Zimbabwe.
24. (1) The Minister may, on the advice of the Council, and the approval of the Minister responsible for finance, by notice in the Gazette, impose a levy on such employers as may be specified in the notice. Levies
- (2) A levy may be-
    - (a) a per capita amount on the employees of the employer concerned; or
    - (b) a sum equal to such percentage of the total wage-bill or such portion of the total wage-bill of the employers referred to in subsection (1);
 as may be specified in the notice referred to in subsection (1)
  - (3) A levy in terms of subsection (1) shall be paid by the employer concerned and shall not be recoverable in full or in part, directly or indirectly, from the remuneration of any of his employees.
  - (4) For the purpose of this section-
    - “employee” in paragraph (a) of subsection (2) does not include an apprentice;
    - “wage-bill” in paragraph (b) of subsection (2) includes –
      - (i) salaries and wages
      - (ii) cash in lieu of rations;
      - (iii) any bonuses paid in terms of a contract of service or for work performed;
      - (iv) cost of living, housing, education, climatic and other allowances of a like nature;
      - (v) leave pay;
      - (vi) a commission;
      - (vii) the value of free food, free quarters, including rent paid on behalf of any employee, electricity, water and any other remuneration in kind.
25. (1) Whenever a levy is imposed, each employer liable thereto shall, in accordance with the notice imposing such levy, pay the amount due from him in the specified manner and at the specified time or times. Payment of levy by employers.

(2) A levy shall be a debt due to the fund and may be recovered by action in any court of competent jurisdiction at the suit of the Minister.

26. (1) The Minister shall cause proper books of accounts of the Fund to be kept together with adequate financial and other records in relation thereto and shall within three months after the end of the financial year to which the accounts relate, arrange for the submission of such accounts to the Comptroller and Auditor-General for audit.

Accounts and audit of fund.

(2) The financial year of the Fund shall be the period of twelve months ending on the 30<sup>th</sup> June in each year or on such other date as may be prescribed.

(3) The Comptroller and Auditor –General shall, as soon as possible after the receipt by him of any accounts submitted to him in terms of subsection (1), audit such accounts and shall, in relation thereto, have the powers conferred upon him by the Audit and Exchequer Act (Chapter 168) in relation to the audit of public moneys.

27. (1) All moneys received on behalf of the Fund shall be paid into a banking account and no money may be withdrawn there-from except by means of cheques signed by such persons as are authorized in that behalf by the Minister.

Holding of Fund

(2) Any part of the Fund not immediately required for the purposes of the Fund may be invested in such manner as the Minister , with the approval of the Minister responsible for finance, may determine.

28. (1) The Minister may authorize payments from the Fund for-

Disbursements from Fund.

- (a) bursaries, loans or advances to apprentices and other approved trainees for training purposes;
- (b) wages and allowances of apprentices and other approved trainees;
- (c) costs and out-of-pocket expenses incurred by apprentices and other approved trainees in connection with courses and examinations in terms of this Act.
- (d) prizes for success by apprentices and other approved trainees in any courses and examinations in terms of this Act;
- (e) the cost of conducting such examinations as may be specified by the Minister;
- (f) the hire of trainers and instructors in connection with manpower development schemes for the purposes of this Act, including their salaries and allowances and the making of loans and advances to such trainers and instructors.
- (h) grants to such registered employers and private vocational or technical training institutions for the promotion of such manpower development programmes as the Minister may direct;

- (i) the remuneration or allowances of members of the Council or committees;
- (j) meeting the expenses of promoting and mobilizing support for manpower development programmes including the annual congress referred to in paragraph (j) of subsection (2) of section twenty;
- (k) any other costs involved in the establishment and maintenance of any scheme for manpower development for the purposes of this Act, including the acquisition of land, equipment and other assets, and the construction of buildings.

(2) The Minister may authorize payment out of the Fund to meet any reasonable and necessary expenses arising from the maintenance of the Fund.

(3) In this section-

“approved trainees” means persons undergoing such vocational or technical training as may be prescribed.

