PD-AAP-215
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ZIMBABWE

BASIC EDUCATION AND SKILLS TRAINING SECTOR PROGRAM (BEST)
(613-0208)

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PDAAP 215

25 JUL 1983

ACTION MEMORANDUM FOR THE ADMINISTRATOR

THRU: JUL 25 1ES 30 PM '83

THRU: AA/PPC, Mr. John R. Bolton John R Bolton

EXECUTIVE SECRETARIAT

FROM: AA/AFR, Mr. Alexander R. Love, Acting

SUBJECT: Authorization of Zimbabwe Basic Education and Skills Training Sector Program (BEST) - 613-0208

Problem: Your approval is requested for a grant of $45,000,000 from the Section 531, Economic Support Fund, appropriation to Zimbabwe for the Basic Education and Skills Training Sector Program (BEST) (613-0208). We plan to obligate $8,700,000 immediately with the remaining $6,300,000 of this year's funding dependent upon the availability of FY 1983 funds. The balance is to be obligated in equal tranches in FY 1984 and 1985.

Discussion:

Choice of Sector Assistance

Except for population and training projects, AID assistance to Zimbabwe has been of a non-project nature. The current non-project assistance program includes the FY 1982 CIP of $50,000,000, the proposed FY 1983 CIP of $37,000,000, the agricultural sector program grant (ZASA) of $45,000,000, initiated in FY 1982, and the currently proposed BEST program. The ZASA program is of particular relevance to the BEST proposal, because the two activities are organized along closely parallel lines.

With the addition of the BEST program in education and training, the AID program in Zimbabwe will be characterized by a heavy emphasis on sector program assistance, making it unique among all of AID's African programs. This innovative but relatively untried approach is, in the Africa Bureau's view, particularly appropriate for Zimbabwe for several reasons. First, it emphasizes the kind of aid most needed by Zimbabwe: financial resources, particularly foreign exchange; support for institution building; and technical training. Because of the skill level which exists widely both in government and the private sector, extensive technical assistance, typically the cornerstone of our programs in many African countries, is not necessary in Zimbabwe.

Secondly, the GOZ despite its newness as a government, has relatively well formulated plans for expansion and reform of its education and agriculture sectors, as well as the basic management capacity to implement these changes, if its financial and technical resources are augmented through foreign-assisted programs such as BEST and ZASA.

Since this kind of assistance can draw heavily upon the skills and competence of the GOZ for day-to-day management, it is possible for USAID/Zimbabwe to administer a bilateral assistance program

currently at an annual level of $60-75,000,000 with a professional staff of six AID direct-hire Americans. In a mission with a more traditional portfolio of projects stressing technical assistance, a much higher ratio of U.S. staff to program level would be required.

Program Description

The first 40 pages of the PAAD contain what the review committee and ECPR consider an excellent analysis of the education sector in Zimbabwe in its macro-economic setting and identification of the major constraint areas which this program seeks to alleviate. In summary form, the constraints to educational development in Zimbabwe are (1) limited financial resources, (2) insufficient numbers of trained teachers, (3) inappropriate instructional curriculum, (4) inefficient or inequitable spatial allocation of educational and training facilities and (5) insufficient planning capacity.

Of the $45,000,000 to be made available under the Grant, approximately $36,000,000 will be utilized to generate local currencies for GOZ use as additional resources to finance activities designed to address the five constraints. The local currencies will be generated under the commodity import mechanism. At least 80 percent of the $36,000,000 in foreign exchange will be used to finance private sector procurement from the U.S., with the balance going to public sector procurement. Illustrative examples of potential activities to be financed by these additional resources include: (1) establishing the National Education Service Center, (2) upgrading teacher education, (3) curriculum development and (4) research, evaluation and planning, (5) establishing the National Vocational Training and Development Center, (6) opening three new (of six) regional vocational centers, (7) building six vocational schools, (8) creating three new (of eight) polytechnic colleges and (9) starting a management training institution.

The remaining amount of the grant, approximately $9,000,000, will be reserved for the foreign exchange costs of US technical assistance, training and commodities needed to support program objectives. As in the case of the ZASA program, funds reserved but not ultimately needed for this purpose will revert to the CIP component of the program as a supplement to the local currency special account.

With respect to beneficiaries, the GOZ education reform program supported by BEST will have a profound impact on Zimbabwe's basic education system. By concentrating efforts on institutions and technologies with the greatest multiplier effect such as the National Education Service Center, the national and regional vocational training centers, teacher education and curriculum development, there will be an eventual impact on virtually all school age children in Zimbabwe, mainly in the form of better trained teachers and a more relevant curriculum.

AID Program Control

Because of the GOZ's key role in the implementation of the BEST program, attention has been paid to AID's ability to ensure that our

funds are being utilized to effectuate program objectives and to remedy problems which may arise along the way. There are several points throughout the process where AID will exercise an effective degree of program control: (1) the GOZ must submit to USAID/Zimbabwe as a Condition Precedent to initiate disbursement a list of activities approved by the GOZ's budget process to be supported from the first year of the grant; (2) the USAID/Z Director must approve in writing activities proposed for funding under the grant; (3) the grant is to be obligated in three annual tranches. Release of the second and third tranches will be contingent upon annual evaluations demonstrating satisfactory progress. Any serious problem uncovered by an evaluation could, based on the USAID Director's decision, result in a delay in obligating the next tranche or a curtailment of the balance of the program; (4) USAID/Z will be able to stay abreast of program activities through regular monitoring by the Mission's Human Resources Development Officer, who will be in constant liaison with key officials of the two GOZ operating ministries; (5) an additional measure of U.S. influence on the program will be provided through the technical assistance component.

Criteria for Funding Local Currency Activities

Activities authorized by Parliament but unfunded by the regular GOZ budget must appear in the Vote of Credit in order to qualify for funding under BEST or any other foreign donor program. In this way the GOZ is able to ensure that donor funds are applied only to high priority approved activities, and donors are assured of additionality, since the activities, although GOZ authorized, cannot be funded by available GOZ resources.

BEST funds will be used for investments which support technical and administrative improvements, policy changes and new institutional capabilities. Supplementation or substitution of ordinary or existing recurrent costs such as teacher salaries or standard school construction and maintenance are not considered investments in this sense and hence will not be financed under this grant.

Activities proposed for funding under the grant will be required to meet several operational criteria. Fundable activities will: 1) address one or more of the program's key constraints; 2) be cost-effective and operationally efficient; 3) contribute to long-term improvements in institutional capacities, practices or policies of the GOZ in the education/training field; 4) be complementary to and coordinated with other activities of the implementing ministries; and 5) have a high probability of success.

Responsiveness to AID Directives

The BEST program will contribute to action in several of AID's high priority policy areas:

1) policy reform in the education and training sector is a major goal served by the program.

2) support to Zimbabwe's private sector is an important by-product of BEST though the CIP, at least 80 percent of which will go to private business.

3) institutional development will take place as a direct result of the major assistance provided to Zimbabwe's basic education and vocational training institutions.

4) technology transfer will be facilitated by the technical assistance element of the program.

Conclusions

From the review and analysis of the PAAD, we have concluded that:

1) the proposed approach - program sector assistance - and the provisions for disbursing funds under the grant are technically, economically and administratively sound;

2) the timing and funding of the program are appropriately scheduled;

3) sufficient planning has been completed to implement, monitor and evaluate progress under the program; and

4) all statutory criteria have been met.

This program is excluded from the requirement for an Initial Environmental Examination under Section 216.2(c) of AID Regulation 16. The determination for a categorical exclusion is in Annex A of the PAAD.

The Grant Agreement will contain, in substance, the following special Condition Precedent: Prior to the initial disbursement of funds under the grant, the GOZ is required to submit in writing to the USAID/Zimbabwe director, a list of proposed activities within the Annual Estimates of Expenditures to be supported under the first year of the grant.

Special covenants to be included in the Grant Agreement are, in substance, as follows:

1) The GOZ agrees to conduct annual formative evaluations of the Grant which will assess the progress being made toward the attainment of the program's objectives. These evaluations will identify any obstacles inhibiting the attainment of progress and the proposed corrective measures to be undertaken by the GOZ to resolve them.

2) The GOZ agrees to cooperate with USAID/Zimbabwe in the budgeting of activities which may be funded under the Grant. This includes the free exchange of relevant programming and budgetary information.

3) The GOZ agrees to assure the adequacy of financing and budgetary resources for the activities selected from the Annual Estimates of Expenditures for funding under the Grant.

4) The GOZ agrees to provide evidence that the funds provided by A.I.D. under the Grant will be additional to, and not a substitute for, the GOZ's own budgetary resources

5) The GOZ agrees to offer assurances that it will make available to the Zimbabwean private sector at least 80 percent of the funds provided under the commodity import mechanism of the Grant.

Both the Issues Meeting, held on May 10, 1983 and the Executive Committee for Project Review, held on May 18, 1983 recommended approval of the Zimbabwe BEST program. There were no unresolved issues. The Congressional Notification was submitted on June 15, 1983, and the waiting period expired on June 30, 1983.

The responsible officers in USAID/Zimbabwe will be the Mission Director, Roy Stacy, and the Human Resources Officer, Richard Shortlidge. The AID/W Project Officer is Morgan Gilbert, AFR/PD/SA.

There are no waivers included in the PAAD. Should minor requirements for source/origin procurement waivers arise during the course of the program, they will be issued under authority of the Mission Director, in accordance with Delegation of Authority 140R.

With respect to the human rights question, the State Department Office of Human Rights has determined that the GOZ has not engaged in any consistent pattern of human rights violations against its citizens. While some excesses have occurred, they have been attributed primarily to government efforts to maintain law and order. When these excesses were brought to the attention of the proper authorities, corrective measures were taken.

Recommendation: That you sign the attached PAAD, thereby authorizing the proposed program in the amount of $45,000,000.

Attachment: PAAD

Clearances:

General Counsel: RADerham [signature] Date: 6/30
AA/PPC/PDPR: EHullander [signature] Date: 7/1/83

Clearances:

DAA/AFR: GOPatterson		Date:	6/27/83
AFR/SA: RWrin		Date:	6/27/83
AFR/TR/EHR: CPerry		Date:	6/23/83
GC/AFR: TBork		Date:	6/26/83
AFR/PD: NCohen		Date:	6/23/83
SER/COM: PHagan		Date:	6/24/83
AFR/DP: HJohnson		Date:	6/27/83

AFR/PD/SA:MGilbert:agb:6/2/83:X 28818:N373L

CLASSIFICATION:

AID 1120-1 (8-68)

PAAD

DEPARTMENT OF STATE
AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

PROGRAM ASSISTANCE APPROVAL DOCUMENT

1. PAAD NO.: 613-K-606
2. COUNTRY: ZIMBABWE
3. CATEGORY: Non-project assistance, involving program sector assistance with commodity import component (Activity No. 613-0208)
4. DATE: June 9, 1983
5. TO: M. Peter McPherson, Administrator, AID
6. OYB CHANGE NO. Activity Title: Basic Education and Skills Training Sector Program
7. FROM: A. R. Love, Acting Assistant Administrator, Bureau for Africa
8. OYB INCREASE: Life of Activity: $45,000,000
TO BE TAKEN FROM: ESF FY 1983, FY 1984, FY 1985
9. APPROVAL REQUESTED FOR COMMITMENT OF: $ 15,000,000
10. APPROPRIATION - ALLOTMENT: BUDGET PLAN CODE
11. TYPE FUNDING: ☐ LOAN ☒ GRANT
12. LOCAL CURRENCY ARRANGEMENT: ☒ INFORMAL ☐ FORMAL ☐ NONE
13. ESTIMATED DELIVERY PERIOD: 9/83 - 9/88
14. TRANSACTION ELIGIBILITY DATE: Grant Authorization Date
15. COMMODITIES FINANCED

U.S. goods and manufacturers, including both capital equipment and raw materials with a minimum of 80 percent of the CIP component allocated to the Zimbabwean private sector.

16. PERMITTED SOURCE

U.S. only:	Grant $15,000,000
Limited F.W.:	
Free World:	
Cash:	

17. ESTIMATED SOURCE

U.S.:	$15,000,000
Industrialized Countries:	
Local:	
Other:	

18. SUMMARY DESCRIPTION

The goal of the Basic Education and Skills Training Sector Assistance Program (BEST) is to contribute to Zimbabwe's economic and social development by providing additional budgetary resources to assist the GOZ to implement its planned program to expand its educational and employment skills training system with special emphasis on improving cost-effectiveness and equity within the overall system. The program's resources will be utilized to support those items and activities which are expected to contribute to the reduction of the key constraints inhibiting the attainment of the Government's objectives. These constraints are (1) limited financial resources, (2) insufficient numbers of trained teachers, (3) inappropriate instructional curriculum, (4) inefficient/inequitable spatial allocation of educational/training facilities, and (5) insufficient planning capacity. Under this BEST Program Grant a total of US$45 million is expected to be obligated over a three-year period. Of each $15 million annual tranche, $12 million will be allocated to a Commodity Import Program which will generate local currency for use by the GOZ in support of program objectives. The balance of $3 million in each tranche will be reserved for foreign exchange costs of US technical assistance, training and commodities needed to support program objectives.

19. CLEARANCES

		DATE
AA/PPC: JBolton	JRB	7/25/83
GC: RDerham	RD	7/26/83
AFR/DP: HJohnson	HJ	6/27/83
FM/PD: EOwens		
SER/COM: PHagan	PH	6/24/83
AFR/PD: NCohen	NC	6/23/83
AFR/SA: RWrin	RW	6/22/83

20. ACTION

☒ APPROVED ☐ DISAPPROVED

M. Peter McPherson — July 27, 1983
AUTHORIZED SIGNATURE — DATE

Administrator
TITLE

CLASSIFICATION:

BASIC EDUCATION AND SKILLS TRAINING SECTOR

PROGRAM ASSISTANCE APPROVAL DOCUMENT

(AID PROJECT NUMBER 613-0208)

TO

REPUBLIC OF ZIMBABWE

UNITED STATES AGENCY FOR INTERNATIONAL DEVELOPMENT

HARARE, ZIMBABWE

APRIL 1983

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G L O S S A R Y

BEST	Basic Education and Skills Training
C&AG	Comptroller and Auditor General
CDSS	Country Development Strategy Statement
CIP	Commodity Import Program
CZI	Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries
ESC	Educational Service Center
ESF	Economic Support Fund
GDP	Gross Domestic Product
GOZ	Government of Zimbabwe
IIE	Institute of International Education
IIEP	International Institute for Educational Planning
ILO	International Labor Organization
IMF	International Monetary Fund
ISD	Instructional Systems Design
MC	Ministry of Construction
MTC	Ministry of Trade and Commerce
MFEPD	Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development
MMPD	Ministry of Manpower Planning and Development
MOEC	Ministry of Education and Culture
NDF	National Development Fund
NFRR	National Fund for Rehabilitation and Reconstruction
NRM	National Resistance Movement
NVTDC	National Vocational Training Development Center
NVTS	National Vocational Training System
OECD	Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development
PAAD	Program Assistance Approval Document
PPC	Policy and Programs Coordination
PSIP	Public Sector Investment Program
RFP	Request for Proposal
SIDA	Swedish International Development Agency
SDR	Special Drawing Right

RSC	Rural Skills Centers
RVTC	Regional Vocational Training Center
TNDP	Transitional National Development Plan
UTS	Unified Teaching Service
ZASA	Zimbabwe Agriculture Sector Assistance Program
ZIMCORD	Zimbabwe Conference on Reconstruction and Development
ZIMMAN	Zimbabwe Manpower Development Project
ZIMFEP	Zimbabwe Foundation for Education with Production
ZIMSCI	Zimbabwe Secondary Schools Science Project
ZINTEC	Zimbabwe Integrated National Teacher Education Course

SUMMARY

This $45 million sector program assistance grant will provide the Government of Zimbabwe (GOZ) with additional budgetary resources to carry out needed reforms in its educational and training system. These reforms are directed at the development of a more effective and affordable system which has the capacity to meet Zimbabwe's education and skills training requirements in the future within the nation's financial and other resource constraints.

