

# **The Nexus between Post- Independence Education and Industrialization in Zimbabwe**

Vakai Matutu, Blessing Magocha

North -West University, South Africa

## **Abstract**

While Zimbabwe has made commendable strides in expanding access to education since gaining independence, the effectiveness of the education system in catalyzing industrialization demands closer scrutiny. Issues such as curriculum relevance, skill alignment, and the adaptability of graduates to the evolving demands of the industrial sector remain pressing concerns. Furthermore, the persistent gap between the skills imparted by the education system and the skills demanded by industries raises questions about the overall effectiveness of the educational policies in fostering a workforce that can drive innovation and productivity. This study seeks to unravel the challenges and opportunities within the nexus of post-independence education and industrialization in Zimbabwe, aiming to provide insights that can inform policy adjustments and strategic interventions for a more symbiotic relationship between education and industry in the pursuit of national development.

Education in Zimbabwe has undergone a long and redefining journey since 1980 in the same way the country was pursuing developmental aspirations guided by various social and economic blueprints. Education is primed as the cornerstone of development and industrialization. It drives industrialization processes. Social and economic development in post independent Zimbabwe has been guided by various economic blueprints ranging from the Growth with Equity Policy in 1980 to the current National Development Strategy. These policy blueprints have remained at the center of defining the industrialization agenda for Zimbabwe. Education has remained an important catalytic tool in the development and industrialization matrix. This chapter examines the intricate role of education in shaping the country's industrialization agenda and on the other hand how the industrialization agenda has shaped the education focus in Zimbabwe.

**Key words:** *access to education, education system, curriculum, industrial development, national development, skill alignment, policy adjustments*

## Introduction

The intertwining relationship between education systems and industrial development has been a subject of profound significance for nations seeking sustainable growth and prosperity. In the case of Zimbabwe, a country that gained independence in 1980, the nexus between post-independence education policies and industrialization represents a critical dimension of its developmental trajectory. The evolution of Zimbabwe's education system since gaining independence has been marked by various reforms and initiatives aimed at equipping its citizens with the skills and knowledge necessary for economic advancement. Empirical evidence generally avers that there is a positive effect of education on economic development, however it would be naïve to think that any form of education is fit to produce the positive results. Hence this article delves into the complex dynamics of the interplay between post-independence education and industrialization in Zimbabwe, aiming to dissect the policies, challenges, and outcomes that have shaped this crucial relationship. The article addresses the following questions; how has the education- industry collaboration evolved in Zimbabwe since independence, and what initiatives or partnerships have been established to bridge the gap between educational institutions and industrial needs? What are the gaps or mismatches between the skills acquired through education and the skills required by industries in Zimbabwe, and how do these gaps impact the nation's industrialization efforts?

Although Zimbabwe has made great progress in increasing educational access since achieving independence, further research is necessary to determine how well the educational system has sparked industrialization. Concerns about the relevance of the curriculum, skill alignment, and graduates' capacity to adjust to the changing needs of the industrial sector are still urgent. For example Zimbabwe has an average skill level of 38% which differ considerably from its literacy of over 94% (Matorevhu, 2023). Furthermore, concerns concerning the overall efficacy of educational programs in producing a workforce capable of driving innovation and productivity are raised by the ongoing disparity between the skills given by the school system and the skills required by industry. To give insights that can guide policy changes and targeted interventions for a more symbiotic relationship between education and industry, this study as highlighted above aims to explore the opportunities and problems at the intersection of post-independence education and industrialization in Zimbabwe.

In order to guide this discussion, the study shall be presented under the following headings: post-independence education and industrialization in Zimbabwe, Industrialization, economic growth and development in Zimbabwe, Social and economic development policies and frameworks 1980 to 2020 and the contribution of education towards industrialization in Zimbabwe.

### **Post- independence education and industrialization in Zimbabwe**

Zimbabwe became independent in 1980 from the British colonial hegemony after a protracted war of liberation. Soon after independence it embarked on policy making largely influenced by the need to reconstruct a nation that had been politically, socially and economically affected by the war of liberation (Schatzberg, 1984, Matamanda et al., 2021). In fact, the new government inherited a socio-economic system that perpetuated racial, social, political and economic segregation (Nieuwenhuis, 1996). Among other sectors that were heavily affected by this system was education, income and wealth distribution. Hence the new government, upon coming into power, embarked on policy reforms which were largely influenced by the desire to redress the socio-economic disequilibrium (Nherera, 2000, Garwe and Thondhlana, 2019). Zimbabwe viewed education as one of the crucial vehicle for bringing about development and change (Nieuwenhuis, 1996). The significance of the history of Zimbabwe cannot be overemphasized in as far as the post-independence relationship between education and industrialization is concerned. Henceforth, this study discusses the relationship between post-independence education and industrialization in Zimbabwe from 1980 to 2020. It discusses two very important contemporary issues (goal number 4 and 9) which are listed under the UN 2030 Agenda for sustainable development and adopted by all UN member States as a plan of action for people, planet and prosperity.