#### PART IV

##### APPRENTICESHIP TRAINING AND SKILLED MANPOWER CERTIFICATION

29. (1) The Minister may, after considering the advice of the Council, if any, by notice in the Gazette declare to be a designated trade any trade-

Designation of trades.

- (a) which he considers apprenticeship in terms of this Act; or
- (b) in respect of which the provisions of this Act shall otherwise apply in such manner as may be prescribed.

(2) A notice in terms of subsection (1) may, in relation to apprenticeship in the trade concerned, prescribe-

- (a) the period of the apprenticeship;
- (b) the qualifications and educational standard required for the apprenticeship which the Minister may deem necessary or expedient to prescribe.

30. (1) Where any trade has been declared to be a designated trade any person who wishes to become an apprentice in that trade and who is-

Recruitment of persons for apprenticeship

- (a) not less than sixteen years of age; and
- (b) a citizen of Zimbabwe;

may apply to the Registrar, in the prescribed form and manner, for recruitment

(2) After receipt of an application in terms of subsection (1) the Registrar, shall, as soon as may be -

- (a) consider the application; and
- (b) recruit or, as the case may be, refuse to recruit the applicant;

in terms of the qualifications, conditions and other requirements prescribed for apprenticeship in that trade.

(3) Every applicant shall be notified by the Registrar, as soon as may be, after a decision has been taken on his application.

(4) The Minister may, where he is satisfied that it is in the public interest so to do, by notice in the Gazette, exempt from the application of paragraph (b) of subsection (1) such persons who are not citizens of Zimbabwe as he may specify in the notice.

31. (1) An employer who wishes to employ any person as an apprentice in a designated trade shall apply to the Registrar in the prescribed form and manner for registration stating, among other matters, the number of apprentices he is prepared to employ during the period of twelve months following the date of the application or renewed thereof.

Registration of employers.

(2) After receipt of an application in terms of subsection (1) the Registrar shall -

- (a) if he is satisfied that -
  - (i) the employer is a suitable person for registration; and
  - (ii) the training offered will be suitable for apprenticeship;

register the employer ; and

- (b) if he is not satisfied in regard to any requirement specified in subparagraph (i) or (ii) of paragraph (a), refuse to register the employer.

32. (1) The Registrar shall assign every person recruited in terms of section thirty for indenture to such registered employer as the Registrar may deem appropriate;

Assignment of employees to employers.

Provided that in determining whether any registered employer is appropriate for the purposes of subsection (1) the Registrar shall take into account any reasonable request made by the person recruited to be assigned to a registered employer of his choice or, as the case may be, any reasonable request made by the registered employer for the assignment to him of any recruited person of his choice.

(2) A person recruited in terms of section thirty may be indentured to the Ministry but may at any time be assigned to any registered employer for such practical training as the Registrar may deem appropriate and subject to such terms and conditions as may be prescribed.

(3) The Registrar shall keep and maintain a register in which shall be registered the particulars of -

- (a) every person recruited in terms of section thirty, and
- (b) the registered employer to whom he is assigned in terms of this section; and
- (c) the contract of apprenticeship between the person assigned and the registered employer.

(4) As from the date of commencement of this Act no employer shall take into his employment any person as an apprentice unless such person has been recruited in terms of section thirty and has been assigned by the Registrar in terms of this section.

(5) An apprentice may not leave the employment of one registered employer for another except with the written consent of the registrar.

33. (1) No contract of apprenticeship entered into as from the date of commencement of this Act shall be binding unless -

Contracts of apprenticeship.

- (a) it is in the prescribed form; and
- (b) it has been signed by the apprentice and, if a minor, by his guardian as well; and
- (c) it has been signed by or on behalf of the registered employer; and
- (d) it has been registered in terms of subsection (3) of section *thirty-two*.

(2) A contract of apprenticeship shall be lodged for registration by the apprentice and the Registrar shall, upon the registration of the contract, notify the apprentice and the employer of the registration in such form and manner as may be prescribed.