The life of the grant is five years with funding of US$15 million provided in each of the first three years beginning in FY 1983. The Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development (MFEPD) will allocate the grant resources to the Ministry of Education and Culture (MOEC) and the Ministry of Manpower Development and Planing (MMPD).

Over the long-run the grant is expected to contribute to the following developments within Zimbabwe:

1. A more efficient use of educational resources that will allow increases in the numbers of children enrolled in school and in the quality of their learning and will increase the availability of relevant vocational and technical training;
2. Substantial increases in the numbers of fully qualified elementary, secondary and vocational-technical teachers and the institutionalized means of providing qualified teachers on a continuing and cost-effective basis;
3. Demonstrable improvement in the quality, relevance and instructional effectiveness of the curricula, both in elementary and secondary schools and in the technical training programs;
4. A more equitable distribution of teaching and training resources to rural areas and to the several geographically dispersed regions of the country and efficient governmental mechanisms in place to assure the maintenance of this equity; and
5. Strengthening the administrative, planning and management capacities at various critical levels of the education and training system, leading to more cost-effective use of resources and the moderation of recurrent financial burdens.

Activities proposed for funding under the grant will be required to meet the following criteria:

1. Address one or more of the key constraints identified in this program;
2. Be cost-effective and operationally efficient in the use of scarce resources, such as trained teachers and technical instructors;
3. Contribute to long-term improvement in institutional capacities, administrative practices or educational and training policy;
4. Be complementary to and coordinated with other activities of the implementing ministry, as well as other ministries providing related services;
5. Have a high probability of success, with specified criteria for evaluating progress and determining success of the activity;
6. Have a multiplier effect; and
7. Be implementable within the disbursement period 1983-1988 and, if only partially funded under the grant, have adequate provision of finance and other required resources to assure completion and maintenance.

The A.I.D. grant will be used for investments which support technical and administrative improvements, policy changes and new institutional capabilities. Supplementation or substitution of ordinary or existing recurrent costs such as teacher salaries or standard school construction and maintenance are not considered investments in this sense and hence will not be financed under this grant.

Since the majority of the financial resources required to meet the grant's sectoral objectives are in local currency and the foreign exchange requirements of the sector are modest, it is proposed to rely upon a commodity import program (CIP) mechanism targeted toward the private sector as the vehicle for generating local currency. This approach permits the achievement of two objectives. First, it provides much needed foreign exchange to relieve overall balance of payments constraints. In the short-run, each of the CIP's will increase GDP by 0.5 percent and generate approximately 1,500 new jobs annually over the life of the three year Transitional National Development Plan (TNDP). Second, both the foreign exchange and the local currency components of the grant are then directed toward the institutional reforms in the education and training sector which contribute to increased efficiency and productivity within the sector. The GOZ will determine with USAID/Z's concurrence the share of the grant's foreign exchange resources from the first, second and third year tranches which will be allocated to the CIP.

BASIC EDUCATION AND SKILLS TRAINING SECTOR

PROGRAM GRANT ASSISTANCE

(613-0208)

I. PROGRAM ANALYSIS

A. Overall Macroeconomic Situation 1/

1. Overview

Zimbabwe is a middle-income country with the largest and most developed economy in majority-ruled southern Africa. Its formal economy is characterized by sophistication and diversity, and in 1981 the overall GDP per capita was about US$775, although the average for the majority black population (97%) was probably less than half this figure. Exports are evenly divided between agricultural produce, manufactured goods and minerals. Manufacturing constitutes the largest sectoral component of GDP (23%), followed by agriculture (18%), public administration, education and health (16%), and trade, hotels and restaurants (14%).

The range of products produced in Zimbabwe includes twelve major agricultural crops, ten minerals and 6,200 other distinct manufactured goods. Major agricultural crops include maize, wheat tobacco, cotton, sugar, beef and dairy products, groundnuts, tea and coffee. Mineral production includes gold (30%), asbestos (23%), nickel (13%), coal (8%), copper (7%), silver (6%), and chrome (5%); manufacturing industries include iron, steel and metals (26%), textiles (19%), chemicals and petro-chemicals (14%), food processing (14%), and beverages and tobacco (11%).

Zimbabwe's land-locked position constitutes a continuing financial and political burden. Although well-endowed with infrastructure, including rail links connecting all major economic centers with four ports in Mozambique and South Africa, 10,000 kilometers of quality roads and a widespread tele-

1/ For more details on the macroeconomic setting, refer to the FY 1984 Zimbabwe CDSS and the FY 1983 CIP.

communications system, Zimbabwe nonetheless suffers from international transport problems. The oil pipeline from Beira has been interrupted twice in the last two years by acts of sabotage in Mozambique. Owing to port inefficiencies in Mozambique, about three-quarters of imports and exports are shipped through South Africa, even though the ports at Beira and Maputo are about one-third to one-half the distance. Thus, domestic and foreign exchange resources expended for transport are greater than necessary. These expenses provide a large measure of natural protection to the domestic market, however, which is reinforced by protective tariffs and tight foreign exchange allocations for imports.

Excepting petroleum, Zimbabwe is also endowed with a significant energy production capacity. The hydro-electric complex at Lake Kariba provides a significant proportion of energy consumption. With the completion of the Hwange coal-fired electric complex in 1984, Zimbabwe will be self-sufficient in electricity generation. Petroleum is entirely imported, consuming about 25 percent of the imports in 1982. However, the ethanol content of gasoline was raised to 20 percent in 1980 and is produced from local sources.

Although per capita income is high by African standards, the economy is sharply dualistic. The modern sector, dominated by whites and by foreign investors (about 70 percent of all industrial, financial and commercial assets are foreign owned), accounts for perhaps as much as 96 percent of GDP. As a result income per capita in the modern economy is estimated at 28 times that of the traditional economy. Of the approximately one million African wage-earners in 1981, about 40 percent were employed in low-paying agriculture and domestic service jobs. About 40 percent are employed in mining, manufacturing and services, with another 16 percent in public services.

The private sector dominates the modern economy in manufacturing, mining, commerce and finance. The government, conscious of its social objectives and wanting to improve income distribution, has continued price controls inherited from the UDI government. Minimum and maximum wage rates have also been established, with higher incomes frozen at current levels since 1980. Minimum wages increased by 63 percent between 1980 and 1982 and lay-offs are regulated. These regulations, in addition to strict controls of imports and repatriation of profits, are causing increasing hardship within the economy. Compounded by the world recession, a southern African drought and an austerity program announced in December 1982 to complement the 20 percent devaluation, the next year will certainly be a difficult one for the economy. The challenge which continues to

lie at the core of the GOZ's concern is how to achieve growth with equity, or how to redress the inequities of the existing economic structure without eroding the potential of its modern, largely private, sector.

During the first two years of independence, Zimbabwe's economy grew at an impressive rate. Real GDP growth during 1980 was about 11%, while real growth during 1981 was estimated at 7% (IMF). Per capita income increased by 12% to 15% in real terms during 1980 and 1981. This dramatic economic recovery, reflecting the end of the independence struggle and the removal of sanctions, was led by increased wages and improved income distribution which increased demand across the board. The recovery was strengthened by a substantial improvement in terms of trade (34%) and a bumper agricultural crop in 1981 which, along with donor aid, eased existing foreign exchange shortages. The inflationary impact of the recovery was moderated somewhat by a substantial excess capacity within the economy.

The latest complete available employment figures are for June, 1982, which show an all-time high of 1,062,100 persons employed. However this is only 1.1 percent higher than the previous peak in 1975, and will have declined somewhat this year. Given that the population is increasing at about 3.5 percent a year, employment creation is an obvious problem and an important goal. Wage earnings showed significant increases of 22 percent and 24 percent respectively in 1980 and 1981, although price increases were estimated to average 9 and 15 percent.

Economic events during 1982 and prospects for 1983 are far less positive, and the domestic and external financial positions of the GOZ have come under increasing pressure. Real growth during 1982 was about equal to the population growth (3.5 percent), but there will likely be a decline in 1983 of perhaps 3 percent. Inflation should remain high, rising from 17 to possibly 20 percent in 1983. This deteriorating growth performance reflects in part the impact of temporary factors, notibly the drought of the last two years and the continuing effects of the world recession which limits demand for both manufacturing and mining exports. It also reflects the effects of underlying problems in the economy, including a fall in the rate of domestic capital formation, limited capacity utilization in the manufacturing sector due to inadequate levels of imports, and reduced profitability in the productive sectors and weakened competitiveness of manufactured exports owing to substantial increases in wages and other costs and (for 1982) an appreciation of the real effective exchange rate. There have also been serious problems in terms of business climate. Uncertainties surrounding wage,

price, labor and foreign exchange policy and implementation have eroded much of the confidence necessary for productive, long-term commitments of both domestic and foreign investors.

Altogether, 1983 is shaping up to be the most difficult year for the economy since 1977/78. Zimbabwe has still to experience the full impact of the world recession, and international economic forces will likely exert a deflationary influence for the remainder of 1983, although improved aid flows should have a compensatory effect. The key to recovery lies in a buoyant world economy which would enable Zimbabwe to earn the foreign exchange necessary to loosen its severe balance of payments constraint, and this is unlikely to impact on the domestic economy before next year, assuming a turnaround in the world economy this year.

2. Public Finance

Budgetary developments in recent years reflect rapid growth in both revenues and expenditures, as the economy shifted from war-time to recovery and rehabilitation, and social and economic services were expanded to the majority of the population. Increases in revenue reflected the significant growth of the post-independence economy, as well as the introduction of a wide range of new tax measures. Total revenue as a proportion of GDP increased from 23 percent in 1979/80 to 30 percent in 1981/82. Although projected to increase to 34 percent of GDP during the current fiscal year (July, 1982 - June, 1983), the increase in absolute terms is likely to be significantly lower than previous years owing to the levelling off of the revenue base.

Government expenditures have increased as the new government introduced programs for recovery, rehabilitation and reconstruction and expanded public services in education and health. At the same time, defense decreased only slightly from war-time expenditures due to the high cost of demobilization and integration of the three armies, and the increase in anti-government activities in the southwestern part of the country. However, the percent of government expenditures allocated to defense decreased sharply as expenditures on education and health have increased rapidly since independence. Aside from the cost of expanding social programs, agricultural producer, consumer and railway subsidies rose after independence, reaching Z$150 million, or about 3.5 percent of GDP in 1981/82, and accounting for almost half of the overall budget deficit.

Government debt, significant during the 1970s, has increased since April, 1980. The new government inherited a gross public

debt of Z$1.48 billion from 1979. By June, 1982 this debt had increased to Z$2.3 billion of which about 30 percent was external. However, the budgetary deficit as a proportion of GDP has declined from 12.3 percent in 1979/80 to 9.1 percent in 1980/81, and 7.7 percent in 1981/82. While the budgeted deficit for the 1982 fiscal year was originally projected to be 10.7 percent of GDP, recent pronouncements of the GOZ have indicated a determined effort to reduce recurrent expenditures below planned levels for an overall deficit of 7.0 percent.

There is evidence that the GOZ intends further to reduce budget deficits, including expenditure cuts for all ministries. In a press release announcing the December, 1982 devaluation, the Finance Minister stated that "because of recession and lower economic activity, revenues are going to be below target." Rather than mortgaging the future through external borrowings, "it is better to discipline ourselves now...Hence Government will carefully scrutinize public expenditures with a view to effecting savings."

Subsidies constitute an area of significant potential savings for the GOZ, accounting for 8.8 percent of budget resources in 1981/82. These figures are expected to further increase due to increased consumption of meat, milk and bread products which has been stimulated by subsidized prices. The GOZ has agreed to phase out the subsidies over the next few years. The subsidy on oils and fats was eliminated, and the one on maize meal was reduced by 38 percent in December, 1982.

The current budgetary pressure is likely to become more severe in the next year to 18 months as the overall economic downturn is reflected in a leveling off of government revenue. Past reductions in budget deficits while increasing government services have been possible due to a combination of expanding economy and an increased level of taxation, and neither is likely to be a source of increased revenue soon. In the present deflationary situation further increases in taxation might even be counter-productive. Clearly, until the world economy turns around, the GOZ is going to be operating under a severe fiscal restraint, and there will have to be further cutbacks in public expenditure.

3. Balance of Payments

During the two-year period 1980-81 export receipts increased at an average annual rate of 22 percent, and import payments at a rate of 39 percent. The deficits on invisibles and private unrequited transfers widened significantly owing to the liberalization measures taken in 1980 and 1981 and to the discharge of financial obligations undertaken during the Lancaster House constitutional talks which led to the country's independence.

The current account deficit rose in relation to GDP from 6.6 percent in 1980 to 12.5 percent in 1981. Despite increased net capital inflows and official transfers, the overall balance of payments deficit increased from SDR 14 million [2/] in 1980 to SDR 160 million in 1981.

In 1982 the external situation remained under pressure. Reflecting mainly a decline in prices of most products, export receipts are estimated to have declined by 5 percent below the 1981 level. The authorities, reacting to the poor export performance, reduced foreign exchange allocations for imports in 1982 by 17 percent, compared to the amount allocated in the preceding year. Despite the reduction in import allocations, nominal imports in 1982 remained at about the same level as in 1981, as public sector imports financed by aid funds and short- and medium-term commercial credits increased. With no improvement in the services account, the current account deficit is estimated to have been SDR 719 million, equivalent to 12.3 percent of GDP, compared to 12.5 percent in 1981. Despite an increase in net capital inflows, the overall deficit is estimated to have widened by about 19 percent to SDR 190 million.

The stock of government and government-guaranteed external debt with maturities exceeding one year increased from SDR 1,376 million (28 percent of GDP) at the end of December 1981 to SDR 1,705 million (29 percent of GDP) at the end of September 1982. About three quarters of such external loans contracted or guaranteed by the Government during the first three quarters of 1982 were nonconcessional; of this amount, the Government accounted for about 10 percent. In 1982, service payments on debt of more than one year's maturity (including IMF repurchases and charges) are estimated to have been SDR 107 million, equivalent to 8.5 percent of exports of goods and services. Taking also into account estimated service payments on new external debt projected to be disbursed up to 1987, this ratio is expected to rise to 13 percent in 1983, 17 percent in 1984, and 22 percent by 1987, assuming an annual growth in exports of between 10 and 20 percent. Short-term loans of less than one year's maturity amounting in total to SDR 304 million were contracted in late 1981 (SDR 208 million) and 1982 (SDR 96 million), and Zimbabwe is likely to roll over these debts until 1985 under the recent IMF agreement.

Until December 8, 1982 the exchange rate for the Zimbabwe dollar was determined on the basis of a transactions-weighted basket consisting of six currencies: U.S. dollar (55 percent), South African rand (25 percent), pound sterling (12 percent),

2/ The Special Drawing Right (SDR) is an average of world trading currencies and is, therefore, a better measure of international transactions in a period of wide currency fluctuations. Currently (April, 1983), the SDR, the Zimbabwe dollar and the U.S. dollar are all within a few percent of one another.

deutsch mark (5 percent), Swiss franc (2 percent), and French franc (1 percent). After depreciating steadily for many years, the trade-weighted real effective exchange rate appreciated by 7.3 percent in 1981 and 5.6 percent during the first quarter of 1982, and appears to have continued to appreciate until November, 1982. On December 8, 1982 the Zimbabwe dollar was devalued by 20 percent in local currency terms and the currency basket was modified. In January 1983 the Zimbabwe dollar was allowed to depreciate by a further 5 percent in local currency terms.

Because of the current economic situation, the external accounts of Zimbabwe are expected to deteriorate seriously in 1983. The drought and the world recession mean that there probably will be little if any increase in exports (in SDR terms) this year. The demand for minerals should start to pick up by the end of the year, but the southern African drought means that there will be a smaller agricultural surplus to export and adjacent countries will be constrained in their imports of Zimbabwean manufactures. On the other hand, drought relief and the need to provide imported inputs for the manufacturing sector will make it difficult to reduce import allocation. Just to maintain imports at current real levels would mean an additional current account deficit of SDR 100-200 million on top of the already projected overall deficit of over SDR 200 million. The recent devaluation will help the situation in the medium-term by discouraging imports and making exports more attractive. In the short-term, however, a devaluation is likely to worsen a country's external balance, and 1983 will be a year of adjustment on many levels.