Zimbabwe's education is celebrated to be among the best in Africa. It boasts of a high literacy rate among its populace, 94% of women and 96 % of men are literate. At independence Zimbabwe inherited a two-pronged education system which was divided along racial lines between Whites and Blacks. The government discriminately provided education priority to white children and very few black children's education was through mission schools (Kanyongo, 2005). The curricula were different too, white children received academic education which prepared them to be managers and blacks were given elementary industrial training that prepared them to be laborers.

In fact, the colonial government did not want Africans to be educated for fear of their hegemony and legitimacy being challenged (Nherera, 2000). Soon after independence the government embarked on social justice and equity policies such as the growth with equity. These policies aimed at remedying the rampant inequalities in access to education and other basic needs. Hence the education for all policy was adopted at independence which viewed education as a basic human right. However, the quest to address imbalances created by the colonial education system, created gaps between demand and skills relevant for the industry (Matorevhu, 2023, Chimbunde, 2023), as we shall see in this study.

Since 1980 the education system in Zimbabwe has gone through many reforms the first being to unify the separate education system to remove anomalies and inequalities (Kanyongo, 2005). Government has also managed to increase the access to education through policies of free education. In the second decade the reforms focused more on the relevance, quality of education and training through new approaches, technologies, teaching methodologies, skills provision and through decentralization and devolution of technical and teachers' colleges into degree-awarding institutions (Kanyongo, 2005). In addition, the government localized the examination board through an act of parliament. It created Zimbabwe School Examination Council (ZIMSEC) which was mandated to administer and manage the primary and secondary examinations. It is imperative to note that before this, the examinations were managed by the University of Cambridge Local Examination Syndicate (UCLES) in the United Kingdom. Some students in Zimbabwe especially from the affluent families are still writing Cambridge examinations at both Ordinary and Advanced level. In the third decade, education in Zimbabwe focused on promoting national unity, national development, economic development through provision of trained and skilled teachers and staff. Presently, the education system is migrating towards modernization and industrialization of Zimbabwe through Education, Science and Technology Development. For example in 2018 Zimbabwe introduced a new curriculum in higher education lynched by heritage-based philosophy whose focus is underpinned by production of goods and services (Chimbunde, 2023). The new 5.0 (teaching, research, community service, innovation and industrialization) teaching philosophy acknowledges the role of higher and tertiary education institutions in economic growth, technology transfer and generation of new knowledge (Matorevhu, 2023, Chimbunde, 2023).

There is no single cause of industrialization. The process can emerge from a variety of causes. Similarly, the consequences of industrialization vary widely across geographical regions and historical times (Simandan, 2009: 420). This section discusses the development trajectory of Zimbabwe from 1980 to date from the industrialization and economic growth perspective.

Zimbabwe has a diversified economy but biased towards agriculture and mining (Saunders and Caramento, 2018), which are by far the country's major foreign currency earning sectors (ZimStats, 2012). In addition to mineral processing, major industries include food processing, construction, chemicals, textiles, wood and furniture, and production of transport equipment. In recent years the mining industry has faced challenges such as frequent power outages, inefficient infrastructure, flight of skilled workers, and shortages of funds for working capital and recapitalization. The manufacturing industry has also suffered constraints such as deindustrialization, inadequate and erratic supply of key economic enablers (namely, electricity, fuel, coal, and water, and the high cost of establishing business (ZimStas, 2012: 1).

Zimbabwe has suffered massive negative deindustrialization. De-industrialization in Zimbabwe is as a result of many factors such as; poor economic policies, political instability, unbalanced productivity growth, growing affluence among consumers, liquidity crunch, low domestic demand, lack or unavailability of adequate funding, excessively high and unsustainable wages, a fall in demand, an unfavourable highly taxing and inconsiderate tax regime, hyperinflation, massive power outages decline in capacity utilization partly to erratic power supply, obsolete machinery as well as influx of cheap imported goods.