(3) Nothing in subsection (1) shall be construed as precluding a contract of apprenticeship from being treated as void or avoidable, as the case may be, on any ground or circumstance of law where such ground or circumstance is applicable.

(4) A contract of apprenticeship shall not be registered unless it complies with the provisions of paragraphs (a), (b) and (c) of subsection (1) and complies with such other requirements as may be prescribed.

(5) The Minister may prohibit or order the cancellation of the registration of a contract of apprenticeship if he has reasonable grounds to believe that the apprentice is unlikely to fulfill the obligations of the contract or any bond relating thereto, because of the likelihood of his emigrating from Zimbabwe.

34. Where an apprentice -

- (a) is locked out or lawfully goes on strike; or
- (b) because of a lawful strike or lockout affecting his employer's establishment or place of business, is unable to work for the duration of the strike or lockout;

Contract of apprenticeship not affected by lawful strike or lockout.

he or his employer shall not be deemed to have broken the contract of apprenticeship between them.

35. The registrar may, when registering a contract of apprenticeship, take account of and grant to the apprentice concerned credit for such previous training or experience which the apprentice may have in the trade to which the contract relates but such credit may not reduce the period of apprenticeship to a period that is less than one year.

Credit for previous training or experience.

36. (1) The Registrar may extend the period of apprenticeship if in his opinion –

Extension of period of apprenticeship.

- (a) there has been some time lost by an apprentice for reasons, other than leave, which warrant such extension; or
- (b) the additional time would afford the apprentice a useful opportunity to attain the requisite standard of proficiency in his trade:

Provided that the period of such extension may, in the case of paragraph (a), not exceed the time lost.

(2) The Registrar shall notify in writing all the parties to a contract of the terms of the extension made in terms of subsection shall be endorsed on the contract.

Registrar's powers to inspect and obtain information.

37. For the purpose of carrying out his functions in terms of this Act, the Registrar or any person authorized by him in writing may, at any reasonable time -

- (a) enter any establishment and inspect the premises and training facilities of any employer if the Registrar or the person authorized by him has reasonable grounds for believing that the entry or inspection is necessary for the prevention, investigation or detection of any contravention of any provision of this Act.
- (b) require an employer to make full disclosure and demand the production of all books, payrolls and other records and extracts there from or copies thereof that the employer may have in his possession or control, or other information, either oral or written and whether verified by oath or otherwise, that may in any way relate to the wage, hours of labour or conditions of employment of any person employed by him.
- (c) Take extracts from or make copies of any entry in any books, payrolls and records referred to in paragraph (b).

38. (1) Subject to the consent of the Registrar, and to any conditions which the Registrar may impose, any registered employer who is unable to train an apprentice in certain aspects of the trade in which he is indentured may transfer such apprentice and the contract relating to him to another registered employer who has the requisite facilities.

Transfer, modification, and rescission of contracts.

(2) A contract of apprenticeship may be by the Registrar –

- (a) on the application of either party, if the Registrar is satisfied that it is proper or expedient to do so; or
- (b) where the Registrar is satisfied that any of the terms of the contract cannot be fulfilled to the advantage of either party.

(3) A contract of apprenticeship may be modified by the Registrar on the application of either party, where the Registrar is satisfied that such modification will be beneficial to or enhance the performance of such contract.

(4) The Registrar may, in regard to any contract of apprenticeship, make such other arrangements or take such other steps as may be necessary or advisable in the circumstances.

(5) Any consent of the Registrar to a transfer of a contract of apprenticeship, and any rescission or modification of a contract of apprenticeship made by the Registrar, shall be endorsed on the contract by the Registrar and noted in the register kept in terms of section thirty-two.

39. Not later than fourteen days after the completion of any contract of apprenticeship the employer shall complete and sign the certificate of completion on all available copies of the contract and lodge them with the Registrar who shall –

Completion of contract of apprenticeship.