The one bright spot has been a series of announced agreements that will provide balance of payments assistance. The IMF has agreed to lend SDR 300 million over the next 18 months which should provide considerable debt service restructuring and relief. The World Bank has agreed to loan US$70 million during FY 83 and FY 84 (in disbursements of US$25 million and 45 million) for current production imports targeted on the manufacturing sector. United States Government program aid has consisted of about US$50 million in grants annually and will likely continue over the next two years with the foreign exchange targeted largely on the private manufacturing sector. There exists, also, a number of donor project aid schemes, but providing mainly budgeting and balance of payments relief to the GOZ in their expansion of human services, rather than reacting directly in macroeconomic terms.

4. The Transitional National Development Plan (1982/83 - 1984/85)

The first part of the three-year transitional economic and social development plan was released in November 1982. The plan was in the works for 22 months. Originally conceived during the bright economic climate of the immediate

post-independent period, the Plan has been largely superseded by deepening economic recession. While the Plan does not adequately deal with this changed economic environment, it is reflective of the significant difference between what the government would like and feels committed to do, and what economic necessity will likely require it to do. Although the targets projected in the Plan will almost certainly not be achieved, they do represent the government's estimate of what it is committed to achieving in the long run. Therefore, for purposes of determining the need for donor resources as envisaged in this grant, the comparison between the objectives of the Plan and economic reality is indicative in part of the difference between required and actual resources.

The objectives embodied in the Plan are consistent with those enunciated earlier in the government's paper Growth with Equity which was prepared for the March, 1981 donor conference (ZIMCORD). There are essentially five objectives. First, the Plan calls for rapid and sustained economic growth. Second, this growth is to be achieved within the context of a more equitable distribution of income, wealth, and economic and social opportunities. Third, full employment is to be attained. Fourth, the reconstruction of war damaged facilities in rural areas started immediately after independence is to be completed. Fifth, the economy is to be transformed from one controlled and owned externally to one which emphasizes domestic economic decision-making.

The following summarizes the overall targets contained in the Plan:

1. The Plan is based on an overall annual real growth rate of 8 percent which is compounded through 1985.
2. Employment is projected to grow at 3.2 percent per annum.
3. The projected growth in labor productivity is 4.8 percent per year.
4. Gross investment of Z$6.1 billion over the three years. The Plan assumes that gross fixed investment will be 19 percent of GDP. The public sector contribution will be Z$3.6 billion or 59 percent. The balance of Z$2.5 billion or 41 percent is to come from the private sector.
5. Exports expected to increase by 30 percent a year.
6. The annual rate of inflation is expected to be 15 percent.

Of course, faced in the first year of the Plan (1982/83), with a real growth rate of less than three percent, a stagnant labor market, limited private sector investments, no growth in either labor productivity, or exports, and inflation running at nearer 20 percent,these targets are unrealistic unless a dramatic turnaround occurs in the world-wide recession. For political reasons, the Government of Zimbabwe decided to retain these targets rather than revise them to take into account current economic realities. This decision was taken to demonstrate the GOZ's continued commitment to a policy of rapid economic growth with equity. The basic development premise of the GOZ is that an expanding economic "pie" affords the best means to increase the standard of living of Zimbabwe's people.

A major feature of the Plan is the Public Sector Investment Program (PSIP). The overall size of the PSIP is Z$3.6 billion or 59 percent of the Gross Capital Formation. Three principal sources of funds are envisaged for the PSIP: government revenues, donor funds, and parastatal revenue and borrowings. The details are presented in Table 1. Assuming reductions in government revenues and restrictions on parastatal borrowings as a pre-condition to IMF loans, the importance of donor sources to financing the PSIP is greatly increased.

Central Government budgetary contributions will amount to Z$1.4 billion or over 39 percent of PSIP. Parastatal borrowings will amount to Z$556 million or 15 percent of the PSIP, and Z$585 million (16 percent) will come from parastatal revenues. ZIMCORD funds will amount fo Z$1.1 billion or 29 percent of the PSIP. Of the total committed to ZIMCORD funds for the PSIP to be disbursed over the plan period, Z$826 million, or 78 percent, will be loans (with a high grant element) and Z$231 million (22 percent) are outright grants. Of the parastatal borrowings (Z$556 million), Z$317 million or 67 percent, will be from external and Z$239 million from domestic sources.

TABLE 1

PUBLIC SECTOR INVESTMENT PROGRAM (Z$ MILLION)

	Base Year 1981/82	Plan Period 1982/83	1983/84	1984/85	Total
Central Government Budget	175	375	455	592	1 422
ZIMCORD	277	300	380	377	1 057
Loans	(192)	(229)	(297)	(300)	(826)
Grants	(85)	(71)	(83)	(77)	(231)
Parastatals' revenues	89	150	188	245	583
Parastatals' borrowings	127	190	139	227	556
External loans	(59)	(130)	(77)	(110)	(317)
Domestic loans	(68)	(60)	(62)	(117)	(239)
Gross Capital formation by public sector	668	1 015	1 162	1 441	3 618

Source: Extracted from TNDP, Table 6.4, p.41

Exchange Rate US$1.03= Z$1.00
Late February, 1983

Total central government expeditures over the Plan period are expected to be Z$7.8 billion. Of this, Z$1.4 billion is the government's contribution to the PSIP. The balance of Z$6.4 billion is for recurrent expenditures. It is anticipated, however, that recurrent expenditures will grow at an annual rate of 18 percent which is significantly lower than in the immediate post-independence period. This reflects greater emphasis within the Plan framework on capital formation.

The shift in emphasis to capital formation represents a deliberate government policy to contain the rate of expansion in central government expenditures on health and education. The Plan states that while "legitimate" increases in these expenditures will be permitted, they will be carefully scrutinized to ensure that every effort is being made to improve the overall effectiveness and efficiency of resource utilization in these sectors.

Revenue from direct and indirect taxes is expected to provide Z$6.8 billion between revenues and expenditures. The bulk of this deficit is to be financed from ZIMCORD grants and loans plus domestic borrowing.

5. Macroeconomic Justification for Program Grant

Since the majority of the financial resources needed to implement the educational and training program contained in the Plan are in local currency, the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development wishes to utilize the Commodity Import Program mechanism to generate the local currency requirements for the sector program. It is proposed that at least 80 percent of the foreign exchange resources be allocated to the CIP, most of which is to be directed toward providing additional relief to the private sector. Thus, while the primary objective of the grant is to provide budgetary resources to assist the GOZ to implement its planned policy reforms in basic primary and secondary education and technical training, an important secondary objective is balance of payments relief to ease the adverse impact of the critical foreign exchange shortages on the macroeconomy. 3/

The present foreign exchange constraint has very seriously adversely affected the private manufacturing sector. In semi-annual surveys conducted by the Department of Business Studies of the University of Zimbabwe (most recently December, 1982) and a survey conducted by the Confederation of Zimbabwe Industries (April, 1982), a clear and consistent picture emerges.

3/ PPC's guidance on sector assistance, November 2, 1982, notes that ESF countries may use economic stablization as an additional justification for sector assistance. Thus, sector programs such as this one may be based on broad macroeconomic considerations as well as those related specifically to the sector

Unlike 1981, there is now a considerable excess capacity in manufacturing. As of a year ago, there also existed a considerable demand for exports from existing capacity which was primarily constrained by a lack of foreign exchange to purchase necessary imported raw materials and intermediate goods. Over 70 percent of the responding firms (December, 1982) listed import allocations as a factor inhibiting production, as previously (April, 1982) 67 percent had listed foreign exchange allocation and 54 percent had listed old machinery as factors inhibiting exports in the short-term. This has been caused by a decline in the real foreign exchange allocations for the sector since 1981. The 1981 allocation was about Z$400 million, which had dropped by last year to about Z$300 million and was expected to remain about constant in nominal terms for 1983, but might have to be cut back in the present deteriorating situation. Taking into account inflation and devaluation, the 1981 real figure would have to be about Z$500 million in 1983, which means that current expected allocations are only about 60 percent of present capacity. As for final demand, 88 percent of Zimbabwe's manufactured exports go to other African countries, 71 percent to only four countries: South Africa (33%), Botswana (25%), Zambia (8%), and Malawi (5%). The economic situation in the southern African region is generally difficult at present, but should begin to improve by the end of the year. In any case, the GOZ strictly monitors the export performance of firms receiving allocations, and past experience would indicate that foreign exchange will be productively allocated. In other words, the present and proposed level of international assistance targeted on the private manufacturing sector is substantially below any reasonable estimate of their ability to use foreign exchange very advantageously in macroeconomic terms.

In quantitative terms, we can conservatively assume an output-import ratio of 3 for manufacturing (the sector average) and a short-term macroeconomic multiplier of 2. The longer term impact would be considerably higher, and it should be possible to increase the above multiplier (6) by carefully allocating the imports, as the GOZ in fact does. In terms of employment any calculation becomes more difficult and more dubious, but the CZI survey data imply that each increased allocation of US$1 million would create perhaps 100 export jobs which would be multiplied (in the short-term) to over 250. In terms of earned foreign exchange, the CZI survey implies a positive return, more than double the original allocation. The necessary caveat to the last two calculations is that they are dependent on a survey of Zimbabwe firms who might be either overly optimistic or simply lobbying for a higher allocation. But this would not affect the GDP estimate, and even deflating the other two would still leave a considerable gain.

On the other hand, foreign exchange going to investment in other sectors would have primarily a long-term macroeconomic impact, unless there are other key short-term bottlenecks which can be identified. There is also a need for considerable flexibility in the allocation of foreign exchange to adjust for changing domestic needs as well as changes in the world economy. In addition, the GOZ must pay attention to high priority social requirements in the areas of health and other human services, even though investments in these areas yield a much lower economic return in the short-term. Assuming a capital-output ratio of 3, the short-term multiplier for imported capital goods could be as low as 1/3 (depending on the import component of the overall investment project), assuming instant production. If investment were capital intensive, the impact on employment could easily be negative. If nothing were produced for export, the foreign exchange expended would disappear instead of being doubled and could even become a slight drain with the continuing need for spare parts. These negative impacts

are related to current distortions in the Zimbabwe economy, such as negative real interest rates, the still possibly overvalued exchange rate and uneconomically high labor costs in certain sectors. Given these factors, there is a tendency to substitute capital for labor, exacerbating unemployment and creating an exaggerated demand for capital goods.

The overall macroeconomic impact of this program, therefore, would be a mixture of the short-term impact of re-inflating manufacturing and the long-term impact of investments in other sectors. Of the US$12 million being allocated annually to this CIP, at least US$10 million will be allocated to the private sector, about half of which (based on recent experience) will be directed toward manufacturing. If this is true, the overall macroeconomic impact should for each trenche should be to increase the GDP by something over 0.5 percent within a year and create perhaps 1,500 jobs. To guage the longer-term impact is much more difficult, depending on the specific uses to which the foreign exchange is allocated and on GOZ decisions in this connection.

B. Sector Analysis

1. Role of Sector in Overall Development

The importance of formal education and technical training in Zimbabwe's overall development strategy is amply demonstrated by events since independence. In 1979, Zimbabwe had 2,401 primary schools and 819,586 primary school pupils. In 1982, primary schools increased by 58.4 percent to 3,803 and enrollments jumped by 136 percent to 1,934,614. Secondary schools expanded from 177 to 734 and enrollements from 66,215 to 224,609 over this same period. Enrollments in virtually all institutions of higher education doubled to 20,000 students. In the year prior to independence, approximately Z$100 million was expended on education. By FY1982/83, Parliament had increased the appropriation of the Ministry of Education and Culture to Z$408 million or 15 percent of the GOZ's budget of Z$2.8 billion. The Ministry of Manpower's appropriation rose from Z$4.5 million in FY 1979/80 to Z$12.7 million in FY 1982/83. Thus, whereas the overall national budget doubled during this period from Z$1.2 billion to Z$2.86 billion, allocations for formal education quadrupled and those for technical training nearly tripled.

Since independence, the GOZ has moved rapidly to shift government resources toward sectors such as education and health which in the long run affect access to economic and social opportunities. This policy reflects the very strongly held view by the political leadership of Zimbabwe that the income and wealth disparities it inherited have their roots in the denial of educational and other opportunities to the black majority.

While the government remains committed to expanding educational and training opportunities, it has become increasingly aware that the achievement of this objective requires a re-examination and revamping of its system to ensure that resources are efficiently and effectively utilized. The following quote from

the TNDP states well this concern.

> "Since independence Government has responded to the demand for more primary and secondary school places by increasing school enrollment enormously. This expansion, however, has taken place without adequate educational planning and co-ordination with manpower training, with little curriculum reform, without sufficient attention being paid to the spatial distribution of school facilities, and against a severe constraint of both the number and quality of available teachers. Government recognizes that mere quantitative expansion is not a sufficient condition for achieving its broad educational objectives. During the plan period measures will be taken to effect adequate educational planning and co-ordination with manpower planning and to introduce qualitative changes in the educational system. Much attention will also be directed to adult education while increased support will be given to programmes that combine general education with technical and practical training in productive activities." The Republic of Zimbabwe: The Transitional National Development Plan: 1982/83-1984/85, Volume I, November 1982, p.27.

Between 1980 and 1983, the GOZ was able to expand educational opportunities though the following actions. First, schools which were used only half the day were put into double sessions. Second, the Ministry of Education recruited large numbers of untrained primary school teachers who were to be given in-service training through the Zimbabwe Integrated National Teacher Education Course, known widely by its acronym ZINTEC. ZINTEC combines short-term classroom instruction with long-term correspondence course work to permit untrained teachers to become trained while simultaneously remaining in the classroom. Third, primary teachers and schools were used to expand secondary education by attaching the first two years of secondary (Forms I and II) to some of the large primary schools and utilizing trained primary teachers as lower secondary instructors. Fourth, expatriate secondary teachers from Britain, Canada, Australia, Mauritius and other Commonwealth countries were recruited. A new 2,000 student capacity secondary teachers training college was started and is nearing completion in Harare.

While technical college enrollments grew from 3,663 in 1979 to close to 8,921 in 1981, most of this growth was in business administration, secretarial training, and general "A" level academic courses rather than technical fields such as electrical, automotive, mechanical and mining engineering.

Enrollments in these technical fields actually experienced some decline. There were two primary reasons for this. First, the technical colleges suffered a severe loss of instructors due to emigration, retirements and resignations to take higher paying jobs in the private sector. Second, with the decline in journeymen in the apprenticed trades caused by white emigration, private businesses were forced to reduce the number of apprentices they could sponsor at the technical colleges. This situation has improved markedly in the last year as expatriate instructors have joined the Harare and Bulawayo technical colleges, the rate of white emigration has slowed, and the turnover rate in technical jobs has decreased.

2. Specific Sectoral Problems, Issues, and Constraints

(a) Background

In the nearly three years since independence, the GOZ has given considerable attention to the need for analyses of the main problems and issues it faces in carrying out its plans for formal and technical education. For example in 1981 with assistance from the International Labour Organization (ILO), the Ministry of Manpower Planning conducted the most comprehensive survey of employed labour yet undertaken in Zimbabwe. The overall report and analyses by industrial categories are currently being drafted. Already preliminary results have been used by the Ministry of Manpower to sharpen its strategy and programs in human resources development.

The Ministry of Education and Culture in February and March 1982 conducted a Pilot study of formal education. This mini-study which included the International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP) and USAID was based on a survey of 40 representative schools in Mashonaland, Matabeleland and Victoria Provinces. Its initial objective was to lay the foundation for a more comprehensive survey to be conducted later in 1982 with USAID assistance.

