FORGING A STRATEGIC PARTNERSHIP TO BOOST
PRODUCTIVITY AND EMPLOYABILITY: THE
CHANGING ROLE OF THE GOVERNMENT AND THE
PRIVATE SECTOR IN PROVIDING VOCATIONAL
EDUCATION AND TRAINING IN ZIMBABWE

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DEDICATIONS

This research paper is dedicated to my wife, Susan
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I thank God for his providence and guidance throughout my life. There is a Cuban saying that goes, “Every time society has an itch, schools are expected to scratch it”. This proverbial statement centrally places education as a critical cog of the wheel of social development.

I have always had a flair for contributing to generation of knowledge in my small way for the betterment of society and my career development first as a Teacher and later as a Training Officer accorded me the opportunity to walk my talk. As I matured and gathered more experience in the world of education and training, the urge to draw more inspiration from the fountain of knowledge became unquenchable. I became more and more thirsty to drink from international rivers of academic excellence, but I had neither the means nor the resources until out of the blue –the Dutch Government threw me a lifeline. My heartfelt thanks go to the Dutch Government for according me a rare opportunity to study at the ISS. May this philanthropic gesture continue into future times. It makes a real difference to citizens of the developing countries, more so from Africa.

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ABBREVIATIONS AND ACRONYMS

CBU- Community Banking Unit
CBZ- Commercial Bank of Zimbabwe
CRISP- Credit for the Informal Sector Project
CZI- Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries
ECEC- Early Childhood Education Centre
EDC- Enterprise Development Centre
ENDA- Environment and Development Activities
ESAP- Economic Structural Adjustment Programme
FDI- Foreign Direct Investment
GDP- Gross Domestic Product
IAZ- Institute of Architects of Zimbabwe
IoB- Institute of Bankers
ICS- Institute of Chartered Secretaries and Administrators
IMF- International Monetary Fund
IPMZ- Institute of Personnel Management of Zimbabwe
IS- Informal Sector
ISTARN – Informal Sector Training and Resources Network
IIEP- International Institute for Educational Planning
LTE- Life Time Employment
MDC- Movement for Democratic Change
MOHET- Ministry of Higher Education and Technology
MSE- Micro and Small Enterprises
MYDGE-C- Ministry of Youth Development Gender, and Employment Creation
NAMACO- National Manpower Advisory Council
NTA- National Training Authority
NTP- National Training Policy
PSTIs- Private Sector Training Institutions
PTPs – Private Training Providers
PU- Production Unit
NTP- National Training Policy
SSA- SUB-Saharan Africa
TAP- Traditional Training Programme
VET - Vocational Education and Training
VTCs – Vocational Train Centres
VTL- Vocational Training Loan
YTC – Youth Training Centres
ZCTU- Zimbabwe Congress of Trade Unions
ZIM- Zimbabwe Institute of Management
ZIMDEF- Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund
ZNCC- Zimbabwe National Chamber of Commerce
ZPS- Zimbabwe Public Service
DEFINITION OF TERMS

*General education*
Education which is mainly designed to lead participants to a better understanding of the subject, especially, but not necessarily, with a view to preparing them for other additional education at the same or higher level.

*Technical education*
Refers to education and training aimed at preparing individuals for middle-level positions, such as technicians, technologists and management personnel.

*Vocational education-
Refers to the preparation of skilled personnel for positions below the technician level or its equivalent.

*Vocational training* —aims at developing particular skills or a narrow range of skills for employment in a particular occupation. Although it may not involve any general education, related science or technology, it assumes a basic education in literature, numeracy and writing, while emphasising practical training

*Skills development* —means the acquisition of the practical competencies, know-how and attitudes necessary to perform a trade or occupation in the labour market.

*Private education and training* —usually applied to those institutions that are not operated by a public authority, but rather controlled by a private body.

*Strategic partnership-* a relationship between or among parties to achieve a shared goal. It is a collaborative agreement of an enduring nature between two or more groups.

*Competitiveness*—the ability of a country’s economy to produce goods and services that meet the test of international markets while its citizens earn a standard of living that is both rising and sustainable over the long run.

*Employability* — the capacity to find, keep and change employment, including the ability to generate self—employment.
CHAPTER 1

AN OVERVIEW OF THE VOCATIONAL EDUCATIONAL AND TRAINING CONTEXT IN ZIMBABWE

1.1 Socio-political context
Zimbabwe’s economy is agro-based and until recently, tourism was a vibrant sector. The ILO notes that beginning 1999 the country experienced a period of considerable political and economic upheaval following the formation of the main opposition party, the Movement for Democratic Change [MDC]. The Land Redistribution Programme in the year 2000 disrupted the economy resulting in significant reduction in agricultural production. The country is currently experiencing reduced growth, low levels of investment and export growth, high budget deficits and inflation [over 200%], growing unemployment [70%] and aging plant and machinery in sore need of servicing and replacement [National Productivity Centre and Movement].

1.2 VET context
The Ministry of Higher Education and Technology [MOHET] oversees the provision of tertiary education. The MOHET is a good example of a supply–driven training system. The 1994 Manpower Development Act provided for the establishment of centralized, bureaucratic control over the polytechnics, technical and vocational centres. The National Manpower Advisory Council [NAMACO] which is an advisory body to represent the interests of the employers and other stakeholders is weak. The Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund [ZIMDEF] is a government controlled training levy-grant system sustained by one percent levy from the employers [Benell: 1999].

Employer and other stakeholder criticism of Vocational Education and Training [VET] provision by MOHET have continued to grow since the start of the economic liberalization programme in 1991. The ministry itself accepts some of these criticisms and has attempted to introduce a number of reforms. In part, this lukewarm response is due to the slow pace of public sector reforms as a whole in Zimbabwe with the government reluctant to relinquish its control over key functions and resources. However, the low priority attached to VET reform by employers and their organizations has also meant that little serious pressure has been brought to bear on politicians and senior policy makers [Benell: 1999].

It is against this background that this research seeks to explore the emerging roles of the government and the private sector in VET provision to meet the demands of globalization, technological, work and work place changes.
1.3 Indication of the problem

There is a general agreement that sustainable development in sub-Saharan Africa [SSA] requires important improvements both in basic education and in technical and managerial skills in all sectors of the economy [Benell et al. 1999]. These changes are being dictated by external stimuli mainly globalization, technological changes and liberalization of markets thereby creating a more and more competitive environment and changing the nature of work and work organization [ILO 1999].

Given this turbulent environment, the quality of the labour force becomes a major determinant in the competitiveness and adaptability of enterprises, workers and the economy. Strong challenges are posed to the vocational educational and training [VET] systems to meet the rapidly changing labour market demands. The concept of employability is paramount in boosting competitiveness, productivity and adaptability [Mitchell: 1998].

One big challenge facing the state and the enterprises is whether/ not national training systems can provide broad-based knowledge and core skills through flexible, rapidly responsive and continuous training for employability, competitiveness and growth. Training systems are often criticized for not responding to market demands. Trapped in tradition and bureaucracy, their critics say that they are unable to respond to new requirements created by multifaceted and rapidly changing labour markets. [Mitchell: 1998] The new challenges can not be met without fundamental and a thorough re-examination of basic assumptions with regard to objectives, content, structure and delivery of training in response to new skill requirements.

Whilst research has tended to focus on the governance and organization of VET under the MOHET in Zimbabwe, there have not been studies conducted on the changing roles of the government and the private sector in the provision of VET. Researches conducted by Benell [1997; 1999] tended to focus on the VET provision in the context of reforms ushered in by economic liberation since 1991. There is need, therefore, to carry out a research study exploring VET policies, legislation and systems in response to changing demands and the new collaborative relationship that should be established between the government and the social partners, particularly the private sector. In fulfilling this responsibility, the research seeks to explore the dilemma of how the government and the private sector can share the burden of reconciling budgetary constraints with the need to improve relevance, effectiveness, equity and sustainability of the VET system in Zimbabwe.

1.4 Relevance and justification

The magnitude and suddenness of changes in worlds of work as a result of global forces, which is representative of changes across the VET spectrum, has left the bureaucratic, supply -driven, government controlled traditional certificate programmes, unable to satisfy to the changing needs of industry, unable to find appropriately experienced instructors, and unable to provide industrial placements for its trainees [Clegg, 2003:14].
In Zimbabwe the MOHET has monopolized the role of VET provision and marginalized the private sector yet it can not meet the skills needs of industry. In the light of the above observation this research is relevant and justifiable on the grounds that it seeks to:

- Indicate the existing VET system in Zimbabwe.
- Highlight the challenges that the external environment is ushering in on the VET provision and implicitly indicate the ability of the Zimbabwe VET system to meet them.
- Emphasise the importance of employability and productivity for both the government and the enterprises.
- Explore the existing relationship between the government and the private sector and explore the directions for change.

### 1.5 Research objectives

The main objective of the research is to explore the emerging roles of the government and the private sector in the provision of VET in the context of changing socio-economic conditions. In particular, the objectives of the research are to:

1. Examine the provisions of VET policy and VET system in Zimbabwe.
2. Explore the changing roles of the government and the private sector in VET provision.
3. Suggest policy recommendations with a view to laying the foundation for closer cooperation in a strategic partnership between the government and the private sector in VET provision.

### 1.6 Research questions

1. What is the VET policy and how does the VET policy work in Zimbabwe?
2. Is the current Government VET provision adequate?
3. What emerging roles should the government and the private sector play in a strategic partnership in VET provision in Zimbabwe?
4. What policy recommendations should be made to encourage an environment that encourages partnership in VET provision?

### 1.7 Methodology

I relied on a number of secondary sources to have a broad understanding of the concept of VET and how the system is operating in many countries in SSA and in other parts of the globe. In this regard articles, books, journals, policy papers and the internet were the secondary sources that were consulted. For an in-depth study of the VET situation in Zimbabwe, bulletins from employer organizations, government policy papers, reports from government ministries on the education system and its graduates were used as well.

I chose the descriptive design method in order to gather these data. The method was suitable in the sense that the use of questionnaires accorded me the opportunity to get the views of human resource practitioners in the private and public sector as respondents.
These informants had an in-depth experience on issues relating to VET as reflected on the ground. In order to collect primary data a stratified sample of 18 respondent organizations was used. The organizations were categorized into:

- Public training institutions
- Private training institutions
- Government departments
- Parastatals and
- Private companies.

[See Appendix 1 for organization categories].

A total of 50 questionnaires were distributed to the respondents; 32 questionnaires were returned thereby giving a respondents return rate of 68%. The specific breakdown of the informants is shown in Appendix 3. The fact that the respondents were human resource practitioners practising in Zimbabwe for periods ranging from two to twenty years made their views valid and authenticated the findings of the research. [See Appendix 2 and 3 for the working experience of the respondents and their positions].

Owing to escalating transport costs, I could not travel back to Zimbabwe to conduct the research in person but made arrangements with research assistants to conduct the survey on my behalf. The survey was restricted to Harare, the capital and Bulawayo, the second largest city—in which cities the headquarters of most of the companies and Departments are based. The survey was conducted over a period of three weeks.

The questions asked focused on awareness of the respondents of VET policy, its relevance for industry, administration of ZIMDEF, the macro-economic environment and its impact on training, the quality of training, the employability of the graduates, desirability of tracer studies and the collaboration between government and employers in VET.

The raw data gathered by the researcher assistants was posted to me for processing. I then applied the SPSS software to process the data so as to get statistics on and cross tabulations of the perspectives given by the respondents.

1.8 Limitations of the research

The sample of just 18 institutions is too small to be truly representative of the training scenario in Zimbabwe. The data collection was restricted to Harare and Bulawayo due to accessibility problems; this implies that the views collected were predominantly those of the urban population and the rural based training centres did not express their views. There is likely to be bias in this regard. The wide implication of the research study should be interpreted with these limitations in mind.
CHAPTER 2

GENERAL FRAMEWORK ELABORATING ISSUES AND THEMES

2.1 Introduction
This chapter reviews literature enlightening VET systems. It further explores factors impacting on VET and advances the wider debate on the paradigm shift on the role of the state and the private sector in VET provision and outlines the modalities of forging a strategic public–private sector partnership in VET systems.

2.3 Theoretical underpinnings
Human capital theory is still the most influential strand of theory linking education and training of individuals and performance to economic performance and outcomes. According to the basic model, acquired skills and competences ["human capital stock" of society] are seen as the result of rational investment decisions by individuals and firms with the objective of maximising returns to such investment [Buchtemann and Soloff, 1998].

The theoretical underpinnings of the skill development strategy are diagrammatically illustrated in the model below:

Figure 1: Skill Development Model

Source: Author
The model shows human resource centrally placed and interconnected with education and training, poverty reduction, productivity and competitiveness in the global market. High skills levels are crucial.

Skill development strategies are theoretically grounded in the Endogenous or New Growth Theory. One of the proponents - Lucas [1993] argues that the main engine of growth is the accumulation of human capital. This has externality-inducing effects thereby affecting the average, which in turn affects the individual. Nations are thus different in living standards so much because of differences in human capital.