The fall in the share of the output of the industrial sector in the nation's GDP (Schweibberger and Suedekum (2009) in Zimbabwe has resulted in the domestic outsourcing of activities previously performed in house in manufacturing to specialized service providers, and therefore, a decline in manufacturing employment. This widespread and systematic disinvestment in the nation's basic productive capacity (Bluestone and Harrison, 1982) has rendered large proportions of workers jobless due to plant shutting down. This resulted in the closure of many firms across various sub-sectors, job losses, declining manufacturing sector capacity utilization and output as well as a decline in the sector's contribution to GDP and exports (GoZ, 2018: 2).

Since 1995, Zimbabwe has experienced a process of de-industrialization with the large majority of the people becoming largely dependent on communal and resettlement agriculture, a sector

where there is high poverty prevalence. Zimbabwe had flourishing industries, but now many have collapsed. This has been caused by negative supply shocks because of shortages of basic resources like electricity as well as decreased foreign investment. In Zimbabwe manufacturing's share in Gross Domestic Product has halved from earlier peaks, and the country is currently striving to reverse this de-industrialization.

In spite of once having a well- developed infrastructure and financial system, Zimbabwe's economy declined rapidly from the late 1990s as its political situation deteriorated, falling below other developing sub-Saharan African countries. National income fell by half between 1998 and 2008; the longest, deepest economic decline seen anywhere outside a war zone (Magocha and Mutekwe, 2021). Real GDP growth is estimated to have decelerated to 3.7% in 2013 from an estimated 4.4% in 2012. This reflects a continued slowdown in the economy as a result of limited sources of capital, policy uncertainty and the high cost of doing business (AfDD/OECD/UNDP, 2014:255). Total expenditure picked up as the government expanded the Command Agriculture Program and maintained the high public sector wage bill (around 19% of GDP) (AfDB/OECD/UNDP, 2018: 179). With limited access to foreign inflows, the budget deficit reached 8.7% of GDP in 2016, up from 2.4% in 2015. Public domestic debt almost doubled, to 25% of GDP in 2016; external debt stood at 42.6% of GDP (AfDB/OECD/UNDP, 2018: 1). Total external debt was an estimated 45.3% of GDP in 2018, down from 53.8% in 2017. The current account deficit was an estimated 3.7% of GDP in 2018, with merchandise imports continuing to exceed exports, putting pressure on the supply of urgently needed foreign exchange and making it critical to diversify exports (AfDB/OECD/UNDP, 2019: 185).

### **Social and economic development policies and frameworks 1980 to 2020**

Since independence, the government of Zimbabwe has come up with very remarkable social and economic policies which some believed could have made a huge difference in the socio-economic wellbeing of the country if prudently implemented (Sibanda and Makwata, 2017). Due to these policies the government has experienced mixed economic fortunes. As highlighted earlier in this chapter, soon after independence the new government embarked on policy making largely influenced by the need to reconstruct a nation that had been politically, socially and economically affected by the war of liberation (Schatzberg, 1984). The following section discusses some of the

policies which the government promulgated and how they affected industrialization and education in Zimbabwe.

### **Zimbabwe Conference on Reconstruction and Development (ZIMCORD)**

To fund some of its policies, Zimbabwe pursued and received both bilateral and multilateral aid from various sources (Schwartz, 2001). Hence aid played a pivotal role in policies formulation as highlighted under the Zimbabwe Conference on Reconstruction and Development (ZIMCORD). In order to have a coordinated response to the rebuilding process and attract the much-needed development aid, the government convened the ZIMCORD in March 1981 (Mazingi and Kamidza, 2010)(MoEPD, 1981). Substantial foreign aid pledges worth Z\$1.9 billion over the period 1981-1983 were made at ZIMCORD held in early 1981. Zimbabwe became a favored destination for aid Chung (2006) until the political turmoil of the early 2000s. Indeed, it was the darling of the Western donors, who were prepared to pour in about USD300 million into the country each year (Chung, 2006). Hence most of the celebrated cases of education delivery in the first decade of independence were achieved in the context of partnerships between donors and the government in socio-economic development programs (Murisa, 2010, Nyazema, 2010). Actually, Zimbabwe recorded its strongest post-independence growth performance during the period 1980- 1990 with gross domestic product (GDP) growing by an average around 5.5 percent.