While the Pilot Study was underway, USAID and the Planning Unit of the MOEC were engaged in discussions of the outline of a sector analysis. A copy of this outline is attached as Annex B. For several reasons, the MOEC felt that it would have difficulty justifying a comprehensive sector analysis along the lines outlined by USAID. First, given the limited quantitative data covering the post-independence period and the disruptions of traditional demographic patterns during the war years, it would be difficult to conduct a comprehensive analysis using secondary data sources. Such an analysis would, therefore, require generation of additional primary data which would require considerable

time and resources to collect. Second, the major problems were well known and urgently needed addressing. Most senior officials in the Ministry could not see how a comprehensive sector analysis would contribute significantly to their understanding of the problem, particularly given the paucity of data on the post-independence period. Third, the World Bank had recently completed its education and training sector study. The Ministry felt that any further review by USAID was redundant. Fourth, a USAID sector study would require input and data from the National Manpower Survey which was unavailable.

Taking these concerns into account, USAID and the MOEC agreed to the following strategy to increase our understanding of the major problems constraining the education and technical training sector and to establish the justification for the sector assistance program grant in FY 1983.

(1) USAID/Zimbabwe would draft three papers pulling together available data to analyze in greater detail some of the key education and technical training problems which affect post-independent Zimbabwe. These papers would build on papers already prepared such as the World Bank's report and the MOEC/IIEP/USAID Pilot Study. These papers would be analyses of:

(i) Educational Developments in Zimbabwe: Main Issues and Problems (Annex C);

(ii) Relevant Education: Some Critical Considerations for Zimbabwe (Annex D); and

(iii) Education and Socio-economic Equality in Zimbabwe (Annex E).

(2) USAID would assist the Planning Unit of the MOEC to strengthen its capacity to explore and analyze the impact of various policy decisions on the demand for and allocation of educational inputs. The Chief Education Officer for Planning had made a trip to the USA in late 1981 at which time she visited the Academy for Educational Development. AED demonstrated how microcomputer technology could be used to develop a budget planning simulation model which would permit planners and policy makers to test and study the impacts of various policy decisions on the system. USAID agreed to finance the development of such a model for Zimbabwe.

(3) The MOEC and the MMPD would establish closer working relationships to coordinate the development and design of the proposed USAID sector assistance program.

The above strategy has accomplished the objectives of a sector assessment. First, it has allowed USAID and the GOZ to gain a greater understanding of the main policy issues and

problems and the capacity of the existing institutional infrastructure to address these problems. Second, it has sharpened the understanding of the relative importance of key constraints and the specific changes in policy, resources and institutions required to overcome them.

The following sections summarize the five critical constraints which inhibit the capacity of the GOZ to achieve its objectives in the education and technical skills training sector Although the constraints are interdependent, they are presented in rough order of relative importance. They are:

(1) Limited and inequitably allocated resources;

(2) Insufficient numbers of trained instructors;

(3) Inappropriate instructional curriculum;

(4) Inefficient and inequitable spatial distribution of instructional facilities and staff; and

(5) Insufficient planning capacity.

The following sections describe each constraint and how the GOZ proposes overcoming it.

(b) Key Constraints

(1) Limited and Inequitably Allocated Financial Resources: There are two dimensions to this problem. The first is the inability of the GOZ to financially sustain the post-independence quantitative expansion of education and training without major modification in the way in which education and training are undertaken. The second is the absence of financial resources to design, test and implement reforms which will permit it to develop a more efficient and affordable system.

Despite the attainment of nearly 100 percent enrollment of primary school aged children and a major expansion of secondary enrollment, Zimbabwe will have to struggle merely to maintain these enrollment rates much less further broaden access to post-primary education. The reasons for this are a function of the sheer size of the school age population, its rapid expansion and limited budgetary resources.

Zimbabwe is a country of young people. In the estimated 1980 population (based on the 1969 Census), 61.5 percent of the population was under 19. Half of these were in the pre-school age group (under five years of age). Without any changes in its education system, Zimbabwe requires an additional 18,000 new primary school classrooms and 20,000 teachers in the next three years to cater to this preschool cohort assuming a student/

teacher ratio of 40 to 1. The difference between classrooms and teachers is caused by existing backlog of unfilled teaching positions.

Caught between a mushrooming school age population and limited resources, the GOZ has managed to cope, at least in the short run, by spreading available resources thinner over more and more pupils. The long run results concealed by impressive post-independence enrollment statistics are (1) the unavailability of budgetary resources and (2) the erosion of educational quality.

Prior to independence, educational revenue and expenditures were roughly constant as a percent of GDP. In the year prior to independence, the former government of Rhodesia-Zimbabwe spent Z$118 million on primary, secondary and post-secondary education including the University, agricultural colleges and technical colleges. Of this amount, Z$100 million was for formal primary and secondary education. These funds were evenly divided between the schools serving the less than 80,000 white school age population and the 2.8 million black one of which one-third were in school. Thus,half the government's resources were spent in the education of less than five percent of the population while the other half went toward the education of more than 95 percent of the population. These differences were reflected in cost per pupil. Government spent an average of Z$45 per black child and Z$491 per white child. In terms of its national budget, the share going to education and training was 13 percent. In relation to GDP, the proportion was 4.6 percent.

Since independence, the GOZ's expenditures on education and training have climbed rapidly. For its 1982/83 fiscal year, the GOZ planned to spend Z$422 million on primary, secondary and post-secondary education. This represented 15 percent of a total budget of Z$2.8 billion. While the official GDP statistics only go up through the end of calendar 1981, an education and training budget of Z$422 million is likely to be close to between 9 and 10 percent of GDP depending on what assumptions are made about the rate of economic growth for 1982 and the first half of 1983. The percent is closer to 9 percent if a three percent rate of growth is assumed. On the other hand, it approaches 10 percent at a zero rate of growth.

Although the shares of the national budget and GDP allocated to education and training are not uncommon among developing coun ries, what is disturbing is (1) its rapid rate of increase and (2) the limited population covered by these resources. Zimbabwe has a large and growing primary school age population, a modest secondary enrollment ratio, and relatively limited outputs from its post-secondary institutions.

High post-primary unit costs are at the heart of Zimbabwe's education finance problem. While the unit cost of around Z$100 per primary pupil is in line with other developing countries at similar stages of development, the unit costs of over Z$500 for secondary, over Z$6,000 for university, and over Z$2,000 for teacher training, agricultural and technical colleges are similar to unit costs for OECD countries as opposed to those for a developing country.

Complicating the GOZ's task of dealing with these high unit costs, particularly those associated with formal secondary education, is the wide variance in unit costs among different school types and, to a lesser extent, within school types. This problem also affects the allocation of resources at the primary level. In 1981, the GOZ spent Z$349 per pupil in Group A primary schools (former all white government schools), Z$132 in Group B primary schools (former all black government schools), and Z$87 in registered primary schools (mostly rural private and local authorities schools). At the secondary level, the disparities among types are even greater. In an average Group A secondary day school, the per pupil expenditure was Z$655 compared with Z$376 in a Group B day school and Z$137 in a rural district council day school.

While the variance within the same school types are considerably smaller than those among the three school types, they are still important. For example, Prince Edward's Secondary School in Harare and Marondera Secondary school are two Group A schools. The costs per pupil are Z$772 and Z$908 respectively. Similar differences are found among rural council primary schools. Nyadire and Nyahondo are two schools. Their expenditures per pupil are Z$97 and Z$76 respectively.

These differences are mainly a function of (1) the significantly lower student/teacher ratios in government Group A and B schools compared to private schools (2) inefficiencies in the allocation of resources and (3) differences in the qualifications and experience of the teaching staffs. For example, at the primary level, the student/teacher ratios for Group A, Group B and private registered schools were 33:1, 42:1, and 44:1 respectively. Among secondary schools, the ratios were 19:1, 24:1, and 25:1. The Budget Planning Model indicated that although difference in student/teacher ratios was a major factor in the higher cost of the government Group A and B schools compared to private schools a not insignificant factor was the difference in salary structures which was in turn a function of educational and training qualifications and experience. Teachers in Group A schools tended to be more experienced

and better trained and qualified than those in either the Group B or the private registered schools.

Aside from differences in the quality of the teaching force among schools, the Budget Planning Model also revealed that differences in costs were associated with variation in administrative and other support staff among and within school types. For example, Group A schools tend to have on average as many administrative and support staff as they do teachers. In some cases the ratio of administrative and support staff per pupil was more favorable than the student/teacher ratio.

Among post-secondary training institutions, the high unit cost was mainly a function of the extremely favorable student/instructor ratios. The average student/faculty ratio at the University was 6:1. At the technical colleges and teacher training colleges, the ratios were 10:1 and 9:1 respectively. However since 1979, the ratios in the teacher training colleges, for example, have risen to 15:1 in 1982 and 20:1 in 1983.

The TNDP outlines the GOZ's strategy for dealing with the problem of limited and inequitably distributed financial resources. These are presented below, not necessarily in the order in which they appear in the Plan.

First: Through the standardization of teacher recruitment, qualifications and placements, the GOZ plans to reduce the variance in educational costs among school types.

Second: New methods of instruction, particularly those which reduce teacher contact hours, are being considered to decrease the demand for teachers. The MOEC is particularly interested in using mass media such as radio in direct classroom instruction. While the use of radio would permit the student/teacher ratio to increase, it is possible to do this without affecting the average number of pupils per classroom. In most secondary schools, the pupil teacher ratios are more favorable than the average number of students per classroom. The average pupil teacher ratio for Group A schools is 19:1 compared to an average class size of 26:1. For Group B schools the ratios are 24:1 and 38:1 respectively. Among private schools they are 25:1 and 38:1 respectively. Within this situation it is possible to close the gap between these ratios or reverse it by increasing enrollments more rapidly than the teaching force and using substitutes such as radio for the trained teacher in the classroom.

Similar innovations in instruction will be undertaken at the post-secondary level. The Ministry of Manpower is exploring ways to reduce the length of technical training and introduce new methods of technical instruction which would permit resources to be used more efficiently. They are particularly

interested in modularized approaches. Teacher training colleges have adopted a scheme of alternating years of on-campus instruction. This allows the colleges to significantly increase enrollments without increasing the size of the faculty.

Third: The GOZ envisages a scheme of shared responsibility between government and communities in the financing, maintenance and operation of schools and colleges. Responsibility for rural primary schools will continue to be vested in district councils which will receive financial assistance from government. Communities will assist in the construction and maintenance of schools by contributing labor and local materials. Urban communities will be expected to assume greater responsibility for financing their own schools. Through establishment of school management committees, urban communities will be permitted to negotiate fees which they may charge to augment the financial resources available to the school. Responsibility for post-secondary education will remain a tripartite partnership involving the government, private business and the individual students themselves.

Fourth: Through the establishment of stronger analytical, planning and resource management capacity in the various ministries and authorities dealing with education and training, the GOZ plans to overcome inequities and improve efficiencies, in the allocation of financial resources. For example, the Budget Planning Model (developed for the MOEC) will permit it to test the impact of different formulae for allocating grants to private registered schools which represent the majority of schools in Zimbabwe.

(2) Insufficient Trained Staff: Education and training are labor-intensive. The largest single expense in most education or training program is the salary of its instructional staff. Thus, the deployment and utilization of teachers have a major impact on two key variables in any educational situation--cost and learning.

Effectively dealing with both these variables is constrained by the broader labor market in which education and training programs operate. In an economy such as Zimbabwe, education and training programs compete with other public and private employers of skilled manpower. As a result, forces of labor supply and demand over which education policy makers have little, or no, control, impinge on the range of viable policy options which they may adopt to deal with a shortage of instructional staff and high unit cost. For example, freezing the salaries of teachers as a means of containing educational costs would likely only exacerbate the problem of retaining trained teachers

and recruiting new teachers who are able to find more attractive jobs in the private sector. On the other hand, raising teachers' salaries without improving the productivity of teachers puts a strain on an already over burdened budget. Therefore, solutions to the problem rest in maintaining education's competitive position in the labor market while simultaneously making teachers more productive.

(i) Primary and Secondary Education

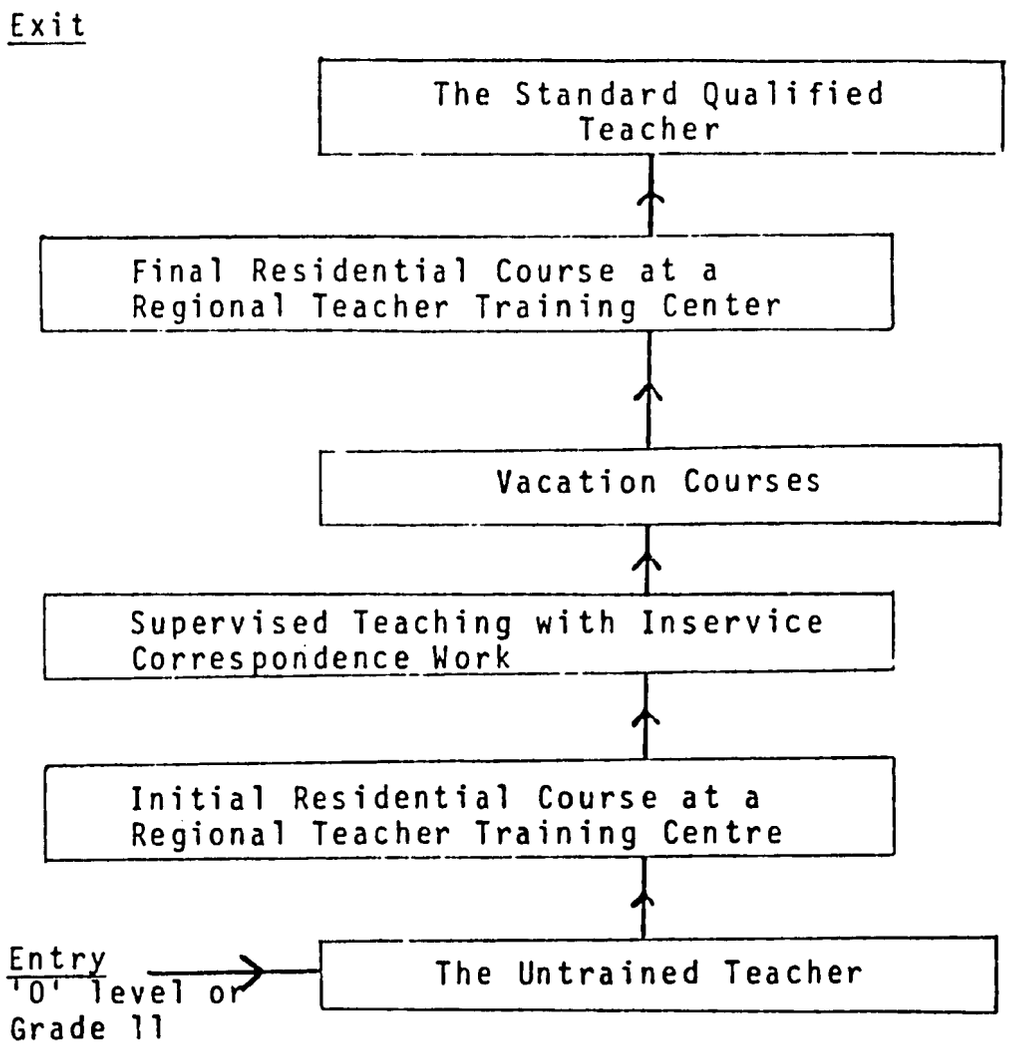
The rapid increases in enrollment at the primary and secondary levels are mirrored in the recruitment of significantly more teachers. In 1982, there were 56,567 teachers in primary and secondary schools. This was 2.5 times more than the 1979 teaching force of 22,017. Both teachers and students are concentrated in private schools. Private schools have 86% of all pupils and 83% of all teachers.

In 1980, there were 28,455 primary school teachers. Out of these, 9.8% had standard qualifications, 62.0% had non-standard qualifications and 28.2% were untrained. In 1981, in the face of a backlog of untrained and underqualified teachers, the government launched a new primary teacher training program, the Zimbabwe Inegrated National Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC). With the introduction of ZINTEC and the recruitment of unqualified and retired teachers, a further 11,415 teachers were added to the system.