- (a) note the completion on all the available copies of the contract and in the register kept in terms of section thirty-two;
- (b) return the original contract to the apprentice to be held by him as his property and a copy to the registered employer for his retention;
- (c) issue a certificate of apprenticeship to the apprentice -
  - (i) certifying that the apprentice has completed his contract of apprenticeship; and
  - (ii) showing details of any examinations which the apprentice has taken and the results thereof.

Provided that the Registrar may refuse to return the copies of any contract of apprenticeship lodged with him in terms of this section or to issue the certificate of apprenticeship referred to in paragraph (c) if he is satisfied that such a course of action is necessary to ensure compliance by an apprentice with any obligation of any bond relating to the contract.

40. (1) The Registrar may, upon application, issue a certificate of skilled worker qualification to any person who –

Certification of skilled worker qualifications.

- (a) has completed a contract of apprenticeship in terms of this Act; or
- (b) has completed any other form of apprenticeship or training recognised by the Registrar as being of a standard equivalent to the scheme of apprenticeship in terms of this Act; or

- (c) has, in the opinion of the registrar, attained a standard of competence equivalent by the Registrar, has passed an examination determined by the Registrar;

Provided that the registrar may withhold the issue of a certificate in terms of this subsection unless he is satisfied that the applicant has completed in Zimbabwe such period of employment in a designated trade as may be prescribed.

(2) An application for certification in terms of this section shall be in such form and manner and shall be accompanied by such fee as may be prescribed.

(3) In granting recognition to any form of apprenticeship or training in terms of paragraph (b), or to any level of competence in terms of paragraph (c), of subsection (1) the Registrar may take into consideration any advice given by the Council in terms of section twenty.

(4) Notwithstanding the provisions of any other law, any person certified as a skilled worker in any designated trade in terms of this Act shall not be required to take any examination or test relating to his aptitude or skill in that trade for the purposes of any license or permit required to be held or obtained by persons engaged in that trade.

41. (1) Subject to the provisions of subsection (2), the Registrar may, by notification in the Gazette, cancel or suspend any certificate of skilled worker qualification issued in terms of this Act where the Registrar has reasonable grounds for believing that the competence of the holder has fallen below the standards represented by the certificate.

Cancellation and suspension of certificate of qualification.

(2) Before canceling or suspending any certificate in terms of subsection (1), the Registrar shall serve or cause to be served on the holder of the certificate a notice information the holder that –

- (a) he proposes to cancel or, as the case may be, to suspend the certificate in terms of subsection (1) for reasons which he shall state; and
- (b) the holder may, within fourteen days of the service of the notice or such longer period as the registrar may allow, make representations to the Registrar against the proposed cancellation or suspension.

(3) If the Registrar is not satisfied by any representations made by the holder of the certificate or the holder does not make any representation within the time referred to in paragraph (b) of subsection (2) the Registrar may cancel or, as the case may be, suspend the certificate;

Provided that when canceling or suspending a certificate the Registrar may specify a course of remedial training upon the satisfactory completion of which the Registrar shall reinstate the certificate.

42. (1) Subject to the provisions of subsection (3), person shall work in a designated trade unless he

Employment in designated trades.

- (a) is the holder of a certificate of apprenticeship or a certificate of skilled worker qualification in the designated trade concerned; or
- (b) is indentured in terms of this Act as an apprentice in the designated trade concerned; or
- (c) is a holder of a certificate stating that he has satisfied the Registrar that he has been continuously employed as a skilled worker in the designated trade concerned for a period of time in excess of the apprenticeship period prescribed for that trade; or
- (d) is the holder of a certificate stating that he has satisfied the Registrar that he is competent to work in the designated trade concerning and meets such other requirements as may be prescribed; or
- (e) is the holder of a certificate issued by the Registrar stating that he is undergoing a form of technical training approved in terms of this Act.

(2) Subject to the provisions of subsection (3), no person shall employ any person in a designated trade unless that person is qualified as specified in paragraph (a), (b), (c), (d) or (e) of subsection (1) in respect of the designated trade concerned.