### **Growth With Equity (GWE)**

The GWE policy (1981) was the first policy soon after independence. The new government positioned itself in the driving seat for development strategies and prioritised socio-economic policies to address the colonial inequities. GWE sought to “achieve a sustained high rate of economic growth and speedy development in order to raise incomes and standards of living of the whole populace and expand productive employment of rural peasants and urban workers especially the farmers” (Sibanda and Makwata, 2017). The government in its role as the driver of the development wanted to empower the black majority to take control of the economy. But it is argued that the government allowed large-scale white farming, industry and mining to continue their economic dominance.

This policy is characterised by economic recovery in the early years of independence averaging 10 percent growth during 1980- 82. So many events took place which could have influenced this

recovery such as lifting of economic sanctions and opening up of external markets. In addition, it was successful in improving the access to education and health especially to black people through subsidies. The free for all basic education policy saw a rapid growth in schools and enrolment, in both primary and secondary schools by 1990. Primary schooling was made tuition free, and this resulted in gross admission rates that exceeded 100%. According to Shizha and Kariwo (2011) by the end of the first decade of independence, Zimbabwe had achieved universal primary education for all. The economy experienced very high growth rates of 10.7% and 9.7% in 1980 and 1981 respectively engineered by external factors on growth, fiscal driven redistributive programmes and the return of access to external markets (Sibanda and Makwata, 2017)(Mzumara, 2012).

### **Transitional National Development Plan (TNDP) 1982- 90**

It aimed at accelerating economic growth through promotion of productive sectors. Government had a leading role in the provision of services and redistribution of resources to redress inherited justice and equity. Access to education was made a basic human right and on top of that the government recognised that education is an investment in human capital which sustains and accelerates the rate of economic growth (Maravanyika, 1990). Thus primary education was provided for free while secondary schooling was heavily subsidised with many schools being constructed. During the TNDP, economic growth rates remained subdued, falling short of the target of 8% largely due to low investment levels in the productive sector, world recession and severe drought in the 1983 to 1984 agricultural season. The plan failed to address issues like, equitable land distribution, indigenisation and empowerment, product beneficiation, fiscal restraint among other measures.

### **The Economic Structural Adjustment Programme (ESAP) 1991- 1995**

The government of Zimbabwe adopted trade liberalization policy which was prescribed by the World Bank and the International Monetary Fund under Economic Structural Adjustment Program (ESAP) in 1991. The government, donor community and IMF/World Bank were of the belief that public expenditure reforms would lead to price stability and an improvement in the cost-effectiveness of the provision of social services (Dhliwayo, 2001, Matamanda et al., 2021). Riddell (2009) maintains that recipients were encouraged to open their markets, privatise state assets, adopt a more-export-oriented, less protective trade regime as a *quid pro quo* for receiving aid, and reduce direct government expenditures. The key policy elements incorporated in ESAP:



Fiscal and monetary policy reforms, including budgetary and monetary stabilisation measures, and the liberalisation and deregulation of banking and finance. Trade liberalisation, including the abolition of quantitative controls and the reduction and harmonisation of tariffs and duties was also introduced as well as deregulation of prices, wages, interest rates and exchange rates. Public sector restructuring, entailing the downsizing of the civil service and the reorganisation and commercialisation of parastatals was also introduced under ESAP. A social safety net in the form of Social Development Fund (SDF) was enacted for those vulnerable to the adverse effects of structural adjustment (Allen, 1999, Chimanikire, 2000). ESAP's specific targets included; achieving an annual GDP growth rate of 5% during the period 1991-1995; increasing savings to 25% of GDP; raising investment to 25% of GDP; achieving export growth rate of 9% per annum during the period 1991-1998; reducing budget deficit from 10% of GDP to 5% by 1995; and reducing inflation from over 17% to 10% by 1995 (Zhou and Zvoushe, 2012).

ESAP affected Zimbabwe negatively for example it led to retrenchments both in the public and private sectors (Nherera, 2000). Hence Zhou and Zvoushe (2012) described it as the “proverbial medicine that kills the patient”. Social safety nets such as the Social Dimension fund failed dismally and poverty increased (Nherera, 2000). As a result, the social indicators which were impressive in the 1980s plummeted to very low levels (ZHDR, 2003: 2). The economy stagnated to an average growth of 1% in real terms during the ESAP period (1991-95) compared to 4% during the pre ESAP period (1985-90) (Dhliwayo, 2001).