ZINTEC is the most significant recent development in teacher education in Zimbabwe. ZINTEC has at present 5 Regional Teacher Training Centers, each catering for at least 200 students three times a year. ZINTEC has the capacity to produce 3,000 teachers annually. This capacity far exceeds the annual output from the seven traditional primary teacher training colleges of 1,710 per year.

Under ZINTEC student teachers go through the program outlined on the next page:

ZINTEC Training Program



Under the program, it costs Z$4,314 to train a teacher compared with Z$4,500 in the conventional teacher training colleges. Although costs are similar, it is important to keep in mind that the ZINTEC teacher is contributing to classroom instruction during training whereas the conventional teacher trainee is not.

The number of secondary teachers in 1979 and 1980 were 3,534 and 3,730 respectively. By 1981 the number increased to 4,874. By 1982 it had climbed to 8,386.

There has been a partial acceptance of a ZINTEC type approach to teacher education at the secondary level. In 1981, the University of Zimbabwe proposed a program of intensive training for secondary teachers modelled after ZINTEC. The GOZ adopted a modified approach which involves a year of residential instruction followed by a year in the classroom before returning for the third year at the college.

Primary and secondary school teacher training institutions have the same minimum entry qualifications. Five "O" levels including a language are required. At graduation, the teacher trainees are given either a Primary School Teachers' Certificate or a Secondary School Teachers' Certificate depending on the course they followed during the training.

The University of Zimbabwe also runs a B.Ed. course and a two-year part-time Graduate Certificate in Education which equips a person to teach at the secondary level. At present besides the four ZINTEC Training Centers, there are 10 teacher training colleges: two for secondary teachers only, seven only primary, and one for both primary and secondary. Together these colleges had in 1982 the capacity to produce 2,385 teachers a year - 1,710 at the primary level and 675 at the secondary.

At present student/teacher ratios, the MOEC requires approximately 6,600 new primary teachers a year for at least the next couple of years declining to around 4,000 in about 1986 or 1987 to handle expected growth of primary school enrollments. With a 1982 capacity to train 4,710 primary teachers a year, the GOZ is in position to cope with the demand for training primary school teachers. The percentage of unqualified teachers will continue to expand, albeit at a slower rate, up until about 1986 at which time the proportionof trained teachers will increase as teacher training focuses increasingly on upgrading the qualifications of teachers already in the system.

The serious shortage of instructional staff is at the secondary level. Assuming that 80 percent of the graduates from grade 7 will proceed to Form I and that there is no change in the student/teacher ratio, the GOZ requires approximately 2,000 secondary teachers in 1983 alone. In 1982, the secondary teacher training colleges and the University of Zimbabwe produced 440 teachers, about 22 percent of this requirement. The government's policy to provide eleven years of schooling for all Zimbabweans combined with the student population bulge moving up through the primary grades is likely to see the gap between the demand for secondary teachers and supply widen significantly before it begins to narrow in seven to eight years.

The MOEC has adopted the following strategy to meet the short-run and long-run demand for secondary teachers. In the short-run, it is recruiting teachers from English speaking developing and developed countries. Expatriate teachers are given two or three year contracts and paid local salaries, a third of which they may remit. In addition, the ministry has modified its training program which puts secondary teacher trainees in the school during their second and fourth years. This not only expands the capacity of existing training facilities but also gets teachers with basic training into the classroom sooner.

The long-run solution to the problem lies in a significant expansion in secondary teacher training capacity combined with reforms in curriculum to permit teachers to be utilized more efficiently. With financing from local currency generated by the 1982 CIP and the 1981 cash transfers, the MOEC is nearing completion of a new 2,000 student secondary teachers training college in Harare. This college with its strong emphasis on science and technical subjects is likely to play a significant role in new approaches to secondary teacher education as well as being the major source of new secondary teachers.

(ii) Technical Education

There are three polytechnics in Zimbabwe. One is in Harare, another in Bulawayo and a third in KweKwe. Smaller private owned, but government monitored technical colleges, also exist in Harare and Bulawayo and the other urban centres such as Gweru and Mutare. In addition, the Ministry of Manpower Planning and Development (MMPD) intends to set up five more technical colleges. These would cater to specific manpower development requirements or to a particular set of industrial and agricultural skills within the locale. The one at Gweru will be used for the training of technical instructors; Mutare is to specialize in forestry, petro-chemicals and food processing; Chinhoyi, agriculture; Hwange, mining; and Lowveld, sugar and ethanol technology.

The MMPD is also designing a new National Vocational Training System (NVTS) which will expand and improve the vocational training system to create a broader and more flexible approach to vocational training. The NVTS will have two primary objectives. The first is to upgrade semi-skilled workers to skilled levels. The second is to permit individuals with less than 'O' level qualifications to acquire skills training.

The NVTS will consist of:

1. A National Center in Harare,

2. Six regional centers (Gweru, Masvingo, KweKwe, Mutare, Hwange and Bulawayo) and eventually

3. Six Vocational Training Schools in rural growth points, and

4. Eight Polytechnic Colleges.

The program of the NVTS is outlined in greater detail in the next section on curriculum reforms. It should be noted that the rural centers may not be included in the TNDP but the next five year plan.

The professional technical staff requirements for the existing and planned technical colleges and VTC's are difficult to estimate. At the moment, these requirements are largely confined to the existing technical colleges. By the end of 1982, there were approximately 100 vacancies in these three colleges. This represented 41 percent of the 241 posts. While the severity of this problem should not be minimized, the MMPD has made significant progress in reducing the vacancy rate. At the start of 1982, the rate stood at 56 percent. The gains over the year were largely the results of expatriate staff recruited under various donor funded programs. The largest of these programs is the CIDA grant to World University Services of Canada. If the MMPD were to establish five new technical colleges over the TNDP, the professional staff needed would be between 250 and 400 depending on how quickly these colleges were able to establish their full range of course offerings. Of the seven institutions in the NVTS planned for the TNDP, two (Hwange and Bulawayo) are already donor financed. Assuming that the donors for these centers will cover all professional staffing requirements, the NVTS will need 75 professional technical staff for the remaining five. If the pilot Vocational Training Schools (VTS) were included, the additional technical staff required would be between 30 and 50. Thus, the total number of technical instructors/lecturers needed during the TNDP varies between 425 and 625 depending on what assumptions are made regarding the rate of expansion of technical education. Since this expansion is virtually dependent on expatriate staffing, the rate of growth will be entirely determined by donor assistance.

There is no institution in Zimbabwe which provides for the staff development requirements of the technical colleges and the NVTS. In the past, staff was drawn from older teachers and journeymen from industry who wanted to work part-time at the colleges. As a result, the college staffs consisted of late middle-aged individuals. Many of these are retiring. Younger instructors are taking higher paying jobs in private industry. This caused a severe reduction in the technical courses offered in the immediate post-independence period.

Severely complicating the MMPD's ability to attract and retain instructional staff is the relatively low pay which it can offer. Prior to independence, responsibility for the technical colleges was with the MOEC. Technical instructors were on the same pay scale established for secondary school teachers with similar experience and qualifications. Since this link to the secondary teachers' pay scale was notbroken when the new MMPD was established, the technical colleges find it increasingly difficult to retain and attract staff. An instructor can easily double his salary by taking a position in the private sector.

The MMPD's strategy for overcoming the shortage of technical instructors is five-fold.

First: Expatriate instructors are being employed on two-year contracts from other English speaking developing and developed countries. The largest numbers recruited to date have come from Australia, India, Pakistan, Mauritius and Canada. This program has permitted the technical colleges to reverse the downward spiral in course offerings.

Second: Technical education, particularly engineering subjects, is being given priority in various participant training programs. The MMPD sees these programs (1) training instructors for the technical colleges and (2) narrowing the gap between the demand for and supply of technical manpower, thereby controlling the upward pressure on private sector wages which made retention and recruitment of technical teaching staff difficult.

Third: A technical college for instructors is being developed at Gweru. Initially, the college will be staffed by expatriates who will gradually be replaced by Zimbabweans.

Fourth: In addition to the technical instructors' program at Gweru, the NVTS will offer training programs for trainers of semi-skilled workers.

Fifth: The MMPD has proposed the establishment of a separate pay scale for the technical colleges staff. This would permit the MMPD to pay technical college instructors on a higher pay scale which would considerably narrow, although not close, the pay gap between them and the private sector.

(3) Inappropriate Instructional Curriculum: The basis for the view that education and training systems inherited from the colonial past are inappropriate or irrelevant is the assumption that there exists a mismatch between what is taught and learned in schools and the socio-economic needs of a newly independent country. Coming to grips with the question of relevancy or appropriateness of any learning system is complicated enough, but it is much more complicated by the lack of agreement among educators themselves on a definition of relevancy which is functional and can be readily translated into operational programs. The problems with the concept of relevancy and its historical roots in Zimbabwe are thoroughly discussed in the paper Relevant Education: Some Critical Considerations for Zimbabwe which is attached as Annex D. Rather than dwell on these issues in this section of the PAAD, the discussion focuses mainly on the key points of agreement within

the GOZ on what constitutes the objectives of the curriculum reforms envisaged over the TNDP to make education and training more responsive to the developmental needs of Zimbabwe.

The proposed curriculum reforms to be implemented during the TNDP have the following objectives:

1. Maintenance and improvement of quality while simultaneously establishing a more affordable overall system.

2. Promotion of the full development of the individual as well as ensuring that appropriate skills and attitudes are imparted to students. Of particular concern is the need to increase students' appreciation of the value of working productively and creatively with ones hands. Thus, reforms will be directed at achieving a balance between practice and theory.

3. Attainment of self-sufficiency in manpower training.

4. Full involvement of the local community, the business and industrial sectors, and the beneficiarie This will ensure the integration of human resources development programs, particularly education and training, to ensure their internal coherence and external consistency with social objectives and the requirements for economic growth and development.

Since independence, the three most significant curriculum reforms in formal education and skills training are the:

a. Zimbabwe Secondary Schools Science Project (ZIMSCI);

b. Zimbabwe Foundation for Education with Production (ZIMFEP); and

c. National Vocational Training System (NVTS).

These are discussed briefly below:

The ZIMSCI project which started around independence by the Science Education Center at the University of Zimbabwe was designed to support the untrained or underqualified teacher in the rural secondary schools with appropriate scientific equipment and detailed programmed teachers' guides. The project provides scripted teacher inputs at appropriate cues in the

lessons, pupils' exercises with answers and follow-up materials, and step by step instructions on the organization of pupil practical work and other learning activities. The cost of this program is US$13.00 per student per year. The project is described in Annex F

A recent formative evaluation of ZIMSCI compared Form I students who had been in the ZIMSCI program with students being taught science in the conventional science program. The results of this evaluation indicated that:

a. The science test scores of ZIMSCI students were higher than those taught in the conventional program; and

b. There is in general no significant difference in the performance of ZIMSCI students whose teachers are trained and those whose teachers are not.

A more comprehensive evaluation will be made of the 56,000 ZIMSCI taught students who recently completed the National Junior Certificate Examination in Science at the end of Form II.

The potential impact of ZIMSCI on curriculum developments beyond the first two years of secondary is difficult to predict. The future direction depends on parental and teacher expectations, political ideology and national needs. The conflicting pressures affecting the program are:

a. The strong academic orientation of the "Ordinary Level" and "Advanced Level" examinations. Parental expectations are for more emphasis on this traditional system which is regarded as the only route to employment and career development.

b. The political leadership in Zimbabwe is opposed to concentrating educational resources on exceptional children at the expense of the majority of children.

c. The national needs are for a greatly expanded pool of technically oriented people who have the fundamental skills and concepts required for entry into industrial and agricultural training.

ZIMSCI is being expanded to cover Form III and IV. Its basic foundation remains on teaching scientific concepts within the context of the technology of materials, machines and

agriculture to give the average citizen the knowledge and skills of immediate applicability whether the individual was fortunate enough to find a niche in the limited formal employment sector or remained in the rural environment. To account for the strong academic bias of the system and parental expectations, thought is being given to expand the technological emphasis of the conventional "O" level examinations.

The concept of "Education with Production " (EWP) has its immediate origin in the refugee schools established in Zambia and Mozambique during the liberation struggle. However, as Annex D indicates the roots of the concept run deep within the history of educational developments in Zimbabwe. These historical roots in the old F2 schools with the associated negative connotations in the minds of many parents is a major obstacle which EWP must come to terms if it is to succeed.

EWP attempts to link education and training with production. The school and community are considered to be tied together. Teaching and learning are seen as related to the real-life economic, cultural, social and political needs of the community.

In order to translate the EWP concept into reality, the Zimbabwe Foundation for Education with Production (ZIMFEP) was created shortly after independence. To date ZIMFEP has been mainly involved in the establishment of a series of schools such as Chindunduma, Rusununguko, and Majoda located on former commercial farms. Most of the students in these schools are refugee children and former combatants who have decided to remain together after returning from exile in Mozambique and Zambia.

ZIMFEP's success is mixed. Schools such as Majoda which have a professional manager and experienced staff have been able to establish themselves rapidly. At Majoda, the earnings from the farm and ranch which are being run efficiently are financing the construction of the school, hostels, teachers' houses, medical facilities and farm workers houses. On the other hand, the school at Rusununguko while successful in building classrooms and a clinic has been unable to reestablish the economic viability of the farm despite the fact that it is located on good farm land in contrast to the semi-arid poor lands at Majoda.

The main problems facing ZIMFEP are the practical realities of translating a philosophical concept into reality. ZIMFEP is divided between two schools of thought. The first group believes that the educational aspects of the program should take priority over the production ones. That is, the farm exists to give students and teachers the opportunity to learn by doing. The other group while agreeing that the educational component is a

major priority recognizes the absence of total compatibility between education and production. They argue that farming requires highly technical skills and knowledge which are not normally possessed by primary and secondary students and teachers. Furthermore, even if they had the skills, they do not have the time to devote to farming. Running a large farm is a full-time job which if left to the staff of the school will never operate efficiently and earn the money to cover the cost of the school. The contrast in success between Majoda and the other ZIMFEP schools supports the position of the second group.

While it is even more difficult to see how ZIMFEP rather than ZIMSCI will affect the future of education in Zimbabwe, it is important to keep in mind that they share a common set of objectives which center on the need (1) to reach a balance between academic and practical education and (2) to devise a more affordable system of education. These themes are at the heart of the GOZ's efforts to develop a more appropriate, or relevant, formal educational system.

The theme of affordability carries over into the innovations being instituted by the MMPD with the added one of creating a graded and diversified system of technical and occupational training which will fill the existing void between highly skilled and unskilled workers. The NVTS is being established to meet this requirement. The NVTS has as one of its main objectives the upgrading of semi- skilled or skilled-but-not-recognized workers to skilled status. The motor industry of Zimbabwe with backing from bilateral donor aid to MMPD has started operating two programs, one at the Masasa Center in Harare and the other at Westgate near the Railway Yards in Bulawayo. This program is divided into five grades and trainees can step in and out at each grade, according to entrance and trade achievement tests.

The NVTS will be administered and coordinated by the National Vocational Training Center (NVTC) in Harare. In addition to having training and upgrading functions, the NVTC will coordinate all vocational training activities in the country, develop job specifications, a new trade testing system, and new certification standards adjusted to local conditions and requirements, and train vocational instructors in conjunction with the college at Gweru.

The MOEC is establishing an Education Service Center (ESC) also in Harare which will be analogous to the NVTC. This center will incorporate curriculum development, teacher education, examinations and non-formal education into a single unit. The center will be located on a site adjacent to the Audio-Visual Center near the University of Zimbabwe. Both

ZINTEC and ZIMSCI would be folded into this center. The ESC has begun at the Teachers Hostel on the University of Zimbabwe campus with embryonic staff largely consisting of the curriculum development unit of the MOEC. Since its inception in early January 1983, the ESC has held an intensive workshop on cost effective approaches to curriculum reforms. The workshop focused on radio and use of programmed learning materials. Considerable attention was given to the AID financed Radio Math Project in Nicaragua.