(3) The provisions of subsection (1) and (2) shall not apply in relation to –

- (a) any person working in a designated trade as part of the requirement for practical training in any field of study or training; or
- (b) any person who immediately before the date of commencement of this Act was working in a designated trade if within thirty days of such commencement he has applied, in the form and manner prescribed, for apprenticeship in the designated trade concerned, until his application is determined.

43. (1) Any person aggrieved by any decision of the Registrar –

Appeals from  
decisions of  
Registrar.

- (a) refusing –
  - (i) to recruit him in terms of section thirty; or
  - (ii) to register him as an employer in terms of section thirty-one; or
  - (iii) to certify him as a skilled worker in terms of section forty
 or
- (b) assign him for indenture to any employer or, as the case may be, assigning to him any person as an apprentice, in terms of section *thirty-two*; or
- (c) canceling or suspending his certificate of skilled worker qualification in terms of section forty-one;

may, within thirty days of the notification thereof, by notice in writing setting out his reasons, appeal to the Minister against the decision of the Registrar.

(2) The Minister may on an appeal in terms of subsection (1) confirm the decision of the Registrar or make such other decision as, in his opinion, the Registrar should have made.

(3) Any person who is dissatisfied with any decision of the Minister in terms of subsection (2) may, within thirty days of the notification thereof, appeal to the Administrative Court.

(4) The noting of an appeal, whether from a decision of the Registrar or the Minister, in respect of any matter referred to in paragraph (b) or (c) of subsection (1), shall suspend the effect of the decision concerned.

## PART V

### MANPOWER RESEARCH AND PLANNING

44. (1) the Minister may, after consultation with the Minister responsible for finance, by notice in the Gazette direct that a manpower survey be conducted, on such date or during such period as he may specify in the notice.

Manpower survey  
and statistics.

(2) A manpower survey shall be in respect of –

- (a) the manpower resources of Zimbabwe;
- (b) the type of establishment in which the manpower resources are utilised;
- (c) the capital investment and output of any establishment;
- (d) the training facilities of any establishment;
- (e) the earning of employers and employees;
- (f) actual and potential sources of manpower requirements
- (g) any other particulars or information relating to manpower research and planning;

which the Minister may deem fit to prescribe

(3) A notice in terms of subsection (1) may also direct to be collected, compiled, analysed or abstracted, subject to such conditions as the Minister may deem necessary or expedient to prescribe, such statistical information as may relate to, or facilitate the making of any manpower projections.

(4) The director of Manpower Survey shall be responsible for carrying out any director in any notice made in terms of subsection (1) and for reporting thereon to the Minister.

(5) Where the conditions referred to in subsection (3) have been prescribed, the Director of Manpower Survey ay on his own initiative but with the approval of the Minister in writing, organize the collection of any statistical information referred to in subsection (3)

45. (1) Whenever a survey is being conducted in terms of subsection (1) of section forty-four or statistics are being collected in terms of subsection (3) of section forty-four, the Director of Manpower Survey or any officer authorized in that behalf by him may require any person from whom any relevant information may lawfully be obtained, to supply such information.

Power to obtain  
information.

(2) Any person required in terms of subsection (1) to supply any information shall give all such particulars in such manner and within such time as may be required by the Director of Manpower Survey or by the officer authorized by him or as may be prescribed.

(3) An officer authorized in terms of subsection (1) may require any person to supply him with particulars either by interviewing such person personally or by leaving at the last-known address of such person a form having thereon a notice requiring the form to be filled up and returned in such manner and within such time as may be specified by the notice.

(4) Any information obtained during the conduct of a survey or the collection of any statistics in terms of this Act shall be confidential in nature and shall not be disclosed to any person except in such form or manner as may be prescribed.

46. (1) for the purpose of carrying out his functions in terms of this Act, the Director of Manpower Survey or any person authorised in that behalf in writing by him may, at all reasonable times and for any purpose reasonably connected with the conduct of any survey in terms of subsection (1) of section forty-four or the collection of statistics in terms of subsection (3) of section forty-four, enter and inspect any premises and may make such enquiries as he may consider necessary or desirable.