Romer [1994] contends that the marginal productivity level of the stock of knowledge increases rather than diminish as that stock grows. Woods [1994] classifies Human Resources into three categories:

- NO-ED characterised by little or no education
- BAS-ED where there is middle or low secondary education and
- SKILLD which denotes substantial post basic education and training.

Woods encourages a move from primary exports to manufactures; from labour-intensive to skill-intensive which is essentially a move from NO-ED to SKILLD.

2.4 Factors driving change and their impact on education and training

"For over a century car engines were tuned by mechanics with screwdrivers. Today's car engines are tuned by mechanics with laptop computers", writes Clegg [2003:14]. It is crucial to examine the factors that are driving changes in work environments as the ones highlighted in the quotation above, which in turn are impacting seriously on VET systems throughout the world. King and McGrath [2002] identify three broad categories namely globalisation, post fordism and knowledge.

2.4.1 Globalisation is a challenge to Africa in a number of ways. Foreign direct investment [FDI] and trade are clearly important to technological development in the current period. There is a tendency for poorer regions like sub-Saharan Africa, to miss out on much of the benefits of new networking possibilities [Castells, 1996]. Globalisation brings also new challenges for education and training systems and providers.

2.4.2 Post- Fordism impacts on education and training because it requires new reorganisation of production. This places new demands on workers and machines as both must be more adaptable than previously. The need to shift rapidly between product specifications requires that the shop floor workers be able to make decisions for themselves without waiting for supervisors to give orders. Greater worker autonomy thus emerges [King and McGrath, 2002:23]. In this account the key to economic success increasingly lies in the workers [Reich, 1991].

2.4.3 The notion of knowledge economy is widely being stressed in the OECD and East Asia in policy formulations and speeches [OECD: 1996]. Across the industrialised
economies, there is a focus on notions such as the ‘clever country’, ‘the learning society’ and the ‘knowledge economy’. The former US Secretary of Labour, Robert Reich sums up the argument:

"The standard of living of a nation’s people increasingly depends on what they contribute to the world economy – on the value of their skills and insights. It depends less on what they own – on the profitability of companies in which they have major stakes" [Reich, 1991:154].

It is argued that knowledge production, dissemination and utilisation are now at the heart of national competitive advantage. Science, technology and industry policy can drive competitiveness through innovation.

2.4.4 The knowledge enterprise is in the making as well. Competitive advantage for enterprises is argued to have shifted from considerations of volume to those of maintaining high value [Reich, 1991]. Knowledge is seen in this light as ‘the only source of long-run sustainable competitive advantage’ [Thurow, 1996:74]; such knowledge largely resides within the workforce and firms are required to treat their knowledge workers very differently from typical Fordist workers. The knowledge economy is at the same time the network society [Castells, 1996] and inter-firm linkages are vital to knowledge capture and use. VET systems have to keep abreast with knowledge changes so that workers remain innovative.

2.4.5 This gives rise to what is termed the ‘knowledge worker’. The World Bank [1998:19] strikingly brings out the importance of knowledge as a global competitive edge by stating that, "Perhaps the difference was that the East Asian economies did not build, work, and grow harder so much as they built, worked and grew smarter. Could knowledge, then, have been behind East Asia’s surge? If so, the implications are enormous, for that would mean that knowledge is the key to development – that knowledge is development”.

2.5 Historical development of VET

The development of VET can be divided into two periods-the industrial revolution characterized by mass production and the new industrial revolution characterized by the so-called internationalization as explained below.

2.5.1 The industrial revolution-mass production
The industrial revolution pushed agricultural workers into towns in the newly established mass production factories. The traditional crafts became automated. Technical and non-technical skills were split. Skills like planning, organising and quality assurance became the responsibility of supervisors and managers. Work or activities were divided into small operations- tasks which could be more easily controlled. People became used to the idea that factory and office work was sub-divided into small tasks. As VET systems were developed to support industry, they concentrated on training people in the specific tasks which were required by industry. Planning, organising and managing became different 'subject'-management or supervision separated from initial VET [ETF, 2003:8].
2.5.2 The New Industrial Revolution-Internationalisation

This is the stage the world is today characterized by a shift away from repetitive mass production to lean production where companies operate in a smarter way. Flexibility can be in three dimensions of the economic system: the organizational structure of firms, the operation of the labour market and the pattern of production. The flexible firm decentralizes its organization and uses measures such as dividing its workforce into the ‘core’ with secure jobs and a ‘periphery’ which can be easily dismissed and re-employed. Labour market flexibility entails changes in the regulations, contracts, customs and practices that govern the labour market so as to make it easier to hire and fire workers, to casualise labour and to raise and lower wages in line with the profitability of the firm. Flexibility in the pattern of production entails altering the technical division of labour so that it is less rigid.

The outcome of these three types of flexibility is an increase in functional flexibility allowing workers to undertake different range of tasks; numerical flexibility in hours of work and number of workers and financial flexibility in the costs of employing labour [Elson, 1996:36].

Furthermore, the notion of Life Time Employment [LTE] falls away, giving way to life time learning as workers need to constantly upgrade their skills to boost their employability in response to changes posed by globalization. Some of the core knowledge, skills and attitudes that enhance employability include intellectual skills, social and interpersonal skills and business and entrepreneurial skills [ETF, 2001:43].

Teamwork takes a more significant role as workers determine their day-to-day organization of work, participate in quality circles to improve quality of goods and services and project a more customer-oriented approach. There is a tendency for workers to control quality at the source of operation rather than at the end of production.

2.6 Purpose of VET

The ETF [2001:21] outlines the essence of VET when it says, “the primary purpose of any vocational education and training system is to develop sufficient people with the right skills to meet labour market demands”. Gill et al. [2000:15] agree with this when they say, “the main objective of the vocational training programme is to help unemployed workers find jobs, to prepare school leavers to enter the labour market and to upgrade the skills of employed workers.”

2.6.1 Main functions of Vocational Training

Brandisma et al. [1995] outline six main functions of continuing vocational training linked to different target groups and labour market strategies:

- Adaptation to the changing challenges of the labour market such as new technologies;
- Innovation by grading skills through continuing vocational training, mostly enterprise activities;
- Promotion by upgrading skills for vocational careers, mostly for qualified employed people;
- Curative/compensatory function to replace obsolete or under-used skills or provide qualifications consistent with social and labour market policies;
- Preventive/cumulative functions for those who want to acquire skills for future use to stay employed or upgrade themselves.

The ETF research in 1998 and 1999 in Central and Eastern European countries show that continuing vocational training is primarily a curative/compensatory process.

2.7 The changing role of the state

The World Bank [1997] in its World Development report maintains that, in addition to creating an enabling environment, there are three core tasks in the field of VET that are specific to the government:

- Laying the foundations for, and ensuring the maintenance of an overall national VET policy and regulating the system through an appropriate framework of laws and regulations;
- Mobilising collective investment in VET and searching incentives;
- Protecting public [especially vulnerable groups] from exploitative practices and ensuring equitable access to VET opportunities [World Bank: 1997].

Global trends in the VET arena point to a major shift in the role of government away from that of a supplier to that of a purchaser and facilitator. There is also a shift in the management and control of programmes away from government alone to the consumer, through majority representation on training councils. Increasingly, it is likely that training institutions will be privately owned, often serving specific industries, and the role of government will contract, from that of management to that of a co-, or junior, partner on the management board [Clegg, 2003:15].

Whilst it is reasonable to leave training to the market in some instances, as Johanson and Adams [2004] point out, "there are many things the non-governmental sector does not or cannot do. These include developing policies and standards, preparing teaching materials, training instructors and running standardized exams of graduates. Here the state's role is clear and positive."

The separation of policy, system development and financing from delivery lies at the heart of demand-driven vocational education and training and increased private sector participation in VET. While the design of the national training policy and systems is one of the core functions of the state, it is increasingly recognized that, in the interests of efficiency and effectiveness, this must be shared with the private stakeholders in responding to labour market requirements [ILC: 1997].

Decentralizing the design and implementation of VET can be a source of dynamism, creativity and initiative that is highly responsive to local demand and changing local needs. By mobilising all stakeholders, it exploits the community’s private and public training resources to the full and makes the whole system more demand-driven. The
The decentralisation of VET can be observed inter alia, in Chile, the United Kingdom, the United States and more recently in South Africa [ILO:1997].

Public funds are used to encourage private sector initiative and involvement, and this permits a considerable saving in resources. In this way the government motivates and supports overall development of VET instead of controlling it, which might otherwise have the effect of subduing local initiative and dynamism [ILO: 1997].

The state can also play a crucial role in the informal sector. As Haan and Sierriere [2002:142] point out, instead of providing training the state can focus on creating an enabling environment for training to take place. This requires:

- Providing a clear policy framework (for example, regulations and incentives);
- Improving the skills of the existing skills training, especially in non-governmental training institutions, indirectly supporting curriculum development, training of trainers (competency-based) skills testing and stimulating investment;
- Reviewing and revising existing apprenticeship acts which are not only outdated but tend to contain regulations that hamper enterprise based training.

### 2.8 Paradigm shift in the role of the state and the private sector

The table below advocates for a paradigm shift from a supplier-driven to a demand-driven VET system.

#### Table 1: Changing the VET model

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Supply-driven model</th>
<th>Demand-driven model</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>State controlled</td>
<td>State monitored</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Education as a public good provided by the state</td>
<td>Education seen as a service to be purchased by consumer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State provides the service</td>
<td>Any organization can provide the service</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What is provided is determined by the state acting on behalf of electors</td>
<td>What is provided is determined by the provider within state-laid guidelines</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Quality determined by the state</td>
<td>Minimum quality controlled by the state through licensing and inspecting system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cost determined by the state</td>
<td>Cost determined by the market with state maintaining a watching brief</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>What happens in the training institution is determined by the state</td>
<td>What happens in the training institution is determined by consumers with state oversight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State controls access and equity through provision of training institutions in the right places</td>
<td>State monitors access and equity through vouchers, subsidies or similar ‘safety net’ processes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State provides all funding</td>
<td>Funding shared by state, private sector, parents etc</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State owning the training institution</td>
<td>Training institution owned privately</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>State employees trainers as civil servants</td>
<td>corporately by board of governors</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trainers employed by training institution on individually negotiated contacts</td>
<td>Training institution board accountable for performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ministry/Regional authority accountable for performance</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government ignore/ minimize contracts with private sector training supplier</td>
<td>Government develops a pro-active policy of engagement and cooperation with private sector training suppliers</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Clegg [2003:41]

2.8.1 The changing role of the private sector in VET provision

Enterprises have a number of advantages in comparison to the state when it comes to VET provision. The ILO [1997] notes that the particular strength of enterprises lies in their ability to provide practical, on-the-job skills that reflect market requirements. They are therefore, in a position to make a strategic contribution to the relevance, effectiveness and efficiency of those systems by improving their quality, capacity and productivity of training provided.

The role of employers’ organisations can be important in voicing enterprise concern and in influencing training policy and governance, drawing attention to the need for long-term investment in continuing training and encouraging learning enterprises.

The ILO [1998:4] states that private stakeholders can make an important contribution to the design and development of national VET policies and systems such as:

- Providing relevant up-to-date information on labour market requirements, occupational information and guidance;
- Reflecting private sector concerns in the government’s policy implementation strategies and in the relevant laws and regulations;
- Participating in the institutional framework for policy design and training delivery;
- Determining the needs of training delivery;
- Establishing standards of certifying the quality of the training institutions, managers and teaching staff, and the level of competency imparted;
- Co-financing VET;
- Designing the content of VET so as to reflect labour market requirements, and
- Evaluating and providing feedback on the overall performance of the system.

The role of the private sector partners in designing VET policies and systems varies among countries and sectors. In many developing countries, their involvement is restricted to the presence of employers’ and workers’ representatives on boards and committees. Their effectiveness in shaping VET policies and systems depends largely on the existence of a strong public policy in favour of private sector participation, the strength of the private participative culture and effective machinery to enable them to reflect their concerns and realities of the world of work [ILO 1997].
The ILO [1997] indicates that markets often fail to provide sufficient incentives for individuals and enterprises to invest in training. Enterprises may be reluctant to invest in training for a number of reasons, such as wage rigidities associated with minimum wages. When they do invest, it maybe in a short-term perspective and for job-specific rather than in basic, broad-based skills. Fear of poaching may also discourage enterprises from investing in portable skills. Individuals and small enterprises may not perceive the benefits of training or be unable to make informed decisions because of lack of information on labour market or training markets. Private providers tend to confine themselves to training that requires low capital and little infrastructure and to focus on urban areas and on commerce and services. Their decisions may also be dictated by social demand rather than labour market needs, or by their own installed capacity. Such services may not meet the needs of enterprises or respond to the training needs of the self-employed and of workers in rural or informal sectors.