### **Zimbabwe Program for Economic and Social Transformation (ZIMPREST) 1996- 2000**

This policy was made as follow-up to ESAP and was meant to finish some of the unmet targets of ESAP. Some of these targets were; financial sector reforms, parastatal reforms and civil service reform among others. This policy sought to promote private sector role in production and distribution of goods and services with government to act as enabler while the private sector was to lead in growing the economy and employment creation (Sibanda and Makwata, 2017). Unfortunately, the economy further deteriorated mainly because of the government programs which hindered the reforms of the ZIMPREST. Some of the programs which negatively impacted this policy were payment of unbudgeted grants to war veterans resulting domestic currency crash of 1997, involvement in the DRC war (1998) and the fast-track land reform of 2000 (Mzumara, 2012). Resultantly, depleted foreign currency reserves, inflation increased and interest rates

doubled to 80%, unemployment increased and business activity went down (Sibanda and Makwata, 2017, Mzumara, 2012). This period also witnessed mass exodus of both skilled and unskilled labour to other countries. Apart from government fiscal indiscipline, ZIMPREST failed because of lack of donor participation and funding (Mzumara, 2012).

### **The Short-term Emergency Recovery Programme (STERP) 2009**

This policy was unveiled by the Inclusive Government and had 3 key goals and 3 priority areas. The goals were to: stabilize the macro and micro economy, recover the levels of savings and lay the basis of a more transformative mid-term to long-term program that would turn Zimbabwe into a developmental state. The priority areas being: political and governance issues, social protection and stabilization. This policy is associated with a relative improvement on both the economic and social indicators such as reduction in inflation due to the adoption of the multi-currency payment system, and health and education also were positively impacted due to the inflow of donor funding. It had a fair share of setbacks which were as a result of political disagreements by the political parties in the GNU.

### **Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio- Economic Transformation (ZIMASSET) 2013-2018**

In 2013, the government unveiled the Zimbabwe Agenda for Sustainable Socio-Economic Transformation (ZimASSET, 2013-18). It focused on the exploitation of and value addition to the country's human and natural resources. Hence it was crafted to achieve sustainable development and social equity underpinned by indigenization, empowerment and employment creation. ZimASSET has a number of positive elements, such as the adoption of results-based management and a clear implementation matrix. The policy blueprint also correctly identifies a number of key binding constraints to development, but it does not clearly articulate the country's institutional and financial capacities to deal with those constraints simultaneously within the five-year period. (AfDB/OECD/UNDP, 2014: 255). ZIMASSET failed dismally because of the weak institutions which are struggling to deal with corruption, transparency and accountability issues.

### **The Zimbabwe Industrial policies**

This section presents some of the policies that guided industrial development in Zimbabwe from 1980 to 2023. Industrial growth

## **The Zimbabwe National Industrial Development Policy 2019- 2023**

The Zimbabwe National Industrial Development Policy (2019- 2023) is a blue- print for industrialization which derives from vision 2030. The policy is underpinned by the desire to open the country for business, modernize, industrialize and promote investment with the ultimate goal of attaining broad-based economic empowerment, inclusive economic growth and employment creation. The ZNIDP's vision is technologically advanced, competitive and diversified industry by 2030. It aims at value addition and beneficiation of resources mainly from the key sectors of the economy such as agriculture, mining, manufacturing and services. The Zimbabwe National Development Policy is aligned to the Transitional Stabilization Program (October 2018- December 2020) TSP, which priorities the stimulation of economic growth and creation of employment. The policy is also aligned with the SADC Industrialization strategy and roadmap (2015- 2063) and the African Union's Agenda 2063. These agendas call for countries to pursue industrialization strategies sequentially from factor- driven to investment- driven, then to efficiency- driven and ultimately to a high growth trajectory driven by knowledge, innovation and business sophistication. 2018 Zimbabwe National Critical Skills Audit places a focus on bolstering science and technology to fulfil the innovation and industrial objectives of education 5.0 (Matorevhu, 2023). In line with the vision 2030 the National Development Strategy 1 (NDS1) document guides the development trajectory Zimbabwe should take until 2025 (Matorevhu, 2023). The drivers of NDS 1 are Human capital, development and innovation and a strong emphasis on science, technology, engineering, arts and mathematics (STEAM) (Matorevhu, 2023).