As this discussion of curriculum reform indicates, the GOZ is adopting a pragmatic and reasoned approach to the introduction of curriculum changes into its system of education and training. However, since systematic curriculum reforms require taking a broad approach which adapts and alters a number of interrelated and complementary components of the system, if reform is to be successful, it requires adequate funding to underwrite these changes. For example, new approaches to teaching even a single subject such as science have to be combined with modifications in teacher education and examinations. At the present time, the lack of adequate funding is one of the major constraints on reform.

(4) Inefficient and Inequitable Spatial Distribution of Instructional Facilities and Staff

At independence, Zimbabwe inherited a dualistic educational and training system which favored the white minority at the expense of the black majority. While there remains a bias toward the former all white schools in teams of allocation of resources, this bias has lessened dramatically since independence with the quadrupling of educational expenditures with the additional resources flowing to rural primary and secondary schools. Although racial inequalities remain an important policy issue, there are other inequalities based on geographical, ethnic and economic characteristics which are taking on major importance in the post-independence period.

The problem of the spatial distribution of schools and training facilities has two features which affect policy. The first feature relates to economic efficiency. Assuming a given level of available resources, it is important to allocate them in ways which maximize output from the system. The output from the educational system may be increased through a better allocation of resources. The second feature concerns inequities which may be a function of race, geography, culture, ethnicity and economic and social status or a combination of these factors. Decision-makers face the onerous task of balancing these often incompatible aspects of allocating resources.

As the sections on inadequate resources and the economic analysis indicated, there is considerable room for increasing efficiency within the educational system by improving the allocation of resources. For example, some schools are overstaffed while others are understaffed. Resource utilization in this case, can be improved by shifting resources between these schools. However, rather than focus on this dimension of the spatial distribution problem this section examines those related to equity.

The creation of equity within an educational system involves two processes: (1) providing equal access to education and (2) ensuring equality of results. Analyzing the extent of these inequities in Zimbabwe is beset with many problems. First, only three years have passed since independence. Thus, assessing progress toward the attainment of equity which is a complex and lengthy process is risky. Second, critical data, particularly on economic and demographic characteristics and school facilities, are not available, incomplete or inappropriate. For example, while there are regional and district population estimates (based on 1969 census), these are not subdivided into age-specific cohorts which match the relevant school age populations. Third, since data on enrollments is supplied by Headmasters and is used mainly to compute the size of a school's per capita grant, they may be inflated. Fourth, internal migration and settlement patterns are changing rapidly. Resettlement and squatter settlements distort any comparison of enrollment and population patterns. With these caveats in mind, let us turn to an examination of the problem of equity.

In the aggregate, Zimbabwe has made remarkable progress in broadening access to education. Using projections from the 1969 census, the 1982 population of young people who were 5 to 19 years old was 42 percent of the total population. Since primary and secondary enrollments comprised 28.4 percent of the total population, this implied that 71 percent of the school age population was in school. In only three years, the GOZ has moved from a situation in which less than one-third of this age group was in school to one in which over two-thirds were. Although the significance of these gains should not be minimized, they do mask some important geographical and socio-economic inequalities.

The greatest disparities in access exist at the secondary level. The policy of rapidly expanding access to secondary education has tended to widen rather than narrow urban and rural disparities. Children residing in urban areas have benefitted enormously from this policy. In 1982, 99.5 percent of the students in Harare completing the grade seven examination in 1981 were admitted to Form I. This compared to 53.5 percent in Mashonaland province which surrounds Harare.

Quantative disparities are reinforced by qualitative ones. Urban schools have a higher proportion of qualified teachers, better equipment and more textbooks than rural ones. The available data does not permit a breakdown by provinces.

Access to technical education is characterized by three types of inequalities. First, whites have greater access to technical education than blacks. However, the proportion of whites in technical colleges continues to decline. Second, very few girls are enrolled in technical and scientific courses at the University and the technical colleges. For example, there was no girl admitted out of about 60 students to the engineering school at the University at the beginning of the 1983 school year. Third, with the concentration of technical colleges in the main urban centers of Harare and Bulawayo, secondary towns and rural areas are disadvantaged.

The GOZ is aware of these inequities and is taking steps to overcome them.

1. Communities are being asked to share the cost of education. The GOZ would like to see particularly advantaged areas and communities bear a higher proportion of the cost of education than disadvantaged ones. GOZ tax policies and the secondary school fees are aimed at this objective. First, a greater share of government revenues are being allocated to rural as opposed to urban schools. Second, urban schools are being asked to form Management Committees to levy fees.

2. The allocation formula which provides grants to private schools (the majority of all schools in Zimbabwe) is being reexamined. The main variable in the formula is enrollment. The per capita formula is applied equally across Zimbabwe. While this may seem fair on the surface, it assumes a greater degree of homogenity of socio-economic and population characteristic within Zimbabwe than exists. For example, such a formula does

not take into account the special needs of disadvantaged tribal groups, particularly the minority tribes of the Zambezi Valley and the Lowveld. Also it fails to recognize the additional cost involved in providing schooling to populations dispersed over a larger area as opposed to densely populated areas.

3. The GOZ is concentrating expansion of educational and training facilities in rural areas and secondary towns. The overwhelming majority of the planned expansion of physical facilities contained in the TNDP will occur outside the main urban centers of Harare and Bulawayo.

(5) Insufficient Planning and Administration Capacity: The historical administrative complexity between black and white education has contributed in a major way to the problems facing the GOZ. This complexity affects the GOZ's efforts to expand and introduce change within the system. At independence, there were government schools broken down into Group A and B schools, mission schools, community schools and council schools. While these various categories of school types made it difficult to plan and administer education, it had certain positive features which the GOZ appears interested in building upon. For example, in the past, community boards and councils which operated schools had the authority to institute local taxation to cover school cost. At independence, this tax authority was withdrawn.

The GOZ plans to simplify the formal education administrative system. While no firm decision has been taken, it appears that the various categories of schools will be collapsed to two: government schools and registered private schools.

Although the GOZ is unlikely to reintroduce local taxation in the near future, it is moving in the direction of increasing local financial control over the day-to-day operation of schools. For example, schools are being encouraged to form Management Committees in urban areas and Parent Committees in rural ones. These committees have the authority to raise funds from the families served by the school. Also the per capita grants are channelled through District and Rural Councils who in turn allocate them to schools under their jurisdiction.

Another inherited complexity was the two different employment systems for the government and the private sectors. Until 1979 most white teachers were members of the Public Service whereas black teachers were covered by the Unified Teaching Service (UTS). In both cases, salaries were paid by the government. However, under the UTS, salary grants went to local authorities such as Councils which paid the teachers.

The GOZ is investigating ways to combine the two systems. It has eliminated the pay differentials inherent in the two systems. All teachers are now on a common graduated pay scale based on qualifications, training and experience.

On the planning side both the MOEC and MMPD have made considerable progress. The MMPD has carried out a comprehensive manpower survey. The preliminary results are already being used to formulate national training policies and to govern decisions regarding recruitment of expatriate staff and overseas training for Zimbabweans. The MOEC has developed a Budget Planning Model with AID funding which has greatly simplified its ability to project cost and enrollments. Both ministires are refining their data collection processes to ensure that appropriate data are obtained and utilized in policy formulation.

Further developments in the administrative and planning area which are incorporated over the Plan period include:

1. Strengthening analytical and planning as well as data processing staffs in both ministries;
2. Simplifying procedures for data collection;
3. Rationalizing and simplifying administrative lines of authority;
4. Strengthening capacity of local authorities to administer and manage schools;
5. Building on the close tie between government and private sector in provision and operation of skills training programs; and
6. Developing closer working relationships between the MOEC and MMPD.

3. Availability of Resources to Implement Sector Strategy

The three year TNDP is projected to cost Z$10.0 billion. Of this amount, Z$7.8 billion is to come from GOZ revenue sources. The GOZ's contribution is divided into Z$6.4 billion for recurrent cost and Z$1.4 billion for capital cost. The Z$1.4 billion is the GOZ's share of the planned Z$3.6 billion PSIP (Public Sector Investment Program). The PSIP is to be financed from two other sources of funds. ZIMCORD donor pledges are expected to cover Z$1.1 billion or 31 percent, mostly in the form of soft loans. Parastatals revenue and borrowings will account for the balance of Z$1.1 billion. The division between parastatals' revenue and borrowings is about fifty-fifty.

As noted in Section A4 (page 9), the likelihood that the GOZ will achieve the TNDP's projected expenditure targets is slim. However, the TNDP does provide a benchmark or reference

point for estimating the shortfall between planned and actual budget levels. It is also a useful point of departure for calculating the financial requirements necessary to carry out the sectoral strategy contained in the previous section.

The following analysis concentrates on the MOEC and the MMPD. A breakdown of the total GOZ's budget and the impact of the recent cutbacks in the GOZ's budget for the current fiscal year is presented in Annex K.

(a) Ministry of Education and Culture

The initial recurrent and capital budget proposed by the MOEC for the TNDP was Z$2.0 billion or 20 percent of the total Z$10.0 billion. This amount included financing for the University of Zimbabwe. Considering that the Z$410 million in the current year which is the first year of the plan has been reduced by Z$30 million, the probability that the MOEC will come close to its projected level is remote.

In its initial request for funding from the PSIP over the plan period, the MOEC assumed that 23 percent of Z$0.5 billion of its proposed budget of Z$2.0 billion would be for capital expenditures. Thus, the MOEC's proposal constituted around 14 percent of the total Z$3.6 billion PSIP.

The proposal for Z$0.5 billion is, however, misleading since it encompasses nearly Z$310 million for the construction and reconstruction of rural primary and secondary schools which fall under the jurisdiction of the Ministry of Local Government and Town Planning. A more realistic estimate of the MOEC's PSIP requirements is the balance of Z$190 million after the amount for the Ministry of Local Government and Town Planning is subtracted.

The Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development requested the MOEC to revise significantly downward its estimate. The MOEC proposed cutting its PSIP requirements from Z$190 million to Z$72 million, a cut of 63 percent. The reduction came from substantial cuts in the planned expansion of government secondary schools.

To date the MFEPD has approved only Z$33 million or 46 percent of the MOEC's revised PSIP request. Of this amount, Z$26 million or 79 percent constitutes the budget for the current fiscal year. Only Z$7 million has been approved for the remaining two years of the TNDP. In the current year's PSIP of Z$26 million, Z$12 million or 46 percent comes from donor financing. Local currency from USAID's FY 1982 CIP accounted for nearly Z$8 million of this amount. These funds were being used to finance the construction of the new secondary teachers training college at Belvedere in Harare and the regional ZINTEC center at Gwanda in Matabeleland. The balance of Z$4 million was furnished by SIDA (Z$2.5 million) and UNICEF (Z$1.5 million). SIDA funds are going toward the ZINTEC, ZIMSCI, and ZIMFEP programs. Most of UNICEF's resources are devoted to ZINTEC.

Assuming that the revised Z$72 million is a realistic estimate of the MOEC's requirements for capital expansion envisaged over the TNDP, substracting the Z$25 million for the first year of the plan leaves a balance of Z$46 million for the second and third years of the plan. Of this amount, Z$23.7 million is for expansion of primary and secondary teacher training, Z$5.9 million for ZIMFEP, Z$5.2 million for government secondary schools, Z$5.1 million for cultural centers, Z$4.0 million for the Educationl Service Center, Z$1.1 million for housing for District Education Officers, and Z$1.0 million for examinations. The estimated additional and current cost associated with this capital expansion is Z$16.0 million. This leaves an unfunded balance of Z$62.0 million.

Donor commitments to date will cover Z$9.3 million or 15 percent of the required Z$62.0 million (See Annex G). SIDA has pledged Z$8.3 million mostly for ZIMSCI, ZINTEC AND ZIMFEP. The remainder of the Z$1.0 million represents financing from Australia for the development of distance education.

This leaves a balance of Z$52.7 million to be financed from external sources. Given the current freeze on new project activities, it is not likely that the MOEC will be able to meet these capital and recurrent budget requirements without substantial foreign assistance.

(b) Ministry of Manpower Planning and Development

In its planning for the TNDP, the MMPD proposed for its recurrent and capital expansion (PSIP) programs Z$30 million in FY 1982/83 and Z$52 million in FY 1983/84 for total of Z$82 million for first two years. Figures for the third year were not estimated after serious doubts were cast on the likely availability of sufficient funds for the first two years of the TNDP. The respective recurrent and capital investment budgets for the first year were Z$18 million and Z$12 million, and for the second year Z$32 million and Z$20 million.

The MMPD's request of Z$30 million for FY 1982/83 was trimmed significantly by MFEPD prior to its submission to Parliament in July, 1982. MFEPD agreed to Z$16.7 million or

56 percent of the original MMPD submission. Of this amount, Z$12.7 million covered recurrent expenditures and Z$4 million capital investments under the PSIP.

While the MMPD and MFEPD are still negotiating the ministry's recurrent and capital budgets for FY 1983/84, the MMPD has already reduced its total request from Z$52 million to Z$38 million (Z$20 million for recurrent and Z$18 million for the PSIP). The ministry is not sanguine about the possibility of coming close to this revised figure in view of the recent budget cutting exercise which has already seriously impacted on its FY 1982/83 level.

The MMPD has had to slice its FY 1982/83 recurrent budget from the Z$12.7 million voted by Parliament to approximately Z$9 million, a reduction of 30 percent. Its current PSIP allocation was decreased from Z$4 million to Z$3 million. The Z$3 million represents funds already committed by bilateral donor sources such as EEC funding for the Gweru Technical College, the French funding of the RVTC at Westgate in Bulawayo, and the West German funding of the RVTC at Masasa in Harare.

The substantial cuts in the FY 1982/83 budget have virtually frozen all new projects planned by the MMPD. The ministry is trying to keep from losing the momentum on the development of the Technical College at Mutare by exploring the possibility of obtaining a small seed capital grant from the new Vocational Educational and Training Levy which came into effect at the beginning of 1983. At most, this would be only a modest sum, insufficient to complete the college which is expected to cost around Z$5 to Z$7 million.

The MMPD expects that its FY 1983/84 revised PSIP proposal of Z$18 million will be reduced by MFEPD to Z$5 million which is only 25 percent more than its original PSIP budget for FY 1982/83. Thus, instead of the Z$32 million capital budget that the ministry estimates it requires to carry forward the plan of action envisaged in the first two years of the TNDP, it will only get Z$8 million which is 25 percent of its overall requirements.

The activities covered in the proposed Z$32 million capital program are:

- Technical colleges at Mutare, Gweru, Chinhoyi, Hwange and Lowveld (Triangle) estimated total cost Z$20 million;
- Expansion of Harare Polytechnic and Bulawayo Technical Colleges (exact figures unavailable but likely to be between Z$2 and Z$3 million);
- New Management Training Institute (exact estimate unavailable but may be around Z$2 million); and
- Vocational Training System (estimated at Z$8 million).

The MMPD has not decided how it will absorb the likely cut in its capital expansion program. But it is obvious that with a FY 1983/84 PSIP of Z$5 million, it will only be in position to finance the construction of one new technical college or five RVTC's. The ministry anticipates that even this Z$5 million will be tied to guaranteed sources of donor funds as the Z$3 million was in FY 1982/83. Therefore, the key to success in advancing the TNDP's targets for technical and vocational skills training expansion is the availability of donor support.

Estimating the contribution of bilateral and multilateral donor assistance to the MMPD's program is difficult. The MMPD coordinates most of the training and a large share of the technical assistance programs of the various donor agencies in Zimbabwe. It provides this function for a cross section of GOZ ministries. Thus, the programs directly managed by the ministry are not necessarily ones which benefit it. For example, the ministry handles scholarship or participant training programs which will total Z$41 million over the TNDP. Over 80 percent of these funds are accounted for by two programs (British ODA and USAID). Therefore, no effort is made in the PAAD to partition out the MMPD's share of combined technical assistance and training programs.

Leaving these combined programs aside, bilateral and multilateral assistance, excluding A.I.D., to the ministry of the TNDP is expected to be Z$9.6 million. This Z$9.6 million covers 18 percent of the Z$54.7 million shortfall in the recurrent and capital budgets during the TNDP.