2.9 Forging partnerships in training

2.9.1 Factors promoting public–private sector partnerships

The ILO [1999] identifies several interconnected factors behind the recent moves by the state to seek the collaboration of the private sector stakeholders as:

- The fiscal crisis, which has resulted in a chronic shortage of public funds to meet the increasing demand for training;
- The rise of the market economy and the growing recognition of the private sector's critical role in skill development;
- The rapid and continuous changes in technology, workplace organisation and practices and skill requirements, resulting in a demand for life-long and continuing training and a need to reform the initial training;
- The inability of the public VET systems to respond quickly to new labour market requirements.

2.9.2 Benefit of partnerships

Effective partnerships in VET allow all partners to extend their reach and achieve better results. In particular, partnerships encourage co-operation and add legitimacy through the bundling of resources [financial, intangible assets and in-kind contribution, skills and expertise] to improve the quality of skills being imparted to trainees.

Partnerships in VET can address gaps and failures- areas in which the government, the market and the community all share interest, but where no party has overall responsibility. Partnerships in VET can offer:

- **Government** access to new resources [financial, in-kind support, technical, research and infrastructure];
- **Businesses** access to risk and expectations management, market and community development expertise and contracts, and increased funding as a result of promoting skill development activities [UN Foundation, 2002].
2.9.3 Cultivating effective partnerships in VET provision

Increased private sector involvement in the public VET system is a world-wide phenomenon. Effective partnerships require a degree of mutual understanding of interests and an acceptance that conventional roles can and must be changed. Clegg [2003:48] gives a summary checklist outlining a number of pre-requisites that should be in place before effective public-private partnerships can grow as shown below:

- An extensive analysis of existing good practice in public-private cooperation in VET, particularly an analysis of the principal impediments;
- An increased involvement of the private sector in fundamental issues such as VET quality, VET management, and the nature of the curriculum;
- A desire on both sides to try and test innovative models of cooperation and on the side of government to modify existing structures that impede the functioning of such models;
- A culture change in the national education bureaucracies and planning process from one in which the private sector is largely ignored and excluded to one of partnership with new clearly defined roles and responsibilities for each sector;
- A major shift towards decentralisation and localization of decision-making and financing to training institution level;
- A shift from a norm of government provision of services to a norm of government supervised private provision of services.

The direct interests of the private sector do not wholly coincide with the responsibilities of ministries, however. This dialogue therefore, must not lose sight of those matters that are traditionally a major concern of government such as concerns relating to a regulation framework that governs public education systems, equitable access for all and accountability [Clegg, 2003:48].

2.10 Conclusion

It should be emphasized that a developing country’s skill development strategy makes a difference between remaining trapped in the vicious cycle of poverty and breaking off this circle. The VET system faces an enormous challenge of producing graduates with appropriate skills that are employable on the labour market. Such a scenario demands strong collaboration between the private sector and the government in designing and implementing a VET programme that ensures the inculcation of relevant skills to trainees. The traditional roles of both Government and the private sector in VET provision are rendered useless and a new partnership seems to be the answer.

The next chapter examines the current VET system in Zimbabwe and identifies its gaps which need to be filled.
CHAPTER 3

THE VET SYSTEM IN ZIMBABWE

3.1 Introduction
The chapter discusses the VET system exploring the public and private sector institutions that are significant in the training arena. Furthermore, the training activities for the informal economy are explained and finally the role of the NAMACO in linking VET stakeholders is highlighted.

3.2 Socio-economic political context
Zimbabwe is a Southern African country with a population of 12.6 million people. Soon after gaining independence on 18 April 1980 Zimbabwe was thought to have inherited one of the most promising economies in Africa. Zimbabwe's economy is agro-based and until 2000 had a vibrant tourism sector. Other major sectors of the economy are manufacturing and mining. The allocation of GDP by sector is shown below:

Figure 2: Allocation of GDP by sector

![Graph showing allocation of GDP by sector]

Source: Earth Trends 2003

The services sector represents 57% of the GDP respectively. Education constitutes 10.4%, high technology exports 3%, manufactured goods 38% and primary goods 62% as an expenditure of GDP [UNDP 2002]. Other important indicators are shown in the table below:
Table 2: HRD indicators for Zimbabwe

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indicator</th>
<th>Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Population</td>
<td>12.6 million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Life expectancy</td>
<td>42.9 years</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HIV rate</td>
<td>24.6%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Adult literacy</td>
<td>88.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gross enrolment</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public expenditure on tertiary</td>
<td>17.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>education</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High technology exports</td>
<td>2%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Primary exports</td>
<td>72%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNDP [2002]

The table clearly shows that the prevalence of HIV infection is high at a quarter of the population; high technology exports are very low at 2% and primary exports are too high at 72%. This indicates that Zimbabwe is labour-intensive at a time when most nations are striving towards capital-intensive production.

Zimbabwe began to institute the Economic Structural Adjustment Programme [ESAP] in the 1990s. The government has abandoned compliance with the conditions of its standby loan agreement with the IMF, which has suspended further disbursement. In 1999 the Government embarked on a Land Reform Programme which seriously impacted on the economy. In the same year the main opposition party- the Movement for Democratic Change [MDC] was formed. The social and political unrest of the 2000 parliamentary and 2002 presidential elections dampened investor confidence [ILO: 2004].

3.3 Vocational Education and Training

3.3.1 Policy framework

Zimbabwe's objectives and goals for education and training are enshrined in the mission statement of the Ministry of Higher Education and Technology [MOHET] which reads:

*The mission of the Ministry of Higher Education and Technology is to provide, regulate and facilitate tertiary education and training through the planning, development and implementation of effective policies, the provision of resources and management of institutions in order to meet the human resources requirements of the economy and equip individuals to realize their full potential* [UNICEF, 2001:5].

The vision of the National Training Policy of the Zimbabwe Public Service [ZPS] is, “To be the leader in the development of competent public servants” and the mission is “to provide effective training to public servants for them to deliver quality service”. The National Training Policy [NTP] provides a framework within which the training in the ZPS will take place, against the background of public service reform.
Some ministries offer sector specific training to their employees—the Ministries of Health and Child Welfare, Home Affairs and Agriculture, Lands and Rural Resettlement.

3.3.2 The legal framework of education and training

At independence in 1980, Zimbabwe inherited a dual education system characterized by inequalities between a system designed to serve the needs of minority whites [defined as Europeans, Asians, and Coloureds] and another system for the vast African majority. In order to redress these inequalities and practices, the post independent Republic of Zimbabwe adopted the policy of education as a basic human right and committed itself to universal and educational opportunity for all [National Education Report: 2001]. The Manpower Development Act [1994] governs tertiary education and training in Zimbabwe as well as providing for the formation of the Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund [ZIMDEF] and the National Manpower Advisory Council [NAMACO]. The National Council for Higher Education Act [1990] caters for higher education [UNICEF, 2001:8].

The organization and structure of the education and training system is diagrammatically represented below:

Figure 3: Structure of Zimbabwe’s Education System

![Zimbabwe’s Education System Diagram]

Source: UNICEF [2001]

Basic education

Zimbabwe’s basic education systems comprise:

Early Childhood Education and Care [ECEC] system: [pre-school for the 0-6 year olds] and Primary Education: [for the 6-12 year olds].

Primary education is a 7 year cycle espousing the policy of compulsory education and unimpeded progress. There is a terminal examination at the Grade 7 level.
Secondary education

Secondary education in Zimbabwe comprises the following:
A 4 year Ordinary Level cycle in which there is unimpeded progress to ‘O’ level but some schools set a selection criteria based on Grade 7 examination.
A 2 year Advance Level cycle which is restricted since progression is on merit and is based on set pass grades.

Tertiary Education

This sub-section is made up of 8 polytechnics and technical colleges; 14 Teachers’ training colleges; 29 vocational skills training centres; 7 universities and 2 university colleges affiliated to the University of Zimbabwe. Besides, there are over 350 privately owned institutions, most of which offer commercially based programmes.

3.4 Main Training Providers

Zimbabwe has a relatively well established network of vocational education and training providers, which includes large numbers of public and private training providers. They can be categorized into:

- public sector training institutions;
- church-based Vocational Training Centres [VTCs];
- NGOs involved in technical training and;
- Private for profit training institutions

Table: 3 Enrolment in vocational and technical training in public and private sector institutions [1998]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vocational / technical institutions</th>
<th>Enrolment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Government training institutions</td>
<td>18,355</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apprentices</td>
<td>5,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Registered Private Training Providers</td>
<td>85,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Unregistered Private Training Providers</td>
<td>40,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Correspondence colleges</td>
<td>40,000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>188,355</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>


Public sector training institutions have a total capacity of 18,000 training places which falls far short of the need for technical training from estimated 200,000-300,000 school-leavers with secondary education entering the labour market yearly. The formal sector can only absorb about 20,000-30,000 [10%] of them, so the remainder has to be prepared for employment in the informal economy [Kanyenze: 1997].
3.4.1 Public sector training institutions

In Zimbabwe public sector training is currently provided by four types of training centres at three levels:

- Polytechnics found in major cities including Harare and Bulawayo; Technical Colleges including Kushinga-Phikelela, Kwekwe, Gweru, Masvingo and Mutare;
- Vocational Training Centres including Msasa, Westgate, Mupfure and St Peters Kubatana;
- Youth Training Centres [YTCs] in a dozen locations.

The first two categories fall under the MOHET, department of Vocational Training and the latter two fall under the Ministry of Youth Development, Gender and Employment Creation [MYDGEJC]. VTCs have been placed under MYDGEJC, a decision deemed politically-motivated against the advice of technical experts [Dube et al. 2001].

The YTCs were begun in the 1980s to provide skills to young people whose education had been disrupted by the liberation struggle. Main courses offered in YTCs include farming, food technology, secretarial studies, textile, carpentry, leather technology, construction; fitting and turning, motor mechanics and business studies. Training lasts up to three years. By the mid 1990s, the then 12 YTCs had an enrolment of 1280.

The YTCs are in need of equipment, training facilities and additional trainers. Less than 30% of the YTC graduates find employment upon completion of training [Dube et al. 2001:5]. VTCs were begun by the MOHET in 1998 targeting primary and secondary school drop outs and leavers who failed to enter into the next level of education, together with retrenched workers and others who missed schooling for whatever reasons.

Largely they are rural, community -based with facilities and equipment far smaller and less sophisticated than Technical Colleges. They offer a small range of courses, which are foremost aimed at the immediate skills needs of local communities and existing opportunities for economic development, aiming to stimulate the creation of self-employment [Haan, 2002:149].

Technical colleges offer full-time training [3-4 years] in a range of technical and business courses aimed at obtaining National Certificates. The colleges have in recent years been oriented more towards informal economy employment. At Mutare Technical College, for example, an Enterprise Development Centre [EDC] was established in 1997, while the Departments of Automotive Engineering, Mechanical Engineering, Wood Technology and Electrical Engineering have formed production units [PUs]. Both the EDC and the PU are meant to provide business skills training as well as offering opportunities for hands-on experience [Haan, 2002:150].

However, Suhr [2000:13] notes that the immediate impact of the training programmes has been discouraging. A tracer study conducted among graduates of Masvingo Technical College in 1996 shows disappointing results. Of the 139 graduates studied, almost 60% were still unemployed; while just under a third found a formal sector job and less than one in every ten was self-employed.
Table 4: Student Enrolment by Gender in Tertiary Institutions 2000

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutions</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Total</th>
<th>% Females</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Technical Colleges</td>
<td>10 997</td>
<td>4 501</td>
<td>15 498</td>
<td>29.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Teachers’ Colleges</td>
<td>8 118</td>
<td>9 646</td>
<td>17 764</td>
<td>54.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Universities</td>
<td>22 526</td>
<td>10 833</td>
<td>33 359</td>
<td>32.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td>41 641</td>
<td>24 980</td>
<td>66 621</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: UNICEF

The table shows that there were 66 621 students undertaking studies at tertiary level 37.5% of whom were females. The gender ratio was fairly balanced at Teachers’ Colleges with 54.3% female enrolment and most unbalanced at technical colleges with a female ratio of 29%.

3.4.2 Apprenticeship training provision

In Zimbabwe, as in most other Sub-Saharan African countries, there co-exists a formal apprenticeship scheme alongside the traditional system. Formal apprenticeship is considered a form of vocational training, which includes both theoretical and practical skills development, through visiting a Technical College and an attachment period with an industrial firm respectively. The training lasts four years at the end of which apprentices receive a National Certificate.

The scheme is targeted at youth aged twenty-five and below with a minimum of 5 ‘O’ levels including English, mathematics and science. The Registrar of Apprentices allocates the apprentices to the respective technical colleges [Suhr, 2000:9].

The total number of craft apprentices being indentured with employers has remained very small since the start of ESAP as shown below:

Table 5: Newly indentured apprentices 1991-1996

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Totals</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Public</td>
<td>Private</td>
<td>Total</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1991</td>
<td>518</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>1218</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1992</td>
<td>403</td>
<td>527</td>
<td>930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1993</td>
<td>341</td>
<td>951</td>
<td>1292</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1994</td>
<td>466</td>
<td>1415</td>
<td>1881</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>825</td>
<td>877</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1996</td>
<td>434</td>
<td>829</td>
<td>1363</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MOHE records

The table shows a total of 1223 apprentices indentured in 1991 rising up to 1948 in 1994 and declining to 1346 in 1996.