## **Miscarriages, Missed Opportunities and Failures in Zimbabwe's Education and Industrialization**

Zimbabwe's policies towards industrialization are arguably to a larger extent correct but inadequately theorized and half-heartedly implemented (Stoneman, 1990). The same can be said about the education policies. Therefore, Zimbabwe is facing a plethora of demanding socio-economic challenges. In spite of economic measures such as dollarization, commercialization and privatization of public enterprises, indigenization and the ZIMASSET, the Zimbabwe is Open for Business mantra, the country still witnesses challenges. These challenges among others; low economic growth, high debt levels, distress in the financial markets, high unemployment, poor living standards for its citizens, poor export performance and reliance on imports.

From 1990 onwards the Zimbabwean economy suffered severely due to many issues related to policy omission or commission. Leadership failures and a cocktail of ruinous policies and practices, which include nepotism, patronage, corruption, bad governance, breakdown of the rule of law, property rights violations, and a chaotic and frequently violent land reform program, while hyperinflation annihilated the demonetized Zimbabwean dollar (Saunders and Caramento, 2018). Inflation was so high that Zimbabwe broke hyperinflation records in the 20th century — notably Germany in the 1920s, Brazil in the 1980s, Argentina and Angola in the 1990s. By November 2008, Zimbabwe's highest monthly inflation peaked at 89,7 sextillion percent.

Since 1980, Zimbabwe has had a lot of opportunities for industrial and educational development but some of these have been missed because of either the government's failure to plan or to implement what was planned or both. For example, in the early years, the growth in social sectors was not matched with the growth in productive sectors. The rapid growth in civil service employment and spending on social services, drought relief, and parastatals generated a chronic budget deficit, a high tax regime, and a rapid increase in public debt. In education, the government failed to transform and decolonise the system (Nherera, 2000), instead what happened was radicalisation and "massfication" of the education system. Hence the emphasis was not so much on quality and cost effectiveness of the education system but on accessibility to education (Kanyongo, 2005). The government has struggled to shrug off the colonial traditional academic education (Nherera, 2000), students and parents too still prefer traditional academic education over practical and vocational training. At independence the government had the opportunity to transform the practical and vocational training from elementary industrial training to a more advanced curriculum that would meet the contemporary industrial needs of the nation. This opportunity was squandered: in fact, the political leaders were in the lead in promoting traditional academic education by sending their children to former elite schools. Quite understood though because of the perception that academic education would close the social gap between blacks and Europeans and the view that industrial education was inferior (Nherera, 2000). As a result, the education system in Zimbabwe remains theoretically oriented with very little done so far to produce knowledge that will translate into goods and services.

As noted by Stoneman (1990) more formal state role in industrial development was promised in GWE in 1981 in the proposal for a Zimbabwe Development Corporation, which was not in fact

established until 1988. Stoneman adds that the slow progress was associated with the more general failure to grapple with the problem of planning for industrial development, itself constrained by the context of continuing private ownership of most of the industry. This was also entrenched in the ideological dispossession whereby the government believed in the Marxist- Leninism which means the ownership of the means of production by the state. But, the Lancaster House Agreement for independence promoted and protected individual and company rights to property ownership. On top of that, some scholars postulate that no coherent industrialisation plan was included, and no instruments or institutions for such plan were processed by the government. Many industrial projects were included but these were largely put in on an *ad hoc* basis, depending almost entirely on whether they were already being considered by a company or other interest groups (Stoneman, 1990).

However, some of the miscarriages, missed opportunities and failures of the education and industrialization in Zimbabwe are as a result of socio-political environment of the nation. For example, the granting of unbudgeted hefty largesse to war veterans in 1997, DRC war participation in 1998, which was unnecessary and costly too. The land expropriation program of 2000 which was chaotic and the rapid deterioration in foreign aid and financial support (Saunders and Caramento, 2018). Support for ‘new farmers’- through the Farm Mechanization program, high money supply growth- expansionary quasi-fiscal activities by the Central Bank and speculative activities (Matamanda et al., 2021). In addition, Zimbabwe has not received meaningful FDI because of political risk, political violence, the breakdown in the rule of law, as well as violation of Bilateral Investment Treaties and the Bilateral Investment Promotion and Protection Agreements (BIPPAS). Some of the BIPPAS that were violated (through expropriation without compensation) include that between Zimbabwe and Germany, Zimbabwe and the Netherlands, Zimbabwe and South Africa, Zimbabwe and Malaysia. The Indigenization Act which stipulates a 51-49 percent shareholding structure (Saunders and Caramento, 2018), -investors feel that 51 percent strips them of a controlling interest in their business. Policy ambiguity and lack of policy consistency on Indigenization (Saunders and Caramento, 2018) for example ministers make conflicting statements on this subject. Potential mining investors complain about lack of geological information on mineralization data that indicate the quantities and values of the underground resources. Investors raise concerns about the security of their investments (Property rights) and cumbersome visa regime and company registration procedures among others.