Powers of entry.

(2) Any person entering any premises pursuant to the provisions of subsection (1) shall produce evidence of his identity, if required to do so by the owner, employer or other person in charge of such premises and may not enter without the consent of such owner, employer or other person in charge unless he has reason to believe that the entry is necessary for the prevention, investigation or detection of a contravention of any provision of the Act.

## PART VI

### GENERAL

47. (1) For the purposes of carrying out the functions assigned to such officers in terms of this Act, there shall be –

Officials

- (a) a Director of Vocational and technical training; and
- (b) a registrar of Apprenticeship and Skilled Manpower; and
- (c) a Director of Manpower Survey;

whose offices shall be public offices and form part of the Public Service.

(2) In addition to the functions assigned to such officers specifically by any provision of this Act, the officers referred to in subsection (1) may be assigned other functions by the Minister.

(3) There shall also be such number of –

- (a) There shall also be such number of –
- (b) Assistant directors; and
- (c) Assistant registrars; and
- (d) Inspections;

as may be required, whose offices shall be public offices and form part of the Public Service.

(4) An assistant director, assistant registrar or inspector shall, when performing any functions of a Director or, as the case may be, the Registrar, be subject to the direction of such Director or the Registrar.

48. Where any articles produced by persons either in the course of attendance at any Government vocational or technical training institution or for the purpose of any examinations in terms of this Act are sold, the proceeds of such sale shall be paid into the Fund if the materials from which such articles are produced were provided out of the Fund.

Sale of products of practical training.

49. (1) The Minister may, after consultation with the Minister responsible for education, establish and maintain out of moneys appropriated for the purpose by Parliament or otherwise placed at his disposal by the State, such scholarship schemes as the Minister may deem necessary or desirable for the purposes of manpower development.

Establishment and administration of Government scholarships.

(2) Any scholarship scheme established in terms of subsection (1) shall be –

- (a) administered in accordance with the directions of the Minister and may provide for the bonding to the State under such conditions as may be prescribed, of any person who receives any scholarship under such scheme;
- (b) assessed and reviewed from time to time against the national manpower development policy.

50. (1) Any person who –

Offences and penalties.

- (a) conducts, maintains or manages a private vocational or technical training institution contrary to section four or continues to operate such institution after the cancellation of the registration of such an institution; or
- (b) being a proprietor or principal of a private vocational or technical training institution, without license from the Registrar, gives, offers to give or permits to be given any training at such an institution in any designated trade; or
- (c) employs any person as an apprentice contrary to the provisions of subsection (4) of section thirty-two; or
- (d) induces any apprentice to leave the employment of any registered employer without the consent of the Registrar; or
- (e) obstructs, hinders or resists any person in the performance of any function in terms of section eleven, thirty-seven or forty-six; or
- (f) refuses or fails to produce any books, payrolls or such other records as are referred to in paragraph (b) of section thirty-seven; or
- (g) in response to any reasonable request for information made by any person which such person may lawfully make in terms of this Act makes any false statement which he knows to be false or which he has no reason to believe to be true; or
- (h) discloses any information contrary to section forty-five; shall be guilty of an offence and liable to a fine not exceeding two thousand dollars or to imprisonment for a period not exceeding two years or to both such fine and such imprisonment.

(2) In the case of a continuing offence, in terms of subsection (1) it shall be lawful for the court to impose any additional penalty in terms of any day the offence has continued, and the conviction for such an offence shall not be a bar to further prosecutions for that offence.

51. In respect of vocational or technical training, any person providing any vocation or technical training of any description whatsoever in any institution, other than training which is exempted by this Act or by the Minister in terms of subsection (2) of section two shall be deemed to be conducting a vocational or technical training institution, unless the contrary is proved.

Presumption.

52. In any proceedings relating to an offence in terms of this Act. A certificate purporting to be signed by any person stating facts, obtained from records which are by law required to be in the custody of such person, or known to such person in his official capacity may, on its mere production by the prosecutor, be admissible as prima facie evidence of the facts stated therein.