The apprenticeship programme in the public sector has been shrinking with parastatals and ministries alike facing increasing ‘hard budgets’ and retrenchments. The centralization of
apprentice recruitment and the bonding of apprentices have had a negative impact on employers’ attitudes towards apprenticeship training. But the demand for apprenticeship remains extremely high among school leavers. While the number of employers sponsoring new apprentices has increased during the 1990s [from 134 in 1991 to 231 in 1996], a small group of less than 20 enterprises still accounts for 40% of all new apprentices. According to UNICEF [1996:140] employer dissatisfaction with apprenticeship system has been fuelled by:

- The reform of the apprenticeship training in 1993 with apprentices now required to attend colleges for a full academic year;
- The chronic lack of training capacity at polytechnics and colleges; and
- Generally poor quality training with out-dated curriculum and instructors who lack industrial experience.

3.4.3 Examination and performance of apprentices

Overall pass rates at Harare Polytechnic and the Harare Institute of Technology were between 30-50% in 1994. A break down of the results is shown below:

Table 6: Examination results at certificate level by discipline, 1992, 1994 and 1996

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Pass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>entered</td>
<td>rate</td>
<td>entered</td>
<td>rate</td>
<td>entered</td>
<td>rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical</td>
<td>138</td>
<td>41.3</td>
<td>187</td>
<td>55.1</td>
<td>143</td>
<td>35.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanical</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>372</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>375</td>
<td>43.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computing</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>8.2</td>
<td>257</td>
<td>34.2</td>
<td>241</td>
<td>39.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>424</td>
<td>52.6</td>
<td>254</td>
<td>53.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secretarial</td>
<td>447</td>
<td>53.0</td>
<td>665</td>
<td>58.7</td>
<td>409</td>
<td>70.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>420</td>
<td>46.4</td>
<td>267</td>
<td>42.7</td>
<td>437</td>
<td>67.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: MOHET, unpublished data

Table 7: Diploma results by discipline

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Pass</td>
<td>No.</td>
<td>Pass</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>entered</td>
<td>rate</td>
<td>entered</td>
<td>rate</td>
<td>entered</td>
<td>rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Electrical</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>184</td>
<td>66.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mechanical</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>43.4</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>-</td>
<td>76</td>
<td>26.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Civil</td>
<td>83</td>
<td>44.6</td>
<td>84</td>
<td>58.3</td>
<td>145</td>
<td>46.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computing</td>
<td>86</td>
<td>23.3</td>
<td>78</td>
<td>59.0</td>
<td>128</td>
<td>68.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Business</td>
<td>635</td>
<td>23.5</td>
<td>635</td>
<td>30.2</td>
<td>46</td>
<td>43.5</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

20
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Secretarial</th>
<th>10</th>
<th>20.0</th>
<th>267</th>
<th>42.7</th>
<th>641</th>
<th>59.0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Source: MOHET</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table: 8 Highest and Lowest Exam Pass rates for Colleges in KwaZulu Natal in 1998

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Band</th>
<th>Vocational Field</th>
<th>Highest exam pass rate</th>
<th>Lowest exam pass rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>FET</td>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>43%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>94%</td>
<td>32%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Utility &amp; Social Science</td>
<td>95%</td>
<td>44%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>HET</td>
<td>Engineering</td>
<td>70%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Business</td>
<td>91%</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Utility &amp; Social Science</td>
<td>89%</td>
<td>40%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source Kraak, A. & Hall, G. 1999

A comparative analysis of the above results shows that the 25 colleges in KwaZulu Natal performed far better in both Business and Engineering at Further Education Training [FET] and Higher Education Training [HET] level than colleges in Harare. For example, the pass rate for Business was 75% at FET level, 70% at HET and only 43.5% at Diploma level in Harare. Similarly, for engineering the results were 75%, 70% and 46.9% respectively. As Bennell [1999] puts it, pass rates for the diploma are low, which is a reflection of the poor quality training at MOHET training institutions.

### 3.5 Funding of Apprenticeship Programme

Zimbabwe uses the external approach of the levy grant system whereby a detailed list is made of approved forms of training and courses that are eligible for rebates. Companies are then invited to apply for cost reimbursement for these forms of mainly external training [Johanson and Adams: 2004].

#### 3.5.1 Central government

The central government funds VET through the MOHET whose budget in real terms increased on average by 6.3% per annum between 1991/2 and 1995/6. However, the corresponding figure for VET was -1.4%. Real expenditure per student fell by 41% between 1989 and 1995. There has been a considerable tightening of the budgetary process and colleges have found it difficult to honour payments to suppliers. Training has thus been affected at colleges.

#### 3.5.2 ZIMDEF

Increasing reliance has been placed on ZIMDEF. All registered employers must pay the equivalent of 1% of their payroll costs into the fund. In return they can apply for reimbursements of training costs at courses and other training activities that have been approved by ZIMDEF.

Since 1990, most consumables and equipment costs at polytechnics and technical colleges have been met from ZIMDEF with the MOHET covering salaries only. Employers’ organisations
feel this is a ‘diversion’ of ZIMDEF resources from funding job-related training which they see as the main purpose of the training levy.

Table 9: Utilisation of ZIMDEF resources 1990-1995 [percentage]

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>1990</th>
<th>1995</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apprenticeship</td>
<td>45.7</td>
<td>36.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Skilled worker</td>
<td>1.9</td>
<td>3.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Capital projects</td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>4.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employer rebates</td>
<td>6.3</td>
<td>8.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Equipment</td>
<td>0.3</td>
<td>5.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Consumables</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>15.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Industrial attachment</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td>17.6</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: ZIMDEF

Capital projects [these are business investment projects] fell from 39.9% in 1990 to 4.4% in 1995 and consumables took up 15.8% of the resources. Apprenticeship resources dwindled from 45.7% [nearly 50%] to 36% and there was an increase in industrial attachment from 2.6% to 17.6%. Employers got only 8.1% in 1995.

The polytechnics and technical colleges have sought other alternative sources of funding to alleviate the funding crisis, for example, they have introduced evening and weekend courses and production activities. The impact of these forms of funding has been minimal.

Government regulations require that all income earned by colleges is returned to the Treasury which acts as a major disincentive for college management and teaching staff to take income generation seriously.

3.6 Private sector VET in Zimbabwe

The private sector training [PST] landscape can be explained in terms of three categories namely church-based vocational training centres, NGOs involved in technical training and private sector-for-profit training institutions. Bennell [1997] estimates that in Harare alone there are around 60 formal, registered PTPs, 25 church-based and NGO PTPs and 90 unregistered home-based PTPs. Nationally there are over 350 training institutions.

3.6.1 Church-based training centres

According to the ILO/SAMAT [1995], the Roman Catholic Church has been involved in vocational training since the 1960s. It runs two Vocational Training Centres in Chinhoyi and the Driefontein Mission in Midlands. The centres train students in agricultural, construction, metalworking and tailoring skills. The courses, whose duration is three years, are predominantly practical with only 25% of the time earmarked to theory. The VTCs do not experience problems in trainers and facilities. The graduates receive a certificate from the training centre itself; they are usually not trade tested by the Ministry of Higher Education and Technology. Church-based VTCs do not qualify for funding from the government allocation [Haan, 2002:150].
The Jesuit Parish Ministries has hospitals, training centres and schools and orphanages the biggest being at Musami and Makumbi. They run courses meant to equip the youths with survival skills such as peer education, income generating and home based care for the terminally ill.

In addition, the Anglican Church Diocese of Manicaland [2004] notes that the Anglican Church has lay training centres in Manicaland province, where apart from parish teachings, there are also programmes to equip youth with skills to run income generating projects. They are also taught life skills. The Anglican Church also owns a Nurse Training Centre at Bonda Mission which runs a State Certified Nursing [SCN] Programme.

Youth with a Mission [YWAM] is a church organization which trains the youth in different skills. Through its "Training today’s youth for tomorrow’s future" initiative, the church supports and establishes links with local church leaders for youth pastors. Furthermore, there is a leadership development programme which is meant to groom youths and mentoring and internship opportunities are provided for the youths. Other programmes include the following:

- Literacy programmes
- Community Development Projects
- Agriculture Training
- Small Business Enterprise Programmes

According to the Sunday Mirror [25 September 1999] the Christian College of Southern Africa [CCOSA] runs two campuses in Harare and Mutare with an enrolment of 3000 students. It is affiliated to the University of Zimbabwe and other international bodies and offers certificate and diploma courses in secretarial, church ministry, computers, journalism and tuition in ‘O’ and ‘A’ level subjects. The college extends its educational services to students who come from Southern Africa, for example, students from Mozambique and Angola are offered English as a foreign language and those from Botswana and Zambia enroll for journalism.

3.6.2 NGO Training

There are a number of NGOs active in Zimbabwe with a broader mandate to support MSEs, which are involved in support of technical training activities. For example, ITDG Zimbabwe provides technical assistance to small engineering workshops in Highfields [Harare] and Gweru. It also supports the small-scale mining sector. ITDG on its own and another NGO, AP Tech and yet another internationally-based development organization-Environment and Development Activities Zimbabwe [ENDA] play a major role in the development and transfer of appropriate technologies to the MSE sector in Zimbabwe. They design and build new types of equipment, test these prototypes and provide support to groups of entrepreneurs who use the equipment [Haan, 2002:157].

Matshagalaga [2000] states that the Catholic Development Commission [CADEC] provides both funding and skills training for projects. As a pre-requisite for funding the beneficiaries are expected to pay either in cash or in kind 25% of the total funding. Skills training are provided in a variety of areas which include piggery, poultry, dairy, cattle fattening and project
management. Some of the micro projects that were assisted with skills training and funds include:

- Sawi Dairy Project
- Chimangwa Cattle Fattening
- Arts and Crafts and Soap Manufacturing
- Chikomba Cattle Fattening
- Murambinda Mission peanut and butter and oil pressing
- Nehanda Bakery

Through its Extension of Agribusiness Entrepreneur Network and Training Development, Care International aims to establish a sustainable network of 125 agents who provide support network to contribute to access to credit and skills for small holder communal farmers. Not only does the project contribute to agricultural development and enhance local productivity, but it also promotes the development of the private sector in Zimbabwe. The second phase of the programme known as Agent Two is funding the training and development of local people as traders who supply farm inputs to farmers in Mashonaland East and Mashonaland Central provinces [Care International, 2004].

Plan International’s Junior Achievement Programme [JAP] targets the youths aged between 11 to 25 years who live in Bulawayo city. It is based on the premise that wherever they live, children deserve the right to learn skills and tools they will need to find employment when they finish school. The youths are taught in the most practical way what it is like to run a small business. The JAP forms partnerships between companies and educators in order to provide entrepreneurship training to the young people either as an extra-curricular activity or as part of the school curriculum. Volunteers serve as leaders, advisors and role models to youth who in turn gain first hand experience in free enterprising and learn how a business functions. The programme also teaches children the importance of their own education within the business world and how this can improve their own lives and bring benefits to the whole community.

By helping children to gain business experience Plan International is helping children break free from the poverty cycle and preparing the ground for a successful, responsible adulthood [Plan International, 2004].

3.6.3 Private for Profit Training Providers

Bennell [2000] notes that over 150 PTPs mushroomed during the 1990s largely as a result of the availability of foreign exchange paving the way for the importation of computers to meet demand in business skills training. With the disappearance of the socialist inclinations of Government, there has been a greater recognition of the role of the private sector in training provision.

A total of 25 PTPs were surveyed by Bennell and it is estimated that of the 34 000 students enrolled, only 9% had concerns for technical training such as motor mechanics and tailoring. I surveyed eight institutions with an enrolment of 31 968 students mainly in business related subjects. [For details see Appendix 5].
Table 10: Importance of technical courses for PTPs

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Subject area</th>
<th>Percentage of enrolment</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Academic</td>
<td>14%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Secretarial &amp; commercial</td>
<td>38%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Computer</td>
<td>35%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>‘Technical’</td>
<td>5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tailoring</td>
<td>4%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Other</td>
<td>3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Bennell 1997

The non-technical training is directed mainly at those from the middle and higher classes already working so that training is given for a few hours only. The more technical training for self-employment is meant for the poorer strata especially school leavers. It therefore, takes a longer duration [often 6 months or longer] and during four more hours per day [Haan, 2002:163].

3.6.3.1 Training costs and revenues

Nearly all PTPs have to cover all their costs from the revenues raised from training. There is a wide variance in the training fees charged by these commercial training providers and the fees are not related to the training results. The monthly fees for the secretarial, commercial and computer courses are much higher than those charged for technical courses- the latter [except for motor mechanics] are 50-100% lower. Apparently fees, in addition to being based on a cost-plus formula, are determined by the status ["brand name"] of the PTP and the ability of the target group to pay. It is estimated that the profit margin of the large PTPs of technical training is 25-50%. Current costs stand at $Z 200 000 per month at leading private colleges like Speciss, Denmark and Trust Academy.