All these manifested in high inflation and unemployment as well as the fall in business activity. In addition, the government of Zimbabwe has failed to attract meaningful investments and has no capacity to run a complex set of programs. Henceforth, the government of Zimbabwe has continued to be vulnerable with no balance of payments support from multilateral and bilateral institutions or donors.

### **Opportunities and Future Prospects for Education and Industrialization in Zimbabwe**

Many of the targets of the Zimbabwean Industry may be easier to reach when strong and accessible systems of education and training are put in place, leading to stronger knowledge-based infrastructures.

The government must be aware of the fact that there is a strong difference between coming up with a policy and having qualified people who can drive the policy narrative. There is need for curriculum change; in fact, it must be synchronized for the three-tier teaching levels in Zimbabwe that is primary, secondary and tertiary levels. That transformation must equip the education system with the necessary tools for knowledge generation which will be translated into production of industrial goods and services. One of the low hanging fruits is to promote and transform the practical and vocational training to meet the contemporary industrial needs.

The government must ensure that there is sufficient funding and deliberate investment in education. Ensuring sufficient funding to invest in education is essential and a common theme across all SDG 4 targets (Boeren, 2019). Target 4 of SDG 4 says that by 2030, substantially increase the number of youth and adults who have relevant skills, including technical and vocational skills, for employment, decent jobs and entrepreneurship (SDG 4.4) (Boeren, 2019). This also applies to the Zimbabwean situation.

The government is seized with curbing de-industrialization, attracting new investments and generation of foreign exchange through exports of value-added goods and services. This can only be driven by quality education and training. Today's globalized economy requires well educated workers to adapt to the dynamic environment. Blending of Technology is also essential to create competitive, productive and prosperous industries in Zimbabwe which enhances efficiency in

production processes. The quality and quantity of basic education affects efficiency of workers, ability to adapt to advanced production processes and techniques.

Beneficiation of our raw materials

Globalization check nherera

Informal employment (SMEs)

Check for industrial policy from 1980 to 2004 and 2010 to date

## **Conclusion**

The relationship between education and industrialization in Zimbabwe is very difficult to comprehend because of the lack of data for analysis. The high literacy rate in Zimbabwe has failed to translate into high industrialization. Industry and education in Zimbabwe have been largely affected by the socio- political environment of the country. Zimbabwe needs to transform the quality and/or quantity of its education system to meet the industrial needs. In Zimbabwe many people work outside the formal sector while many educational systems still provide a formal education leading to tertiary education. Arguments so far are unidirectional, scholars think that industrial development is influenced by curriculum reform (Chimbunde, 2023). This study argues that both the curriculum and industrial policy have to change for both to grow and serve the needs of the people of Zimbabwe. In its strategy document, National Development Strategy 1-2021-2025 (NDS1-2021-2025)

## References

AfDB/OECD/UNDP. 2019. *African Economic Outlook 2019: Zimbabwe*. African Development Bank. Abidjan.

AfDB/OECD/UNDP. 2018. *African Economic Outlook 2018: Zimbabwe*. African Development Bank. Abidjan.

AfDB/OECD/UNDP. 2014. *African Economic Outlook 2014: Zimbabwe*. African Development Bank. Abidjan.

GoZ. 2018. Vision 2030. “Towards a Prosperous and Empowered Upper Middle Income Society by 2030”. September 2018. Harare.

Ministry of Commerce and Industrialisation, (2019). Zimbabwe National Industrial Development Policy 2019- 2023. Towards Investment, Innovation and Export- led Industrialization.

MoEPD. 1981. *Zimbabwe Conference on Reconstruction and Development*. Zimbabwe Government Printers. Harare.

Simandan, D. (2009). *Industrialization: Definitions and Measurement*. Brook University, Canada. Elsevier Ltd.

UN. (2015). *Transforming our World. The 2030 Agenda for Sustainable Development*. New York: UN.

UNESCO (2017a). *Education for Sustainable Development Goals: Learning Objectives*. Paris: UNESCO.