Certificate as evidence

53. (1) The Minister may make regulations prescribing anything which in terms of this Act is to be prescribed or which in his opinion is necessary or convenient to be prescribed or which in his opinion is necessary or convenient to be prescribed for carrying out or giving effect to the provisions of this Act.

Regulations.

(2) Without prejudice to the generality of subsection (1) regulations made there-under may provide for –

- (a) the conditions of enrolment, discipline and conditions of hostel accommodation of students at any Government vocational or technical training institution, and the terms and conditions of attendance at any institution, and the terms and conditions of attendance at any institution for the training and research in advanced technology;
- (b) the establishment of advisory councils for Government vocational or technical training institutions or groups of institutions including their functions, powers and procedures and the payment of such allowances, as may be necessary, to members of such councils in the performance of their functions and duties;
- (c) the establishment, equipment and maintenance of private vocational or technical training institutions, the standards for admission of students and the staffing of such institutions, the control of fees chargeable and the courses and examinations that may be conducted, at such institutions;
- (d) the payment of grants and any other moneys out of the Fund;
- (e) the approval of apprenticeship training programmes established by employers;
- (f) the ratio of apprentices to skilled workers who may be employed by a registered employer in a designated trade or in any industry, the maximum hours of work for apprentices, minimum rates of wages and scales of increases of wages of apprentices, the granting of allowances to apprentices and the discipline of apprentices;
- (g) the bonding of apprentices;

- (h) the making registration, transfer, modification, rescission or completion of contracts of apprenticeship and the rights and duties of the parties to such contracts;
- (i) the forms and certificates and other related matters in terms of the Act;
- (j) the fees for examinations, certificates and other related matters in terms of this Act;
- (k) the survey and collection of statistics on manpower resources of Zimbabwe in any category, profession, trade, skill or other field of employment.

54. (1) The following enactments are repealed –

Repeals  
savings.

and

- (a) the Apprenticeship Training and Skilled Manpower Development Act (chapter 266).
- (b) The Vocational Education and training Act, 1978 (No. 33 of 1978).

(2) Notwithstanding the repeals by subsection (1) –

- (a) the exemptions provided in section 3 of the Apprenticeship Training and Skilled Manpower Development Act (Chapter 266) and section 2 of the Vocational Education and Training Act, 1978 (No 33 of 1978) shall continue in force until revoked or otherwise amended in terms of this Act.
- (b) Any statutory instrument made in terms of any of the repealed enactments and in force immediately before the date of commencement of this Act shall continue in force and shall be deemed to have made in terms of this Act;
- (c) Any certificate of registration of an independent college in terms of the Vocational Education and Training Act, 1978 (No.33 of 1978) and in force immediately before the date of commencement of this Act shall remain valid as if issued for a private vocational or technical training institution in terms of this Act
- (d) Any moneys remaining in, and any investments made for the purposes of, any fund established in terms of any of the repealed enactments, shall be transferred to the Fund together with such liabilities or obligation as may be attaching thereto;
- (e) Any contracts of apprenticeship registered in terms of the Apprenticeship training and Skilled Manpower Development; Act (Chapter 266) and subsisting immediately before the date of commencement of this Act shall be deemed to have been registered in terms of the relevant provision of this Act;
- (f) Any certificate of apprenticeship issued in terms of the Apprenticeship Training and Skilled Manpower Development Act (Chapter 266) and subsisting immediately before the date of commencement of this Act shall be deemed to have been issued in terms of the relevant provision of this act.
- (g) Any proceedings commenced in relation to –
  - (i) any contract of apprenticeship in terms of the Apprenticeship and Skilled Manpower Development Act (Chapter 266); or

- (ii) any independent college in terms of the Vocational Education and training Act, 1978 (No. 33 of 1978);

and pending immediately before the date of commencement of this Act may be continued in terms the relevant provisions of this Act.

**END**