In his survey of 67 private training institutions Ncube [2003] found out that the top ten colleges take 55% of the market and the top five account for 40% of the total private sector enrolments. The most popular centres were Speciss [17%], Trust Academy [8%], Denmark [6%] and ZDECO [3%].

3.6.3.2 Problems and relations with Government

The major problem of the PTPs in the recent years has become the deteriorating economic situation in Zimbabwe leading to serious erosion of purchasing power of the prospective clients. Connected to this is the fierce competition from non-registered training providers. They are becoming popular because they charge lower fees but their quality is low as well [Bennell, 2000:55].
3.7 Training in the informal MSE economy

3.7.1 Size
McPherson’s survey [1998] indicates that in 1998 there were some 860 000 informal manufacturing, commercial and service establishments, employing a total of approximately 1 648 000 persons [24% of Zimbabwe’s working age population]. Almost 90% of the firms are full-time activities operating throughout the year. The survey reveals major changes in the informal enterprises and employment over the present decade. Urban informal economy establishments increased by over 30% between 1991 and 1998. Employment in the informal economy increased by nearly 52% and 9% in the urban and rural areas respectively.

3.7.2 Informal economy policy
The policies towards the MSE sector remained highly fragmented, with a large number of organizations, institutions and agencies involved in one way or the other in MSEs promotion, but in an uncoordinated often incidental fashion. The Rural Investment Overseas [1998: 15] best summarizes the Government policy when it states that, “the current policy environment is still not conducive for the development of new small enterprises”, hinting especially at the complexity and time-consuming nature of registration procedures.

3.8 Case Study: ISTARN Project
According to the ILO [2004] the Informal Sector Training and Resources Network [ISTARN] was initially begun in 1994 as a pilot project. It is a joint venture between the Government of Zimbabwe and the Government of the Federal Republic of Germany. The implementing Agency on behalf of Germany is the Gesellschaft fur Technische Zusammenarbeit [GTZ]. The project aims to provide vocational skills to persons in the informal sector with a bias towards the Traditional Apprenticeship Programme [TAP].

3.8.1 Advantages of TAP
TAP aims to stimulate the creation of self-employment by equipping the unemployed with marketable technical and business skills. It is a programme that utilizes existing infrastructure—apprentices are trained at the Technical Colleges using college lecturers. A range of trades are offered such as welding, carpentry, dressmaking, TV repair, refrigeration and solar electrical installation. It is a demand-driven programme which is also very flexible. It is as short and as long as is necessary. It is offered on an open-basis without a fixed predetermined curriculum. Above all, the vocational and technical skills are interwoven with entrepreneurial and business skills hence it is highly relevant to the needs of the trainees.

3.8.2 Training costs and financing
TAP operates on the 90-10 principle, meaning that “in an intervention such as TAP, where success is so dependent on the mind-set of the participant, the implementing agency offers an opportunity to be maxised; participants are expected to input 90% of the effort” [GTZ/ISTARN, 2000:21].

26
Table 11 Total Training Costs for different sectors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Total area</th>
<th>Total training cost [in Zim dollars]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Carpentry</td>
<td>8 228</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dressmaking</td>
<td>11 958</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Welding</td>
<td>11 707</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Radio &amp; TV repairs</td>
<td>13 020</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Motor mechanics</td>
<td>15 608</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Refrigeration</td>
<td>16 196</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Solar electrical install</td>
<td>12 688</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: GTZ/ ISTARN, 2000:20

3.8.3 Preliminary Assessment
The ISTARN Apprenticeship Programme presents some interesting innovations and appears to constitute indeed a “low cost route to relevant training”. It succeeds in building upon the strong points of the traditional apprenticeship system, without intervening and upsetting the intricate equilibrium that has grown over the period of many years [Haan, 2002:160].

3.9 Credit for the Informal Sector Project [CRISP]
Care International devised the CRISP with a view to promote the struggling entrepreneurs. In the project Care International is working with the Commercial Bank of Zimbabwe [CBZ] so as to allow a greater number of small, poor entrepreneurs to access financial services in the urban and rural areas. CRISP has given over 50 000 loans to poorer people over the past 7 years. Technical assistance is given to CBZ’s Community Banking Unit [CBU] to enable it to function effectively and efficiently. Given that Zimbabwe today is in social, political and economic crisis with 75% of all Zimbabweans classified as poor and an unemployment rate of over 70%, CRISP contributes in a small way towards increasing income and creating jobs by improving access to credit to the informal business. In surveys conducted by Care International it has emerged that the beneficiaries of the loans use part of the money for study purposes in such courses as credit management, record keeping and technical training[Care International, 2004].

3.10 Linking stakeholders in VET: the role of the National Manpower Advisory Council [NAMACO]
The body that tries to bring together stakeholders namely Government, employers, workers and professional institutes, in VET in Zimbabwe is the National Manpower Advisory Council [NAMACO], established by the Minister of Higher Education and Technology in terms of the Manpower Planning and Development Act [1994]. Its broad mandate allows it to propose new schemes for manpower development as well as to advise the Ministry on ways to improve existing programmes. The MOHET has stated that it requires more input from users of skilled
workers and urges them to inform NAMACO of their needs. This is thought to ensure that training institutions would provide education in skills that are relevant to the workplace.

The information on the section below is based on the NAMACO [2001].

3.10.1 NAMACO’s vision
NAMACO’s vision is “to be the leading body that strengthens national human resource capacity through training and development in order to facilitate economic growth, employment creation, and public/private sector partnership co-operation”.

3.10.2 Target groups of NAMACO
The target groups include:
- Industry and Commerce;
- National Employment Councils [NECs];
- Training providers;
- MOHET and other ministries;
- Trade Testing Department [TTD] in MOHET;
- The Public; and
- Curriculum Development Unit.

3.10.3 Objectives
NAMACO is guided by the following objectives:
- To advise for better wages to be given to apprentices;
- To encourage manpower development programmes through offering rebates and subsidies [done through ZIMDEF] for approved training;
- To encourage employers, through their associations, to continue to offer/sponsor training for their workers;
- To persuade employers to allow and support skills upgrading for their workers

NAMACO is also concerned with constraints which affect the country’s technical colleges and suggests solutions such as:
- Improvement of the conditions of service for lecturers;
- Recommending the payment of some incentives to specialists from industry to take up part-time lecturing in areas where adequately lecturers are in short supply;
- Recommending the use of ZIMDEF funds to supplement Treasury allocation for the purchase and maintenance of equipment for colleges.

3.10.4 Functions of NAMACO
NAMACO has been granted authority by the MOHET in these areas:
- Designation of trades and occupations;
- Establishment and review of occupational profiles;
- Accreditation of courses;
- Establishment and maintenance of a comprehensive National Human Resources Database [NHRDB].
3.10.5 Composition
NAMACO comprises 21 members who represent various professional, industrial and commercial organizations in Zimbabwe [See Appendix 4 for NAMACO’s members].

The representatives are nominees of the various organizations who then get appointed by the Minister of MOHET. In addition, there are advisory committees on which representatives of employees, employers and training providers do sit.

3.11 Conclusion
Whilst Zimbabwe has a fairly developed VET infrastructure, there are institutional impediments that are militating against the creation of a broad VET policy framework necessary for the inculcation of appropriate skills that industry desperately needs. The result is that employers are starved of graduates with suitable employable skills the labour market needs.
There is need for close cooperation between the public and private sector in VET issues. As UNICEF rightly observes, "Through a deliberate cooperation between the training institutions and the industries the institutions become aware of job opportunities for which they should train the youth. Conversely, the industries also become aware of the manner that can benefit from the training institution. Through this type of cooperation industries can also use the technical and vocational institutions as recruitment grounds for their trainees" [UNICEF, 1996:25].
CHAPTER 4

PRESENTATION AND ANALYSIS OF SURVEY DATA

4.1 Introduction
This chapter presents the findings of a survey conducted in Zimbabwe on VET issues and an analysis of these findings. The policy implications for the VET policy, the ZIMDEF, curriculum and public–private partnership are explored. What follows is a presentation and analysis of the data that was collected through the survey.

4.2 Data presentation and analysis of responses to the survey

4.2.1 Background of respondents

The table below shows the organizations that participated in the survey.

Table 12: Organisations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Institutions</th>
<th>Percentage [%]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Public training institution</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private training institution</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government department</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parastatal</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private company</td>
<td>40.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings further revealed that 18.8% of the respondents were Training Officers, 12.5% were Human Resource Managers and a further 12.5% were Chief Trainers and 3.1% represented General Manager Post [See appendix 3 for positions of respondents].

The varied nature of informants ranging from Executive Officer, Lecturer, and Assistant Registrar to Director Level ensured that people with different experiences and views on VET issues in Zimbabwe could enshrine useful lessons for the improvement of the VET system.

Table 13: Gender of the respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sex</th>
<th>Percentage [%]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>F</td>
<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>M</td>
<td>71.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
This gender distribution aptly depicts the reality in Zimbabwe’s world of work especially in professions like human resource management where men tend to dominate.

Figure 4: Highest educational level

The results indicated that 50% of the respondents were Bachelor’s Degree holders.

The fact that the majority of the respondents had a Bachelor’s and Master’s degrees reflects the relationship between one’s educational attainment and the position one might get. The human resource practitioners are fairly well educated in Zimbabwe.

It was found out that 34.4% of respondents had been working in their current portfolios for 6-10 years [See appendix 2 for working experience of respondents at current job].

4.2.2 Policy issues

Table 14: Awareness of a Vocational Training Policy in Zimbabwe

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percent [%]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>84.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Partially</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The findings indicated that 84.4% of the respondents were aware of the VET policy.
This question was closely intertwined with an open question which invited respondents to comment on what they thought about the VET policy. The respondents gave a range of answers including the following:

*It needs change;*
*It is in bad shape;*
*Sounds good on paper but does not practically address concerns for which it was drafted;*
*It’s a bit quiet and very few people are conversant with it;*
*Too narrow focused. It should open up to needs of employers.*

The general picture emerging from these comments is that the VET policy does not effectively address the challenges confronting the VET system to enable it to boost productivity and employability.

**Table 15: The views reflected in the VET policy cross tabulated with organisation**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent's Organisation</th>
<th>The VET policy in Zimbabwe reflects the views of</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Government</td>
<td>Private sector</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public training institution</td>
<td>37.5%</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private training institution</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government department</td>
<td>0%</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parastatal</td>
<td>50%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private company</td>
<td>69.2%</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results show divergent perspectives with 69.2% of the private companies stating that the VET policy reflects views of Government; 50% of the parastatals felt it reflected the views of Government. However, 66.7% of Government departments stated that the policy reflected views of both.

In response to the question on whether the VET policy caters for the needs of all major stakeholders—government and employers, the respondents said:

*I can’t say;*
*No, it’s government—oriented;*
*The VET policy seems to partly cater for private sector and mainly for government;*
*Yes, it does, but there should be wider consultation with all stakeholders;*
*No, too academic and usually intended to serve political interests;*
*Not really because it does not train people to be employers but rather to be employees.*

The main message being articulated is that in the perspective of the private sector, the VET policy negates the needs of industry.
Table 16: Needs not included in the VET policy

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percent [%]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apprenticeship Programme</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Expenditure of ZIMDEF</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Curriculum design</td>
<td>34.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don't know</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Not applicable</td>
<td>28.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results showed that 34.4% of the respondents stated that curriculum design was a need not reflected in the VET policy.

Table 17: The VET policy is promoting the skills needed by industry cross tabulated with organisation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent's Organisation</th>
<th>The VET policy is promoting the right skills needed by industry</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public training institution</td>
<td>62.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private training institution</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government department</td>
<td>66.7%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parastatal</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private company</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results show a paralysis between the public and private sector with 62.5% of public training institutions and 66.7% of government departments agreeing with the statement and 69.3% of the private companies, 75% of parastats and 50% of the private training institutions disagreeing with the statement. This finding truly reflects the public sector notion that it is churning out right skills whilst the general private sector perspective is that industry is not getting the right skills.

This scenario points to a lack of communication between the main VET actors—government and industry—on crucial issues of what an appropriate VET policy should constitute. The creation of a body in the mould of a National Training Authority could go a long way in ensuring smooth communication between employers and government in mutual issues of concern pertaining to the VET policy.

The above question was related to another question which invited respondents to state whether the VET policy should be reviewed, and if so which elements need to be accommodated. In response to this question the informants provided the following answers:

Yes, the private sector should have greater participation in curriculum design and quality control;
Yes, new technology should be emphasised.
Yes, there should be diversification of skills to meet economic changes.
Yes, the vocational element is ignored.
Technical competence needs attention.
It must be market-driven.