As the above discussions of the MOEC's and MMPD's TNDP budgets indicate, the two ministries are seriously handicapped in implementing their reform programs without a substantial inflow of donor assistance. A conservative estimate of their joint minimum capital and recurrent budget requirements is Z$116.7 million. Of this, Z$18.9 million is covered under other donor programs leaving an unfunded balance of Z$97.8 million. Therefore, the proposed US$45.0 million or approximately Z$44.0 million (US$1.03 = Z$1.00) will meet 45 percent of the remaining budgetary shortfall.

II. PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

A. Program Goals and Expected Accomplishments

The goal of this US$45 million five-year program is to contribute to Zimbabwe's economic and social development by providing budgetary resources to assist the GOZ to expand its educational and employment skills training system with special emphasis on cost-effectiveness and equity. The purposes of the program are to provide the additional financial, technical and training resources:

1. To assist the GOZ with strategic developments which will yield an educational system which will accommodate expanded primary and secondary enrollments, and be qualitatively appropriate and affordable; and
2. To assist with the expansion, diversification and modernization of the post-primary and post-secondary vocational technical training programs with which the formal educational system interacts.

Over the five year disbursement period of the grant a number of tangible accomplishments are expected. Trends will become evident which indicate progress in reducing the key constraints to educational reform and expansion planned by the GOZ. The following kinds of positive developments are expected:

1. A more efficient use of educational resources that will allow increases in the numbers of children enrolled in school and in the quality of their learning and will increase the availability of relevant vocational and technical training;
2. Substantial increases in the numbers of fully qualified elementary, secondary and vocational-technical teachers and the institutionalized means of providing qualified teachers on a continuing and cost-effective basis;
3. Demonstrable improvement in the quality, relevance and instructional effectiveness of the curricula, both in the elementary and secondary schools and in the technical training programs;
4. A more equitable distribution of teaching and training resources to rural schools and to the several geographically dispersed regions of the country and efficient governmental mechanisms in place to assure the maintenance of this equity; and

5. Strengthened administrative planning and management capacities at various levels of the education and training systems, leading to more cost-effective use of resources and the moderation of recurrent financial burdens.

B. General Strategy and Priority Areas

1. Program Priorities

Both the MOEC and MMPD have a planned program of activities in the Transitional National Development Plans. It is virtually certain that sufficient funds will not be available to undertake all of these activities. Therefore, the two ministries have had to place these activities in priority order, based upon their assessment of nationwide requirements. In deciding which activities to emphasize and which to fund at lower levels, or to defer altogether, it has been necessary for the ministries to consider systematically the expected outcomes of the activities and to estimate their collective impact on program objectives.

In taking a systematic approach to the resolution of the key constraints, activities for funding under the program grant will be selected which will have maximum leverage or multiplier effects on the system. The activities, either already underway or to be started early in the grant period, are more precisely defined in the PAAD than those being considered for later start-up dates. The GOZ retains flexibility in the allocation of program funds to respond to changing conditions and requirements. This flexibility to shift program resources and priorities will permit the GOZ to optimize resource allocations.

The GOZ and USAID have agreed that the attainment of the program grant's objectives depends on applying criteria which are likely to maximize the probability of success. Thus, any activity financed under the grant will meet the following criteria:

(a) Address one or more of the key constraints identified in this program;

(b) Be cost-effective and operationally efficient in the use of scarce resources such as trained teachers and technical instructors;

(c) Contribute to long-term improvement in institutional capacities, administrative practices or education and training policy;

(d) Be complementary to and coordinated with other activities of the implementing ministry, as well as other ministries providing related services or inputs;

(e) Have a high probability of success, with specified criteria for evaluating progres and determining the success of the activi

(f) Have a multiplier effect on the system; a

(g) Be implementable within the disbursement period 1983-1988 and, if only partially funded under the grant, have adequate pro vision of finance and other required resources to assure completion and maintenance.

Implicit in these criteria is the expectation that the A.I.D. grant will be used for investments which support technical andadminstrative improvements, policy changes and new institutional capabilities. Supplementation or substitution of ordinary recurrent costs such as teacher salaries or standard school construction and maintenance are not considered investments in this sense and hence will not be financed under this grant.

2. Ministry of Education and Culture Priorities

With elementary enrollment approaching full coverage of the primary school cohort, capacity in the elementary schools will only need to be expanded to keep pace with growth in that cohort.
However, with the government's present policy of broader access to secondary schooling the population bulge now in the elementary schools can be expected to greatly increase the secondary enrollments in the next seven years. For example, when the current seventh year elementary students pass on to the first year of high school in 1983, it will nearly double the enrollment of that class.

It has been necessary to press into service as teachers persons who have little training - many of whom are deficient in subject matter knowledge as well as teaching skills. Equally important is the shortage of appropriate instructional materials. There has not been sufficient time or money to produce textbooks and teacher guides which are suitable in content or instructional effectiveness for this expanded and diverse learner population. Highly qualified teachers might compensate for an absence of instructional materials or good materials might suffice with untrained teachers. When both deficiencies occur at once, learner achievement suffers. Critically needed are improved and expanded teacher training programs and curriculum development activities, particularly for the secondary levels. The present operating divisions of the ministry are ill-equipped to undertake these major developmental efforts as they are fully occupied with the day to day running of the nation's schools. Needed is an organization within the ministry whose sole mission is the development of new products and processes essential to the change,

improvement and continuing developmental support of the national educational system. It is for these purposes that the MOEC proposes to establish the National Educational Service Center.

In a meeting with the Program Design Team, Minister Dzingai Mutumbuka articulated the MOEC's four priorities for the TNDP which he expected to be addressed in part through the A.I.D. grant.

The relationship between these priority activities and the key constraints is depicted in Table 2. The table illustrates that the priority ordering of the activities within the TNDP is correlated with the anticipated impact on resolving key constraints. Those activities expected to have a major impact on the key constraints are ranked higher than those impacting on less severe constraints. For example, priority one, the Educational Service Center, will have a major impact on the most severe constraints affecting the MOEC. It will develop new modes of instruction which will permit the MOEC to make more efficient use out of scarce financial and human resources.

(a) Priority One: Educational Service Center

The proposed National Educational Service Center (ESC) will consolidate a number of functions presently assigned to various other units of the MOEC. These functions will include the national testing and psychological services, teacher education, curriculum development, nonformal education, audio visual services and research and evaluation. In addition to integrating these functions the ESC will serve as the MOEC's principal mechanism for systems innovation and improvement. It will guide the continuing improvement of the teacher training program, instructional materials development and the rational testing and development of innovative instructional approaches. Additionally, it will contribute to the planning and policy making functions of the MOEC.

This first phase will be institutional development. To bring the ESC up to an optimum operational level requires financial resources for construction, equipment, personnel, technical assistance, and long - and short-term training. The MOEC considers operationalizing the ESC as soon as possible to be essential since it will be the organizational base for addressing the MOEC's other three major priorities. These are, in priority order, (a)teacher education, with emphasis on the secondary level; (b) curriculum development, with emphasis upon the secondary level; and (c) research, evaluation and planning. It should be noted that teacher training and curriculum development for the elementary level has been ongoing intensively for the past three years. This work will continue but will be of lower priority than the secondary level.

Table 2: Relationship Between Key Constraints and Priority Activities Contained in the TNDP of the MOEC

Priority Activity	Impact on Limited Resources	Insufficient Teachers	Key Constraints: Inappropriate Instructional Curriculum	Spatial Distribution of Facilities	Insufficient Planning Capacity
Overall severity of Constraint	Very	Very	Very	Less	Less
1. Education Service Center	Major	Major	Major	Minor	Major
2. Teacher Education (Secondary)	Major	Major	Minor	Minor	Minor
3. Curriculum Development	Major	Major	Major	Minor	Minor
4. Research, Evaluation and Planning	Major	Minor	Minor	Major	Major

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(b) Priority Two: Teacher Education

Increasing the numbers of secondary teachers and upgrading their subject-matter knowledge and teaching skills is the MOEC's second priority. ZINTEC, already underway, is a national emergency training program for elementary teachers. A part of the effort to ameliorate the secondary teacher shortage will be to adapt the ZINTEC approach to the secondary level. This program involves putting the trainee in a teachers college for a short period of intensive training, then assigning the trainee to a school in the field. The trainee returns to the college for additional "bursts" of training. These two types of experiences are alternated for a period of three to four years at which time the teacher may be certified as qualified. These programs will be strengthened and enlarged. Training is also needed for field staff to visit the trainees in their classrooms to provide helpful criticisms, further pedagogical instruction and encouragement. Teacher training videotapes on effective teacher techniques are needed for rotational distribution to district in-service teacher training programs - particularly in the remote rural areas. All of this will require technical assistance, coordination, equipment and the development of teacher training resources.

(c) Priority Three: Curriculum Development

The MOEC's third priority is curriculum development with particular emphasis upon the secondary school level. Curriculum development has two dimensions: What is to be taught, i.e., the subject matter; and how it is to be taught, i.e., the instructional materials, processes and other teaching resources. ZIMSCI, described earlier, is a good example of new curriculum development where the subject matter is brought up to date and state-of-the-art instructional materials are developed and their teaching effectiveness empirically validated. Other secondary school subjects need a curriculum development effort similar to ZIMSCI. Subject matter needs to be revised and modernized and new means of instructional delivery created. The science subjects need to be completed and work started in mathematics, languages, history and social science.

Perhaps the most significant feature of the ZIMSCI program is the demonstration that well developed materials can compensate for variable teacher qualifications and assure an acceptable level of student learning. Using this instructional development approach for other grade levels and subject areas may be the quickest and least expensive way to spread quality education and equalize educational opportunity in Zimbabwe.

Another curriculum development effort which will be expanded is use of educational technology, particularly mass

media such as radio. The ability to support the remote and often underqualified teachers of the nation through high quality centrally developed broadcast instruction will address directly four of the five key constraints identified earlier. In 1982, the Zimbabwe Broadcast Corporation inaugurated a fourth national radio station dedicated solely to education. This station is expected to broadcast up to seven hours a day of instructional programs for regular in-class use. Presently the development of instructional content has only loosely been coordinated with MOEC's curriculum development or teacher education divisions. Optimum instructional impact can only be achieved by close articulation between the radio programs, the instructional materials and teacher interventions. The creation of the Educational Service Center is designed to ensure this articulation. Experience in other countries has shown that when these instructional components are closely integrated that the resulting teaching/learning experience is both more efficient and effective.

To bring to bear upon the curriculum development task the current state-of-the-art in Instructional Systems Design (ISD), media development technical consultants and staff training- both short- and long-term will be required.

(d) Priority Four: Research, Evaluation and Planning

The fourth major priority area for the MOEC is the development of their systematic planning capability to guide the expansion and improvement of the educational system as a coherent and integrated whole. Essential to this effort is the improvement of selected key staff and management personnel in the central, regional and district offices of the ministry.

If management decision-making and planning are to be effective, they must be based on current and valid information and it is to this end that a research and evaluation capability is being planned. The MOEC has already made progress in increasing its sophistication in planning by the introduction of a computerized budget analysis system which it wishes to extend to the provincial level. Also, the anticipated computerization of the national examination unit will permit a refinement and analysis of student achievement data heretofore impossible. Such data can be of great value in the evaluation of instructional materials, rural versus urban considerations, and the utility assessment of innovative approaches in instruction. The MOEC recognizes that sound research and evaluation data, sensible planning and rational decision-making are prerequisites to any meaningful improvement in the educational system. Critical to development of the research, evaluation and planning capability will be the availability of technical consultants to train appropriate MOEC personnel at the central, regional and district levels.

3. Ministry of Manpower Planning and Development Priorities

The MMPD proposes in the TNDP to expand, diversify and modernize the vocational and technical training programs. The new comprehensive National Vocational Training System (NVTS) which is being established, provides for the delivery of a variety of vocational and technical training programs through five types of existing or proposed institutions. The formal infrastructure for implementing these programs consists of five existing or planned institutions:

1. National Vocational Training and Development Center
2. Regional Vocational Training Centers
3. Vocational Training Schools
4. Polytechnic Colleges
5. Management Training Institute

The following table displays the current development status of these institutions.

	Existing	Under Development	Future	Total
National Center		1		1
Regional Centers	2	1	3	6
Vocational Schools			6	6
Polytechnic Colleges	3	2	3	8
Management Training Institute			1	1

The National Vocational Training and Development Center will be the central coordinating unit of the System. In addition to vocational training it will develop training modules and skills tests, train instructional personnel and house the National Information Center.

The Regional Vocational Training Centers (RVTC) are designed to meet the training needs of the industrial agricultural and commercial areas around Chipinge-Chisumbanje, Gweru, KweKwe, Chinhoyi, Masvingo and Mutare. In addition, the RVTC's will cater to the manpower needs of small-scale enterprise development.

The Vocational Training Schools are designed to meet the training needs of selected growth points in the traditional farming areas. The growth points are part of a national program

to decentralize urban growth around rural areas. These small centers will develop farm input facilities, produce markets, shops and services.

The five new Polytechnic Colleges are designed to meet the need for advanced technical manpower required for such industries as forestry, petro-chemicals, mining, agriculture and sugar and ethanol technology. The technical college at Gweru will also train vocational/technical teachers.

Finally, a Management Training Institute has recently been proposed to address the needs for the development of skills in the business and accounting occupations. No concrete plans have been developed for this Institute. Conceptual alternatives are now being considered. A likely outcome will be a coordinating body to strengthen training programs already offered by the public and private sectors.

Since the institutional development program of the MMPD represents a systematic approach to addressing the skilled manpower needs of the country, the MMPD plans to implement the program as a package as opposed to emphasizing one activity to the exclusion of the other. Thus, the size of the system developed will depend on the availability of financial resources. For example, instead of building a Regional Vocational Center for 300 trainees, they would build a center in stages, perhaps initially catering to 60-80 trainees.

The comprehensive plan of the MMPD to provide a variety of vocational and technical training programs and services through an infrastructure of different types of institutions is directly responsive to all five constraints described in the Program Analysis. However, the most critical constraint is insufficient numbers of trained instructors. For instance, even if financial resources were available, the MMPD could only implement as much of their plan as available instructors allowed. The relationship between the proposed activities of the MMPD and the key constraints is illustrated in Table 3.

Table 3: Relationship Between Key Constraints and Priority Activities Contained in the TNDP of the MMPD

Priority Activities	Impact on Key Constraints				
	Limited Resources	Insufficient Instructors	Inappropriate Instructional Curriculum	Spatial Distribution of Facilities	Insufficient Planning Capacity
Overall Severity of Constraint	Very	Very	Less	Very	Less
1. National Vocational Training and Development Center	Major	Major	Major	Minor	Major
2. Regional Vocational Training Centers	Major	Minor	Minor	Major	Minor
3. Vocational Training Schools	Major	Minor	Minor	Major	Minor
4. Polytechnical Colleges	Major	Major	Minor	Major	Minor
5. Management Training Institute	Major	Major	Minor	Minor	Minor

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The major parts of the comprehensive plan that requires coordinated development in the immediate future are the National Vocational Training and Development Center, the Regional Vocational Centers and the Vocational Training Schools. The NVTDC will be the cornerstone of the NVTS. For example, as depicted in Table 3, the NVTDC cuts across most of the key constraints. It will be the locus for the coordination of the system, the development of the curriculum, the development and diffusion of skills testing and the development of teachers and supervisors. The major activities of the NVTDC are as follows:

1. Instructor training - The expansion of the NVTS is planned to address the shortages of qualified teachers and supervisors.
2. Development of training modules. The development of competency-based, modular, vocational training materials is considered important to the development of an effective and efficient NVTS. Modules for instructor and supervisor training are also necessary.
3. Establishment of skills training programs. Training of 300 trainees a year in the two-year programs for building construction, automotive, electrical and mechanical occupations is planned.
4. Skills test development and diffusion. Performance based skills test responsive to the needs and requirements of employers will be developed and disseminated, frequently through the use of mobil testing units.
5. Establish National Training Information Depository. This depository will be a storehouse of information and learning media for vocational training and for research and development of the NVTS.