ZHDR. 2003. *Zimbabwe Human Development Report: Redirecting Our Responses to HIV and AIDS*. (Series 4). Harare: University of Zimbabwe.

ZimStats. 2012. *Zimbabwe Demographic and Health Survey*. Zimbabwe National Statistics Agency. Harare.

- ALLEN, T. W. Structural adjustment in Zimbabwe: The World Bank perspective. Harare: Conference Paper, 1999.
- BOEREN, E. 2019. Understanding Sustainable Development Goal (SDG) 4 on “quality education” from micro, meso and macro perspectives. *International review of education*, 65, 277-294.
- CHIMANIKIRE, D. *Accountable governance and poverty alleviation*. Addis Ababa: Development Policy Management Forum Publications, 2000.
- CHIMBUNDE, P. 2023. Deconstruction of higher education curriculum in Zimbabwe: breaking the past and imagining the future. *African Identities*, 1-15.
- CHUNG, F. 2006. *Re-living the Second Chimurenga: Memories from the liberation struggle in Zimbabwe*, African Books Collective.
- DHLIWAYO, R. 2001. *The impact of public expenditure management under ESAP on basic social services: Health and education*, Department of Economics, University of Zimbabwe.
- GARWE, E. C. & THONDHLANA, J. 2019. Higher education systems and institutions, Zimbabwe. *Encyclopedia of international higher education systems and institutions*. Dordrecht: Springer.
- KANYONGO, G. Y. 2005. Zimbabwe's Public Education System Reforms: Successes and Challenges. *International Education Journal*, 6, 65-74.
- MAGOCHA, B. & MUTEKWE, E. 2021. Narratives and interpretations of the political economy of Zimbabwe's development aid trajectory, 1980–2013. *TD: The Journal for Transdisciplinary Research in Southern Africa*, 17, 1-12.
- MARAVANYIKA, O. E. 1990. *Implementing Educational Policies in Zimbabwe*. World Bank Discussion Papers No. 91. Africa Technical Department Series, ERIC.
- MATAMANDA, A. R., CHIRISA, I. & RAMMILE, S. 2021. Elitist domination and its import: Survey of four decades of perpetuation of inequities in Zimbabwe. *Politikon*, 48, 450-467.
- MATOREVHU, A. 2023. Curriculum innovation implementation for industrialization: A case of education 5.0 pre-service science and mathematics teacher preparation. *Journal of Research in Instructional*, 3, 69-86.
- MAZINGI, L. & KAMIDZA, R. 2010. Inequality in Zimbabwe tearing us apart: Inequalities in Southern Africa. *Johannesburg: Open Society Initiative for Southern Africa*.

- MURISA, T. 2010. Social development in Zimbabwe. *Harare: DFZ*.
- MZUMARA, M. 2012. An overview of Zimbabwe's macroeconomic environment.
- NHERERA, C. M. 2000. Globalisation, qualifications and livelihoods: The case of Zimbabwe. *Assessment in Education: Principles, Policy & Practice*, 7, 335-362.
- NIEUWENHUIS, F. 1996. *The Development of Education Systems in Postcolonial Africa: A Study of a Selected Number of African Countries*, ERIC.
- NYAZEMA, N. Z. 2010. The Zimbabwe Crisis and the Provision of Social Services. *Journal of Developing Societies*, 26, 233- 261.
- RIDDELL, R. C. 2009. Does foreign aid work. *Doing Good or Doing Better*, 47, 47-80.
- SAUNDERS, R. & CARAMENTO, A. 2018. An extractive developmental state in Southern Africa? The cases of Zambia and Zimbabwe. *Third World Quarterly*, 39, 1166-1190.
- SCHATZBERG, M. G. 1984. The political economy of Zimbabwe. *(No Title)*.
- SCHWARTZ, R. 2001. Coming to terms: Zimbabwe in the international arena. *(No Title)*.
- SHIZHA, E. & KARIWO, M. T. 2011. Education and development. *Education and Development in Zimbabwe*. Brill.
- SIBANDA, V. & MAKWATA, R. 2017. *Zimbabwe post independence economic policies: a critical review*, LAP Lambert Academic Publishing.
- STONEMAN, C. 1990. The industrialisation of Zimbabwe-past, present and future. *Afrika Focus*, 6, 245-266.
- ZHOU, G. & ZVOUSHE, H. 2012. Public policy making in Zimbabwe: A three decade perspective. *International Journal of Humanities and Social Science*, 2, 212-222.