It can be seen clearly that respondents felt that the VET policy did not tackle the concerns of industry; as such the curriculum was devoid of vocational and new technological elements which made students employable and productive.

My findings are supported by the Nziramasanga Report [1999:49] which notes that, “The organization and management of Vocational and Technical Education and Training is perceived by stakeholders as rigid, bureaucratic, centralized and not relevant to the changing demands and needs of the economy”.

It is one thing to have excellent objectives as pronounced in the Manpower Development Act [1994] and the other to bring them to fruition. The policy is not broad enough to flexibly incorporate perspectives of the main stakeholders—the employers. Global trends show that employers are increasingly influencing the way the Apprenticeship Programmes are run. For instance, Gill et al. [2000] note that in Germany under the dual system, job specific training is financed and organized by employers who have a vested interest in ensuring that relevant skills are taught cost effectively. Employers’ associations examine the quality of apprenticeship programmes offered by firms. Similarly, the Irish experience shows that social partners like employers have a big stake in the way the graduates are trained. The Irish Confederation of Employers plays a key role: it has seats as advisors in training boards [FAS]; sits in award bodies established by the Qualification Act; is represented in the Experts Group Skills Needs and has developed a role in developing vocational training on a pilot basis [Forfás:2001].

4.2.3 ZIMDEF

Table 18: Views on ZIMDEF levy cross tabulated with organization

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent’s Organisation</th>
<th>In your view the Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund [ZIMDEF] levy is</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>too high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public training institution</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private training institution</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government department</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parastatal</td>
<td>75%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private company</td>
<td>61%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results once more show the sharp divide between the public sector and the private sector with 61.5% of the private companies and 75% of parastatals stating that the levy is
too high; however, 66.7% of government departments and 50% of public training institutions stated that the levy is just right. This shows the differences between those who are spending [always too much] and those who are receiving [always too low].

Figure 5: ZIMDEF endangers the profitability of companies

![ZIMDEF Levy Endangers Profitability of Companies](image)

The results indicated that on the whole 56.3% of the respondents agreed with the statement that the compulsory levy endangers the profitability of companies.

Responding to the question on what they considered to be the views of the employers regarding the ZIMDEF, the following statements were provided:

* Necessary evil.
* Good but employers need to be involved in policy formulation and design.
* It is exploitative.
* Cumbersome.
* Employers are disgruntled by the current ZIMDEF mechanism because it takes a lot of money from industry yet quality graduates are not being trained.
* It is too high.

Regarding the management of the ZIMDEF the respondents expressed these views:

* Not efficient.
* No, instead of catering for the needs of apprentices, the fund is beefing up MOHET.
* There are complaints of corruption.
* Yes, they are trying their best.
* There is gross mismanagement. I think the management of ZIMDEF is partially efficient.
* There is need for transparency in the administration of collected funds from employers.
One can see a combination of mixed reactions regarding the ZIMDEF but the general picture painted by the responses is that the levy is disliked by employers who allege the existence of corruption and mismanagement in the administration of the levy.

UNICEF [1996:140] reinforces these findings by stating that employers are very displeased by the mandatory levy. The displeasure stems from what they view as mismanagement and deviations from the original intention of the fund. It is useful to explore the objectives for which the ZIMDEF is meant. ZIMDEF was established to carry out the following functions:

- To finance the training and employment of apprentices in specified industries;
- To finance the cost of any scheme for Manpower Development or other costs in connection with vocational education training;
- To account for the levy paid by the employers; and
- To account for apprentices’ bonding contributions.

Rather than keep on funding these core activities, employers are irate because ZIMDEF is allegedly being mismanaged and channeled to the wrong things such as maintaining hostels, meeting consumables and equipment at the polytechnics and technical colleges. “Employers’ organizations believe this is a serious ‘diversion’ of ZIMDEF resources from funding job-related training which they see as the main purpose of the levy”, writes Bennell [1993:452] and this is supported by my findings. Employers therefore feel that to refocus back to the core business of the fund is necessary if the quality of apprenticeship training is to be achieved.

In my view if employers were getting value for their money they would not cry foul over the 1% levy. The levy, as I see it, is legitimate but what is illegitimate is the unprofessional administration of the fund which allows officials to expend the ZIMDEF coffers on non-core issues. The core issues remain funding the training activities related to developing the human resource base for industry to be more productive.

### 4.2.4 Curricula issues

Table 19: The private sector knows best how to design good curriculum cross tabulated with organisation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent’s Organisation</th>
<th>The private sector knows best how to design good curriculum</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public training institution</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private training institution</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government department</td>
<td>33.3%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parastatal</td>
<td>25%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private company</td>
<td>23.1%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The results show that 84% of private companies, 50% of parastatals, 100% of government departments, 75% of private training institutions and 50% of the public training institutions agree with the statement that the private sector knows best how to design good curriculum. Only a sizeable portion of public training institutions disagree.

**Figure 6: Views on adequacy of the curriculum**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Views on the adequacy of the curriculum in preparing students for entry into labour market</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Inadequate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The result showed that 46% of the respondents felt that the curriculum was inadequate. The curriculum issue was implicitly raised in a question on whether the VET policy is promoting the right skills needed by industry.
Figure 7: VET policy is promoting the right skills needed by industry.

The VET policy is promoting right skills needed by industry

- 37%
- 19%
- 31%
- 13%

[Agree □ Disagree □ Strongly disagree □ N/A]

The results indicated that 37% of the respondents agreed with the statement but on the whole 50% disagreed with the statement. Figures 7 & 8 consistently show an inadequate curriculum which is not promoting right skills for industry.

In response to the question on which skills should be emphasized to meet the current labour market needs, respondents gave these responses:

- Practical skills
- Computer skills
- Communication skills
- Agrarian skills
- Commercially –oriented skills
- Technical skills
- Soft and human skills
- Life skills on HIV and AIDS
- Entrepreneurship skills

The results generally point out that the present curriculum is inadequate; it does not prepare trainees well for penetration into the labour market and skills that need emphasis include technical, computer, soft and entrepreneurial skills. This points to a lack of liaison between the government and employers in designing and implementing the VET policy yet industry feels that it has a significant stake in the design of the VET policy and curriculum.
4.2.5 Quality of trainers

Table 20: Quality of trainers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percent [%]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Very good</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Good</td>
<td>43.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Bad</td>
<td>37.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Very bad</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I don’t know</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results indicated that 43.8% of the respondents felt that the quality of training was good and 50% indicated that it was bad to very bad. This is also shown in some of the comments received:

*It is not up to scratch.*
*Leaves a lot to be desired.*
*Fair but deteriorating.*
*Low.*
*Affected by lack of resources.*
*Mediocre.*
*Trainers not creative.*

There is a mixed bag of reactions indicating that good trainers still exist in the public training institutions but to avoid worsening standards, resources should be channeled towards the training system.

These findings are buttressed by the Presidential Commission’s report [1999] which noted that the linkages between industry and technical colleges were weak in terms of:

- Defining the skills demand of occupations;
- Determining the most appropriate technologies to be taught;
- Flexibility of curricula content to cater for changing needs of industry;
- Little applied research in technical colleges.

The public training institutions in Zimbabwe like many others, exhibit common constraints that Middleton et al. [1995] have identified such as the isolation from the labour market, inadequate funding, a weak training system, constrained cost budgets and weak information links with employers and institutional constraints. These inadequate resources continue to adversely affect curriculum development, training and retraining and testing activities which are crucial aspects for effective adjustment to new skill demands.

Indeed, employers in Zimbabwe decry the very poor quality of instruction at most of the technology institutions such as Harare Polytechnic, Harare Institute of Technology and the Bulawayo Polytechnic where most of the engineering apprentices enroll for their
formal off—the job training. Chronic staffing problems which are mainly due to very poor salaries and other conditions of service offered to lecturers most of whom have marketable qualifications—are the main cause of the rapid decline in training standards. This has since translated to a serious brain drain as the experienced lecturers leave for greener pastures in the private sector or abroad. Employers now feel that there is little point in sponsoring apprentices when they cannot receive timely and good quality instruction. Faced with this scenario, employers are increasingly internalizing their training activities with primary emphasis on informal on-the-job training for semiskilled workers [UNICEF 1996:140].

It is possible to inject quality into the public training institutions by running them through market-oriented lines. The Chilean case is a good example. Vasquez Corvalan (1994) shows how there was a transition from public to private training delivery in Chile. The delivery of vocational training was originally the concern of the public sector in Chile. However, the system evolved into a structure in which the State does not offer training but finances and controls the use of public funds according to market demand. Under this market-oriented system, the private training agencies sell their services to enterprises and execute government-sponsored training programmes. The Government also subsidises enterprise-based training through tax rebates. In addition, it finances training for those who have no access to enterprise-based training. Zimbabwe can borrow a leaf from such programmes and improve the quality of its graduates.

4.2.6 Employability of trainees

Figure 8: Students who complete training are easily employable

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Students who complete training are easily employable</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>25% Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was discovered that 53% of the respondents disagreed with the statement and only 3% strongly agreed that graduates are easily employable.
Figure 9: Students find a job that conforms to their learned skills

The results showed that 50% of the respondents disagreed with the statement that students find a job that conforms to their learned skills.

Figure 10: The skills students learn are in demand in the labour market

The results showed that on the whole 68.8% of the respondents disagreed with the statement that students acquire skills that are in demand in the labour market.
The findings indicated that 53.1% of the respondents noted that it takes 6 months for a graduate to find a job. Commenting on whether students who complete training are easily employable, respondents answered in this manner:

*No, this is mainly because of lack of relevance of what students learn and lack of practical skills.*
*No, the economy is in bad shape; besides, graduates have useless papers.*
*No, many roam the streets after college.*

These results clearly indicate that graduates are not easily employable in the labour market due to a number of factors among them irrelevant courses and the harsh economic climate.

Luguijo and Manyindo in UNICEF [1996:51] posit that one way to boost the employability of trainees is to foster cooperation between VET institutions and enterprises. This could be done in the form of industrial training for students, study tours, organizing seminars and workshops and joint projects between the small scale sector and institutions. As in the case of Uganda, industrial training is organized in each of the technical and vocational institutions and universities through the Department of Industrial Training. The main duty of this department is the placement of students during their training. In most cases students are fully absorbed in the operational process of the enterprise. During their training lecturers from the vocational training institutions visit the students to assess and discuss their training progress in their programmes. As a result lecturers are given an opportunity to discuss informally any technical issues that may lead to joint projects.
Furthermore, the informal economy, which is employing the bulk of the school leavers and the graduates from the tertiary institutions, is not taken seriously in Zimbabwe. It is high time Government recognizes the crucial role played by the informal economy. Trends in the developing world particularly in West Africa show that governments are acknowledging the informal economy as an important actor and financial resources are channeled to this sector to meet its skills development needs. There is quite a lot from the Kenyan Informal Sector Training Fund for equity and growth. The International Institute for Educational Planning [IIEP] [1997] states that Kenya has recently established a micro and small enterprise training fund to upgrade skills in the formal sector in an innovative partnership between the Government and the Jua Kali Association for the Informal Sector. The main aim is to develop demand-driven training and enhance cost-sharing for enterprise-based skills upgrading. Public funds are channelled on a competitive basis to training providers. The fund is jointly managed by the public/private members appointed by the Minister for Research, Technical Training and Technology, with three representatives of the Kenya Federation of Jua Kali Associations, three from the Government, and four from organizations working with the informal sector. Training vouchers are also used to encourage training in small firms.

4.2.7 Role of Government and the private sector in VET provision in Zimbabwe

Table 21: Government only should have a monitoring role in VET provision

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Response</th>
<th>Percent [%]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>25.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>53.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>100.0</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It was found out that 62.5% of the respondents disagreed or strongly disagreed that government only should have a monitoring role in VET provision.

In reply to the question on what role the private sector should play in VET provision the following statements were given:

*Leading in funding.*
*Provision of equipment and facilities.*
*Monitoring role as they have experienced professionals.*
*Training expertise.*
*Participate in skills identification as consumers.*
*Technical back up*
*Quality assurance*
*Curriculum reform*
*Monitor ZIMDELF expenditure*
*Policy formulation and implementation*
In response to the question on the role of government, respondents stated that government should:

- **Provide policy framework.**
- **Create enabling environment/appropriate macro-economic conditions**
- **Subsidize training costs**
- **Provide infrastructure**
- **Provide grants and loans**
- **Regulate training activities**
- **Coordinate and facilitate in bringing all stakeholders together.**

The findings indicate that both the government and the private sector have complementary roles to play: the government's role mainly lies in creation of an enabling environment, policy framework, and regulation and subsidizes while the private sector bank rolls the VET programme, monitors quality and provides technical and professional input.

It is generally recognized that by encouraging a greater diversity of VET providers, competition in the open market gives consumers a wider choice thereby improving the quality of training offered. However, as the situation stands on the ground in Zimbabwe, public institutions are not subjecting themselves to the same incentives and competitive mechanisms as the private sector. There is no contracting out of VET using performance-based contracting.

In terms of ensuring equity of access to training—the government has done well to put in place a mechanism that helps the disadvantaged. For example, the Vocational Training Loan [VTL] is a scheme which extends loans to students at tertiary institutions and they are expected to reimburse the government once they start working. By so doing the state has reaffirmed Johanson and Adam’s [2004:85] assertion that, **"the state has a clear role to promote equity in access and can use its financing in targeted fashion to achieve this goal in state-sponsored and non governmental sources of skills training".**

The heavy MOHET bureaucracy is perpetuating curricula rigidity in the VET system. Individual institutions are not autonomous as shown by centralized curricula decisions and civil service regulations that discourage revenue generation activities at public training institutions.

Private sector training institutions still operate under a disabling environment especially strict registration procedures. In terms of profitability, it is generally held that private training provision is a lucrative business. No wonder private sector training provision is quickly outstripping public sector training as witnessed by increasing enrolment figures.
4.2.8 Strategic partnership between Government and the private sector

Figure 12: The political environment is enabling for a strategic partnership between government and employers in VET provision

It was indicated that 72% of the respondents opposed the view that the political climate was conducive to the establishment of a strategic collaboration between the employers and the government in VET programmes.

Figure 13: The economic environment is enabling for a strategic partnership between government and employers in VET provision
On the whole 65.7% of the respondents opposed the statement that economic conditions promoted a strategic partnership between the government and the employers.

**Figure 14: Rating the collaboration between the government and the private sector**

The results show that on the whole 68.8% of the respondents felt that the level of collaboration was low.

**Table 22: The existing business environment is good for employers to collaborate with the Government in VET provision cross tabulated with organizations**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Respondent’s organisation</th>
<th>The existing business environment is good for employers to collaborate with the government in VET provision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public training institution</td>
<td>12.5%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private training institution</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Government department</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Parastatal</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Private company</td>
<td>0%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

It can be clearly seen that 75% of public training institutions, 75% of private training institutions, 66.6% of government departments, 100% of parastatals and 77% of private companies disagree or strongly disagree that the existing business environment is good for employers to collaborate with government in VET provision.
Indeed, the prevailing political, economic and social scenario is not conducive for an effective collaboration between the government and the private sector. This points to a need to uphold the rule of law, respect for private property and institute a fiscal policy that does not promote capital flight but instead instill business confidence in Zimbabwe.

In response to the question on the level of collaboration between Government and the private sector and whether it can be improved, respondents gave these remarks:

*Very weak, industry does not trust Government in VET issues.*

*It is at low ebb. Confidence should be built first and to do this Government has to incorporate views of employers.*

*Weak as industry feels that Government is bullying its way through.*

These results indicate that there is no strong collaboration between the government and employers. There is a general outcry from employers that Government is disregarding the voice of industrial representatives.

Though the NAMACO was set up to coordinate collaborative activities between Government and employers in VET, the role of industry and workers in NAMACO has been peripheral since the MOHET appears to dominate the deliberations. Structurally the NAMACO’s organizational arrangement does not give industry much leverage in terms of achieving change that improves the VET system. The Minister of Education appoints the members, some of whom are not well-acquainted with the needs of industry.

It is implied in the findings that the NAMACO has failed to clear the barriers that are militating against a strong partnership between the government and industry in terms of VET provision. The NAMACO is not acting as a strong forum for discussion between training institutions and employers to thrash out pertinent issues relating to industrial training guidelines, the curriculum and working conditions. This lack of communication is reinforcing a negative attitude and mistrust between employers and Government.

There are some countries with private/public partnerships working very well. In Malaysia for example, there is a partnership for competitiveness in global markets. Wong Yuk [1998] states that the objective of the Malaysian training policy, as established in the Second Outline Perspective Plan, 1990-2000, is to create a strong basis for education and training in order to prepare the economy for global competition. Integral to this policy is greater involvement by the private sector in the provision of industrial training. Under this system, the involvement of the private sector involves the development of the curriculum, the provision of enterprise-based training, the development of skills for new technologies and job placement for apprentices. Two initiatives adopted under the Plan cover the industrial attachment of trainers and the sharing of private sector/ facilities and instructors, especially through the skill development set up in various states.
4.3 Conclusion

The main findings clearly indicate the need to re-orientate the VET policy in a way that reflects the skills needs of the labour market. Industry therefore, should command a respectable place in the whole VET partnership in Zimbabwe. However, this social space has not been created for employers; it is still the same old story of business as usual with the government directing all VET operations and the employers watching helplessly. The situation is made even more desperate by the fact that since 2000 the prevailing political, economic and social environment has not been conducive for a meaningful partnership between the government and employers in VET provision. The barriers that militate against a meaningful government-private sector partnership should be identified and removed and dialogue between the two main VET stakeholders should be on a continuous basis.

The next chapter tries to come up with practical pathways that might help to forge a skills development platform necessary to propel Zimbabwe into the coming decades.
CHAPTER 5

REVAMPING AND RE-ORIENTING THE VET SYSTEM IN ZIMBABWE

5.1 Introduction
Gill et al. [2000:30] observe that the problem of strengthening the links between VET and employment preoccupies policy makers in all countries. In developing countries where economic growth is slow, the concern arises due to growing unemployment among the young people. Such a scenario calls for a re-examination of the curriculum with a view to make it more vocational and to involve employers in schooling decisions.

Such a problem exists in the Zimbabwe VET system as well in particular; as demonstrated by my findings; main weaknesses pertain to a weak policy framework, unprofessional administration of the ZIMDEF, a rigid curriculum that is unresponsive to the needs of industry and an unfavourable climate for a strategic partnership between Government and employers.

This situation points to an urgent need to re-orientate the VET system in a view to make it more responsive to the needs of industry. In the light of this observation, I make recommendations to address specific constraints of the Zimbabwe VET system as outlined below.

5.2 Forging a strategic partnership between government and the private sector in VET

In Zimbabwe the business environment is not enabling for a strategic partnership between Government and employers largely because there has been a failure on Government’s part to add value to the cooperation with NAMACO by integrating this body at a level into national VET policies and strategies. Employers feel NAMACO has not been able to articulate the views of employers loud enough and they see it merely as an appendage of the government. In recognition of this fact, there is need to forge a partnership based on mutually agreed needs and on an analysis of effective past practices. It is vital for Government to forge a strategic partnership with employers by demonstrating what Mitchell [1998:54] aptly terms “political will and readiness to create an enabling political and business environment conducive for effective human resource development”.

The author proposes that the NAMACO be dissolved and a properly functioning National Training Authority [NTA] be formed. The NTA should be autonomous, not attached to any one ministry, nor located in the Office of the President. To be demand-driven, the governance structure of the NTA must be representative of all key stakeholders in the
economy as a whole. Employers must have a strong sense of identity and ownership otherwise the NTA will be perceived as essentially a government body which does not represent their interests and seek to meet their needs. The NTA should be able to clear barriers that exist between Government and employers. It should be tasked to:

- Remove negative attitudes and mistrust between Government and employers;
- Act as a forum for discussion and dialogue between training institutions, government and industry;
- Advise on government policy on industry-training institutions cooperation.

The NTA should within its ranks establish a number of committees or departments responsible for specific VET issues among them, a Finance Committee and an Industrial Training Department to oversee finance issues and cooperation between industry and government respectively.

It is further proposed that the NTA should foster the establishment of a public-private partnership similar to that in Malaysia in which there is emphasis on competitiveness in global markets. Under the Second Outline Perspective Plan 1990-2000, the involvement of the private sector entails the development of the curricula, the development of skills for new technologies and job placement for apprentices. Two initiatives adopted under this Plan cover the attachment of trainers and the sharing of private sector facilities and instructors, especially through the skill development centres set up in various places.

Such interactive activities bringing together the private and the public sector goes a long way in terms of cross-fertilisation of ideas and this makes the graduates from training centres highly employable.

5.3 Improving VET policy strategies

There is need to create more social space for employers, who together with Government, are significant actors in the VET system. The present analytical base for the VET policy traditionally includes an assessment of skills demand through manpower requirements forecast and a plan for expanding skills supply, generally through the construction of public training institutions. As Rondinelli et al. [1990:51] rightly observe, "though useful in some respects, this kind of analysis misses completely the more dynamic aspects of economic environment ...It also ignores the actual potential contribution of employer and private training."

The VET policy should shift its emphasis from achieving social goals to meeting the needs of the market. This can be achieved through an expanded analytical approach which takes on board perspectives from the private sector. The experiences of Germany's dual system in which social partners are active in the VET system and the Irish training system demonstrate that VET systems can succeed in meeting the needs of industry.
5.4 Transparency in ZIMDEF administration

The findings highlighted the fact that employers are irked by the high ZIMDEF levy and more so by its improper administration. This general complaint is likely to have ripple effects on employer–Government relationship in VET issues.

It is proposed that the National Training Authority, the autonomous body to oversee VET issues should have within its ranks a Finance Committee. Such a committee could go a long way in weeding the ZIMDEF of unethical administration practices. Furthermore, Government should empower employers to decide the use of ZIMDEF. The Finance Committee should be mandated with the task of overseeing the disbursement of ZIMDEF in order to make the process more transparent and acceptable to employers who are the sponsors of the programme. This arrangement is likely to raise the confidence of employers in the management of ZIMDEF.

5.5 Improving the quality of the curriculum and training

Curriculum constraints and the mediocrity of the training demonstrate an inherent institutional incapacity in the VET system in Zimbabwe. In order to improve this situation the researcher advances the following proposals:

5.5.1 Addressing institutional constraints

A respondent aptly highlighted the weakness of the VET policy and the curriculum by stating that the policy “does not train people to be employers but rather to be employees”. To address institutional constraints like curricula rigidity, weak management and lack of autonomy that bedevil public training institutions today in Zimbabwe, it is recommended that the formation of the NTA can go a long way in bridging the gap public providers and the labour market. Employers should be empowered in the design of the curricula since they know the needs of their specific industries. Training providers are encouraged to link up with employers as closely as possible. Cooperation with employers develops the information that is needed for training and with the help of the NTA, public training providers should be able to analyse the labour market, evaluate training programmes and adjust their curricula accordingly.

5.5.2 Internal restructuring

Accelerating the pace of organisational reform among public sector training institutions should be a top priority. It is clear that rapid deterioration in the level of financial support has meant that the institutions have been unable to maintain training standards. Given the severity of the fiscal crises in Zimbabwe, it is unrealistic to expect any significant reversals in the funding situation for VET.

The Chilean case should enshrine instructive lessons on how to run institutions along market–oriented lines. Structures should be developed similar to those in Chile in which the state does not offer training but finances and controls the use of public finds according to market demands. The private training agencies should sell their services to enterprises and execute government–sponsored training programmes.
5.6 Boosting the employability of the trainees
To increase the relevance of the courses that students do in schools and colleges, there is a need for a realignment of the Apprenticeship Programme and School-based Programmes to meet the expectations of employers. One way to do this is to cooperate with the employers themselves.

It is proposed that an Industrial Training Department be established within the ranks of the National Training Authority. The main duties of this committee will be the placement of students during their training. Such an arrangement ensures that students are fully absorbed in the operational process of the enterprise. During their training, lecturers from the VET institutions visit the students to assess and discuss their progress in their programmes. This helps to ensure that what is taught at training institutions is in line with what industry wants.

5.7 Assistance to the Informal Economy
It is recommended that Government should formulate a clear policy on MSE and establish an institutional framework to coordinate the implementation of the informal economy policy. Government should acknowledge that IE actors as significant players contributing to the economic development of the country.

There is need for Government to work closely with other stakeholders like NGOs who are already promoting the activities of IE members. It is further recommended that more financial resources be channeled by Government into the Informal economy training programmes. Useful insights can be drawn from the Kenyan case whereby Government is working closely with the Jua Kali Association for the informal economy and has established a micro and small enterprise training fund to upgrade skills in the informal economy in a creative collaboration. Public funds are channeled on a competitive basis to ensure that the system is market driven.

5.8 Re-visiting the role of the government and the private sector in VET
In Zimbabwe the state has assumed a dual role of being both a player and the referee with regards to the VET system. There is need for a paradigm shift in the role of the state essentially to necessitate movement from a supply-driven to a demand-driven VET system. The state should stick to the following roles:
  ➢ Designing a policy framework in consultation with all stakeholders including the employers;
  ➢ Creating appropriate macro-economic conditions and to adopt a long term perspective for training necessary for the production of competent human resource needed by industry;
  ➢ Moving away from supplier to purchaser of VET services;
  ➢ Building the VET infrastructure and provision of material and financial resources in tandem with employers;
Moving away from management to co-partner in training.
The private sector's role should mainly entail:
- Taking a leading role in funding the VET system;
- Provision of technical expertise;
- Advisory role in curricula design and policy formulation;
- Ensuring that quality is maintained in training.

The research questions guiding this paper were:
1. What is the VET policy and how does this VET policy work in Zimbabwe?
2. Is the current Government VET provision adequate?
3. What emerging roles should the government and the private sector play in a strategic partnership in VET provision in Zimbabwe?
4. What policy recommendations should be made to encourage an environment that enhances partnership in VET provision?

It has emerged from this study that the VET policy is enshrined in the Manpower Development Act and the MOHET controls VET activities. It has been shown that Government VET provision is inadequate and the main difficulty confronting this system is that what is being taught is not necessarily what employers need; the discrepancies tend to persist without any perceptible efforts being made to correct them. In the light of this observation there is need, therefore, for a paradigm shift in the VET programme so that what VET institutions churn out is not at cross purpose with potential employers' expectations.

It has been argued that there is need for a re-visititation of the government and private sector roles in VET provision. In order to transform the system from a supply-driven to a demand driven one the state and the private sector should assume new roles. Policy recommendations have been suggested that are meant to encourage an environment that enhances partnership in VET provision.

All in all, arrangements have to be made to bring VET institutions closer to the world of employment and to this end the establishment of a National Training Authority will go a long way in fostering strong communication between training institutions, government and employers.

The current institutional arrangements do not promote a strong partnership between major stakeholders notably Government and the private sector and unless and until a new institutional body is created to revamp and re-orientate the direction of the VET system in Zimbabwe, graduates will continue to be largely unemployable.

In this context of globalization characterized by fierce competition on the global market any country should take pride in its human resources as a pillar of strategic advantage. This advantage can surely be built by pursuing a national skills development strategy that is supported by both employers and Government. The formation of a National Training Authority would mark a milestone towards this step in Zimbabwe.
Notwithstanding the foregoing, the current socio-political-economic scenario prevailing in Zimbabwe and its potential impact on strategies to revamp the VET system casts its shadow. The IMF’s September 2004 statement paints this picture:

"Zimbabwe’s social and economic conditions have continued to deteriorate, mainly reflecting inadequate economic policies and structural changes that weakened the economic base. In particular, the disorderly implementation of the land reform programme has contributed to a sharp reduction in agricultural production. Concerns over governance, the rule of law and human rights, and the continued lack of clarity about property rights have severely damaged confidence, discouraged investment and promoted capital flight and emigration, thus contributing to economic decline. Unemployment is very high and increasing, social indicators have worsened and the widespread HIV/AIDS pandemic remains largely unchecked. Severe food shortages have necessitated massive food imports and donor assistance” [IMF Consultative Report on Zimbabwe, September 2004].

My research findings also point to a political and economic climate that is not supportive of public-private sector partnership in VET system. In the light of these observations, the success of the collaborative engagement between Government and the private sector in VET strategic partnership through the NTA to a large extent hinges on the speed with which normalcy returns to the socio-political-economic landscape in Zimbabwe.
APPENDICES

Appendix 1: List of organisations that participated in the survey

There are 18 organisations that took part in my survey. They were categorized as shown below:

Public Training Institutions
Highlands Institute of Manpower Planning and Development
Public Service Commission
National University of Science and Technology

Private Training Institutions
Jairos Jiri Craft Centre
Institute of Personnel Management of Zimbabwe
Speciss College

Government Department
Government Distance Education Centre
Ministry of Education, Sport and Culture

Parastatals
National Railways of Zimbabwe
Posts and Telecoms

Private Company
Central African Building Society
Delta Corporations
Kingdom Bank
Mashco Holdings
OK Bazaars
Rainbow Tourism Group
TM Supermarket
World Radio Services Zimbabwe
**Appendix 2: Responses to the question on working experience at current job**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Period</th>
<th>Frequency in percentage [%]</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0-2 years</td>
<td>31.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2-5 years</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6-10 years</td>
<td>34.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11-20 years</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Over 20 years</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## Appendix 3: Position of Respondents

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Position</th>
<th>Frequency in percentage (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Executive Officer</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lecturer</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Deputy Head</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Admin Assistant</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Personnel Administrator</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Assistant Registrar</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Senior Assistant Registrar</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Assistant</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Public Relations Officer</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Officer</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Human Resource Manager</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Officer</td>
<td>18.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Trainer</td>
<td>12.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Training Manager</td>
<td>9.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chief Manpower Manager</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>General Manager</td>
<td>3.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Director</td>
<td>6.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Total</strong></td>
<td><strong>100</strong></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Appendix 4

List of organisations represented in NAMACO
These include:
Zimbabwe Institute of Management [ZIM];
Institute of Chartered Secretaries & Administrators [ICS];
Institute of Bankers [IoB];
Institute of Architects of Zimbabwe [IAZ];
Institute of Accountants of Zimbabwe [IAZ];
Institute of Personnel Management of Zimbabwe [IPMZ];
Zimbabwe Congress of Trade Unions [ZCTU];
Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries [CZI] and
Zimbabwe National Chamber of Commerce [ZNCC].
### Appendix 5: Private Training Providers in Zimbabwe

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Name of Institution</th>
<th>Courses Offered</th>
<th>Costs</th>
<th>Enrolment</th>
<th>Pass Rate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Denmark College (Harare)</td>
<td>Advertising, Marketing, Sales Management, Public Relations, Principles of Public Management, Subjects examined by HEXICO, SEIM and LCCI</td>
<td>$Z205 000 per month for 4 subjects</td>
<td>5000</td>
<td>50%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>IPMZ (Harare, Mutare, Bulawayo)</td>
<td>Relations, Recruitment and Selection, Compensation, Human Resource Planning, Management of Training, Training Techniques, Management &amp; Supervisory, Development, Labur Relations, Safety Health and Welfare, Human Resource Management, Productivity, Motivation, Organisational Development, Research Methods</td>
<td>$Z40 000 joining fee, $Z50 000 subscription, $Z40 000 student enrolment fee, $Z15000 per module</td>
<td>6297</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mandel Training Centre (Harare)</td>
<td>Finance, Accounting, Team Building, Customer Care, Leadership Development</td>
<td>$Z200 000 for 1 week courses</td>
<td>500</td>
<td>70%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Institution</td>
<td>Courses</td>
<td>Fee Details</td>
<td>Participants</td>
<td>Response Rate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-----------------------------------</td>
<td>------------------------------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------------------------------------------</td>
<td>--------------</td>
<td>---------------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Management Training Bureau (Harare)</td>
<td>IPMZ courses, CIS, ZAAT, Supervisorial Management, Information Technology, Accounting, Computer Training</td>
<td>$Z 250 000 per week for short courses, $Z 300 000 per month for longer courses</td>
<td>700</td>
<td>80%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Speciss College (Harare, Chitungwiza)</td>
<td>'O' &amp; 'A' level subjects, CIA, ZAAT, ACCA, IML, CIMA, LCCI, Language, IPMZ, Business Management, Travel &amp; Tourism, Hotel &amp; Catering, Computer Training, Secretarial Studies, Degree courses in Law, Commerce and Business Management</td>
<td>$Z 250 000 per month</td>
<td>7282</td>
<td>65%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Trust Academy (Harare)</td>
<td>'O' &amp; 'A' level subjects, IPMZ, ACCA, LCCI, ZAAT, Secretarial Studies, Tourism &amp; Travel, Business Management, Languages</td>
<td>$Z 200 000</td>
<td>5889</td>
<td>60%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>UMAA (Marondera)</td>
<td>'O' &amp; 'A' level subjects, Journalism</td>
<td>$Z 175 000 per month</td>
<td>3000</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Travel &amp; Tourism Secretarial Studies</td>
<td>Marketing Management</td>
<td>LCCI</td>
<td>ZAAT</td>
<td>ACCA</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>------------------------------------</td>
<td>----------------------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
<td>------</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ZDECO (Harare, Mutare, Bulawayo)</td>
<td>‘O’ &amp; ‘A’ level subjects</td>
<td>$Z 190 000 per month</td>
<td>3500</td>
<td>45%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ZAAT</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ACCA</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>LCCI</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Marketing Management</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Secretarial Studies</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Source: Author
Appendix 6: Questionnaire 1

INSTRUCTIONS
Please write your organisation and position. Then put an X where appropriate in the brackets provided from no.1-21.

DEPARTMENT /ORGANISATION-----
SEX:
[ ] F
[ ] M
POSITION:

1. What is your highest educational level?
[ ] Diploma
[ ] Bachelors degree
[ ] Masters Degree
[ ] PhD

2. What is you working experience at your current job?
[ ] 0-2 years
[ ] 2-5 years
[ ] 6-10 years
[ ] 11-20 years
[ ] over 20 years

3. Are you aware of a Vocational Training Policy in Zimbabwe?
[ ] Yes
[ ] No
[ ] Partially
If no, please go to question 6
If yes, or partially please continue with question 4

4. The Vocational Education and Training policy in Zimbabwe reflects the views of
[ ] Government
[ ] Private sector
[ ] Both
[ ] None

5. The VET policy is promoting right skills needed by the industry
[ ] Strongly agree
6. The quality of the training is
   [ ] Very good
   [ ] Good
   [ ] Bad
   [ ] Very bad
   [ ] I don’t know

7. Students who complete the training are easily employable
   [ ] Strongly agree
   [ ] Agree
   [ ] Disagree
   [ ] Strongly disagree
   [ ] I don’t know

8. After finishing training most graduates get their first job after
   [ ] 3 months
   [ ] 6 months
   [ ] 1 year
   [ ] More than 1 year

9. In your view the Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund [ZIMDEF] levy is
   [ ] Too high
   [ ] Just right
   [ ] Too low
   [ ] I don’t know

10. The political environment is enabling for a strategic partnership between government and employers in VET provision
    [ ] Strongly agree
    [ ] Agree
    [ ] Disagree
    [ ] Strongly disagree
    [ ] I don’t know

11. The economic environment is enabling for a partnership between government and the employers in VET provision
    [ ] Strongly agree
    [ ] Agree
    [ ] Strongly disagree
    [ ] Disagree
    [ ] I don’t know
12. When having to fill a vacancy, employers will approach first a vocational school.
[ ] Strongly agree
[ ] Agree
[ ] Disagree
[ ] Strongly disagree
[ ] I don’t know

13. Only the government should certify VET courses
[ ] Strongly agree
[ ] Agree
[ ] Disagree
[ ] Strongly disagree
[ ] I don’t know

14. The ZIMDEF levy endangers the profitability of companies.
[ ] Strongly agree
[ ] Agree
[ ] Disagree
[ ] Strongly disagree
[ ] I don’t know

15. The private sector knows best how to design good curriculum.
[ ] Strongly agree
[ ] Agree
[ ] Disagree
[ ] Strongly disagree
[ ] I don’t know

16. The skills students learn are in demand in the labour market
[ ] Strongly agree
[ ] Agree
[ ] Strongly disagree
[ ] Disagree
[ ] I don’t know

15. Government only should have a monitoring role in VET provision
[ ] Strongly agree
[ ] Agree
[ ] Disagree
Strongly disagree
[ ] I don’t know

17. How do employers view the VET programme?
[ ] Very good
[ ] Good
[ ] Bad
[ ] Very bad
[ ] I don’t know

18. How do you rate the collaboration between the government and the private sector in VET provision?
[ ] Very strong
[ ] Strong
[ ] weak
[ ] Very weak
[ ] I don’t know

19. Students find a job that conforms to their learned skills.
[ ] Strongly agree
[ ] Agree
[ ] Disagree
[ ] Strongly disagree
[ ] I don’t know

20. Would it be helpful to have tracer studies for VET graduates and their absorption into the labour market?
[ ] Yes
[ ] No
[ ] I don’t know

21. The existing business environment is good for employers to collaborate with the government in VET provision.
[ ] Strongly agree
[ ] Agree
[ ] Disagree
[ ] Strongly disagree
[ ] I don’t know

Any other comments

THANK YOU VERY MUCH
Appendix 7: Questionnaire 2

INSTRUCTIONS
Please write your responses on the space provided.

________________________
DEPARTMENT / ORGANISATION------
SEX: [F] [M]
POSITION:

1. What do you think of the VET policy in Zimbabwe?

2.a) Does the VET policy cater for the needs of major stakeholders—government and employers?

2b) If not, which needs are not included in the policy?

2c) Should the VET policy be reviewed?

If yes, what elements should be included?

3. What do you consider to be the views of the employers regarding the Zimbabwe Manpower Development Fund?

4. Is the management of the ZIMDEF efficient? Please explain.
5a). Should tracer studies of people who have completed training courses be done?

b) If so:
Who should do the tracer studies?

Who should have access to this information?

6. A) What is the level of collaboration between the government and the private sector in VET provision?

b) Can it be improved? Explain please.

7. What role should the private sector play in VET provision?

8. What role should the government play in the VET system?

9. What are your views about?
   a) The quality of the training in VET system?
   b) The adequacy of the curriculum in preparing students for entry into the labour market?
c) The quality of the trainers

10. Are the students who complete the training easily employable?

11. Which skills should be emphasised to meet the current labour market needs?

THANK YOU VERY MUCH


Department of International Development [UK] [2000] Education for All: the Challenge of Universal Primary Education. London: DFID.