The Regional Vocational Training Centers and the Vocational Training Schools will be developed to respond appropriately to skill development needs throughout the country. The RVTC's address the industry-specific needs and the VTS's respond to the needs of the rural growth points. Together they provide a more efficient, equitable delivery system for vocational and technical training throughout the country. The five types of institutions not only provide the requisite geographical distribution to respond to national manpower development needs, they are also designed to offer four different types of programs as follows:

Apprenticeship - A covenanted program of formal instruction and on-the-job training for entry level jobs in industry.

Technician Training - The development of industry-specific skills through alternating (block release) programs of in-service training and on-the-job experience for which certificates and diplomas are awarded.

Skills Training - Development of a variety of general vocational and entrepreneural skills.

Instructor and Supervisory Training - Development of instructors, supervisors and other professionals for the NVTS.

The following table displays the institutional infrastructure and the variety of training programs collectively.

	Apprentice Training	Technician Training	Skills Training	Instructor Training
National Center		X	X	X
Polytechnic Colleges	X	X		X
Regional Centers		X	X	X
Vocational Schools			X	
Management Institute			X	

It is anticipated that the NVTS will eventually train about 3,000 persons annually. About half will be in apprenticeship programs.

C. Program Funding and Resource Requirements

At this time the GOZ can make reasonably firm estimates of the costs of some of the initial activities for which they anticipate grant support. However, for most of the priority areas the planning of particular activities is only now underway. Thus, it is possible to only tentatively estimate how the resources are to be allocated by category of expenditure. Because of its longer history and greater experience the estimated expenditures for the MOEC will probably more nearly approximate actual expenditure than is the case for the MMPD. The assumption underlying this analysis is that the $45 million will initially likely be divided nearly evenly between the two ministries. This is only hypothetical and should not be taken as indicative of the actual division between the two.

1. Education Development Requirements

The allocation of program grant funds to the MOEC's four major priority areas are estimated as follows:

a. Education Service Center.....	$4,500,000
b. Teacher Training.....	6,700,000
c. Curriculum Development.....	7,300,000
d. Research, Evaluation and Planning	4,300,000
Total:	$22,800,000

In Table 4 these funds are shown by category of expenditure. It is cautioned that while these estimates are as realistic as possible at the time of the PAAD development they must be regarded as hypothetical until the MOEC has completed the detailed planning of its activities. The construction figure of $3.2 million is for the Education Service Center and is based on preliminary architectural planning and cost estimate. The equipment to be purchased with local currency will include furnishings and equipment for the Educational Service Center to be procured in Zimbabwe. The local currency recurring costs will be the operating costs for the various project activities undertaken by the ESC which will be in addition to the MOEC's normal cost contributions to such activities. These costs will include salaries of additional temporary staff, supplies, materials, travel, telecommunications, printing,etc.

TABLE 4: MOEC ESTIMATED/GRANT EXPENDITURES

COST CATEGORY	YEAR	1	2	3	4	5	TOTAL
LOCAL CURRENCY	CONSTRUCTION	2,000,000	1,200,000	-0-	-0-	-0-	3,200,000
	EQUIPMENT	300,000	300,000	100,000	100,000	50,000	850,000
	RECURRING	1,480,000	2,960,000	3,710,000	3,800,000	1,960,000	13,910.000
	SUB-TOTAL	3,780,000	4,460,000	3,810.000	3,900,000	2,010,000	17,960,000
FOREIGN EXCHANGE	STAFF TRAINING	45,000	150,000	150,000	100,000	30,000	475,000
	TECHNICAL ASSIST.	425,000	850,000	850,000	750,000	540,000	3,415,000
	COMMODITIES	350,000	500,000	100,000	-0-	-0-	950,000
	SUB-TOTAL	820,000	1,500,000	1,100,000	850,000	570,000	4,840,000
GRAND TOTAL		4,600,000	5,960,000	4,910,000	4,750,000	2,580,000	22,800,000

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The MOEC planning staff has indicated a number of actions they anticipate taking to avoid the fiscal shock of abrupt cessation of grant funds for recurring expenditures at the end of the grant. First, as grant funds for recurring costs decline in the last three years of the grant MOEC's budget funds will increase proportionately. Second, many of the projects will be completed by the end of the grant and the permanent personnel utilized on the project and who are no longer needed will be reassigned elsewhere within MOEC or other places in the national educational system. Finally, a number of project personnel will be borrowed from the universities and colleges with their institutions being compensated for their lost time. These people will return to their home institutions when they are no longer needed.

For the MOEC's share of the grant, $17,960,000 is estimated as the requirement for local currency and $4,840,000 will be needed in foreign exchange. Within the local currency portion of $4,050,000 will be for capital expenditure and $13,910,000 will be recurring costs.

2. Manpower Development Requirements

The allocation of program funds to the MMPD's development of vocational/technical training differs markedly from that of the MOEC's. The MMPD faces a large, expensive construction program to provide the facilities for training. It also faces a significant shortage of instructors that have been drawn away from teaching by much higher wages in industry. Consequently, the BEST program, by itself, will only make a modest contribution to the total effort. A gross estimate of the total capital and recurrent resources needed to meet the MMPD's new priorities over the next five years is in the range of $150,000,000 - $175,000,000. To this effort the BEST program will contribute approximately $22,200,000 as follows:

a. Facilities	$15,200,000
b. Instructional Support	2,800,000
c. Teacher Training	1,000,000
d. Technical Assistance	3,200,000
Total	$22,200,000

These figures are shown by category of expenditure in Table 5 and must be regarded as hypothetical estimates.

The priorities of the MMPD include the construction of ten separate new facilities - one National Center, five Polytechnical Colleges, and four Regional Vocational Training Centers.

It is anticipated that the six vocational schools and the Management Training Institute will make use of existing facilities. Vocational and technical training facilities are much more expensive to build and furnish than academic facilities. They require additional space for laboratories and shops, consumable materials and tools. Furthermore, the instructor-student ratio must be much smaller than in an academic setting.

The funds for equipping the facilities will come from both local currency and foreign exchange. Although most of it will come from foreign exchange the division between equipment and commodities in Table 5 is arbitrary.

Institutional support is devoted entirely to "Topping up" the salaries of instructors. The salaries for instructors will be budgeted by the MMPD, but an anticipated shortage is a certainty. Consequently, the difference between budget and the actual costs of acquiring instructors constitutes the recurring costs in Table 5.

The BEST program will also make a contribution to staff training outside the country through a program of fellowships. $1,000,000 is allocated to the development of such expertise in instructional design and development, skills testing, research, evaluation and other perceived areas.

Finally a contribution will be made to technical cooperation development of the NVTS by expatriate experts working with Zimbabwe counterparts. A significant portion will be devoted to teacher training in Zimbabwe. Other experts will support the activities of the NVTDC. Still others will provide assistance to the other emerging institutions.

TABLE 5: MMPD ESTIMATED/GRANT EXPENDITURES

COST CATEGORY	YEAR	1	2	3	4	5	TOTAL
LOCAL CURRENCY	CONSTRUCTION	3,000,000	2,000,000	2,000,000	1,750,000	1,250,000	10,000,000
	EQUIPMENT	400,000	400,000	400,000	300,000	300,000	1,800,000
	RECURRING	450,000	725,000	725,000	500,000	400,000	2,800,000
	SUB-TOTAL	3,850,000	3,125,000	3,125,000	2,550,000	1,950,000	14,600,000
FOREIGN EXCHANGE	STAFF TRAINING	200,000	200,000	200,000	200,000	200,000	1,000,000
	TECHNICAL ASSIST.	600,000	700,000	650,000	625,000	625,000	3,200,000
	COMMODITIES	850,000	750,000	750,000	600,000	450,000	3,400,000
	SUB-TOTAL	1,650,000	1,650,000	1,600,000	1,425,000	1,275,000	7,600,000
GRAND TOTAL		5,500,000	4,775,000	4,725,000	3,975,000	3,225,000	22,200,000

D. Implementation and Absorptive Capacity of GOZ

1. Implementation Capacity

At the request of the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development, USAID/Zimbabwe financed a study by Price Waterhouse of the accounting and reporting procedures used by the GOZ to handle donor funds. The results of the study were submitted to the MFEPD on February 28, 1983. Price Waterhouse concluded that the overall system of internal controls was adequate at the time of its review and that the GOZ could satisfactorily account for the utilization of donor funds. The study suggested several areas in which the GOZ could strengthen its internal control system, the most important being the development of an in-service training program for new staff. The MFEPD has requested USAID assistance in implementing these recommendations.

The results of this study combined with USAID's experience over the last two years of channelling most of AID's resources through program as opposed to project assistance reaffirms the GOZ's strong implementation capacity. Examples in the education area include (1) the school reconstruction program and (2) the development of the new 2,000 student teacher training college at Belvedere in Harare. Within just over a year after the ending of hostilities in rural areas, the GOZ was able to reopen virtually all primary schools damaged or destroyed during the war. In late May, 1982 construction began on the Belvedere Teachers Training College using local currency from the FY 1981 cash transfer and the FY 1982 CIP. By February, 1983 the college began functioning at the Belvedere site with around 300 students using dormitories and classrooms which had been completed in just eight months.

2. Absorptive Capacity

Anticipated expenditures by the MOEC and the MMPD this fiscal year will be around Z$385 million. This is down from the Z$420 million contained in the Annual Estimates of Expenditure submitted to Parliament in July, 1982 for FY 1982/83. The Z$35 million reduction in expected expenditures reflects the impact of the GOZ's budget cut on the two ministries. Since the grant's resources will be used to finance activities not currently funded or underfinanced, the net impact will be to move the MOEC and MMPD back toward their approved budget levels.

If expenditures by the two ministries were held constant at a combined level of Z$400 million per year over the five years of the grant, the GOZ would expend Z$1.6 billion. Thus, the US$45 million which is equivalent to approximately Z$44 million at current rates of exchange would amount to only 3 percent of the anticipated five year spending on education and

training by the GOZ. Therefore, the resources provided through the grant are unlikely to have an adverse impact on the GOZ's absorptive capacity.

One of the primary objectives of the grant is to improve the efficiency of resource utilization. For example, the enrollment in primary and secondary schools is projected to climb from 2.4 million in 1983 to 3.1 million in 1986. Assuming that no increases occur in the salary structure of the MOEC and the current pupil/teacher ratios continue, the education cost for the 1983 school year of Z$424 million will increase to Z$569 million in the 1986 school year. The difference in the school year cost for 1983 and the budget year cost is explained by the fact that school year 1983 spans six months each of two different fiscal years, FY 1982/83 and FY 1983/84. Of this Z$569 million, Z$364 million or 64 percent is for primary and secondary teachers' salaries. Assuming that the GOZ is able to combine an increase in the pupil/teacher ratios at the primary level from 42:1 to 47:1 and at the secondary level from 30:1 to 35:1 (Forms I-III), 28:1 to 30:1 (Forms IV-V), and 20:1 to 25:1 (Form VI) with curriculum innovations or improvements designed to ensure the maintenance of quality instruction, the budget requirements for teacher salaries decreases from Z$364 million to Z$311 million by 1986. This represents a reduction of Z$53 million. As this scenario illustrates, the grant resources have the potential to save the GOZ in one year more than the total provided by the grant over the entire five years.

E. A.I.D. Policy Issues:

1. Relationship to Agency Policy:

The proposed education and training sector program is consistent with the Basic Education and Technical Training policy paper issued in December, 1982. The USAID program grant will support GOZ plans for expansion, policy reforms and institutional development which have the following characteristics:

(a) The program will support GOZ plans for expansion of opportunities in the rural areas and more equitable distribution resources between types of schools and training institutions.

(b) A major focus of grant supported activities will be increasing learner achievement and increasing the output of students successfully completing the primary and secondary levels.

(c) Private and community sponsored schools will provide almost 90 percent of the education at the primary level and at least half at the secondary level. Government support for private schools will be proportional to enrollment. Parents and

community management committees will play major roles in self-help financing and local school management. Technical skills or vocational skills training programs conducted by the private sector will be strengthened through expansion of the payroll tax levy and development of closer working relationship between the GOZ and private employers.

(d) Females will be provided education and training on an equal basis.

(e) Educational technology such as radio will likely be used in classroom instruction and other technologies such as computers for management of financial data and optical scanners for rapid marking of examinations will be employed to improve administrative and logistical support systems.

(f) Technical and vocational skills training will be related closely to private and public sector employment needs and overall economic growth. The overall manpower requirements of the economy will be developed using the results from the National Manpower Survey. The private sector will continue to be directly involved in the financing and implementation of technical training. The Ministry of Manpower Planning and Development plans to build on this through expansion of the payroll tax levy to fund approved public and private sector training programs.

(g) Technical training expansion will be guided by the analysis of the National Manpower Survey data which is based on actual employment and reported expansion plans for 30,000 firms and employers in Zimbabwe. A major part of technical training will continue to be apprenticeship training.

(h) Finally, the program grant will give priority attention to strengthening capacities for administration management, and for experimentation with ways to provide education and skills training more efficiently and cost-effectively.

2. Program Assistance as a Means of Effective Policy Dialogue:

Through the use of local currency, A.I.D. has emerged as the largest single donor to primary and secondary education. This has included rebuilding of war damaged schools, the development of a new secondary teacher training college with a strong bias toward technical and scientific training, and the growth of an innovative approach to primary teacher training (ZINTEC). Because of our flexibility and responsiveness USAID has made considerable progress in a policy dialogue with several of the key ministries with major responsibilites for education and training.

Progress is being made in promoting and fostering consideration of ways to improve primary and secondary education qualitatively while simultaneously containing the rate of growth in the education budget. These include examination of potential uses of distance education techniques combined with programmed learning materials and study groups as an alternative to conventional secondary education.

The most difficult period of our policy dialogue with the Ministry of Education and Culture still lies ahead. These discussions will make a clear distinction between educational policy goals and objectives and the mechanisms and cost implications of attaining them. A.I.D.'s role is to assist in evaluating and altering the mechanisms, not to argue with the underlying objectives and goals. This separation is critical to the success of our policy dialogue.

The Ministry of Manpower Planning and Development views the private sector as an important resources and partner in the GOZ's efforts to broaden access to training opportunities among black workers in Zimbabwe. Historically, there has existed a close relationship between public and private sectors in technical training. To build on this historical linkage is important for a number of reasons. It spreads the cost of training resulting in a closer correspondence between the incidence of both costs and benefits. It reduces the likelihood that redundancy will be created between public and private training capacity. Furthermore, it increases the complementarity between public and private training programs.

The building on this working relationship between the public and private sectors in training will take time and patience. There are strong suspicions about the intentions of the private sector vis-a-vis the government's own program to open up access of black workers to higher paying and status jobs. These doubts are based in large measure on the association of the private sector with the previous government's discriminatory practices in training and job mobility. Similarly, the private sector is concerned about the intentions of government and its willingness to be a partner in skilled manpower development.

A.I.D.'s willingness and capacity to be responsive to these major policy concerns depends on providing sizeable economic assistance through mechanisms which are flexible and strengthen the capacity of the GOZ to deal directly and effectively with its own problem resolution.

III. PROGRAM IMPLEMENTATION

A. Implementation Responsibilities

1. Government of Zimbabwe

The implementation of this sector program grant will involve five GOZ ministries and indirectly the Comptroller and Auditor General's office. The five ministries are Finance, Economic Planning and Development (MCEPD); Education and Culture (MOEC); Manpower Planning and Development (MMPD); Construction (MC); and Trade and Commerce (MTC). The first three ministries (MCEPD, MOEC and MMPD) will have major responsibility for the attainment of the program's objectives. In addition, the MC will have responsibility for the public sector construction components. The primary function of the MTC is to ensure efficient and rapid disbursement of the foreign exchange under the CIP component to the private sector to generate local currency needed to carry out the program. The responsibilities of each of these various ministries and the Comptroller and Auditor General's office are outlined below:

(a) Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development

- Examination and approval of the AID program proposal.
- Negotiation and signing of grant agreement.
- Advising implementing ministries of the terms and conditions of the grant agreement.
- Meeting conditions precedent to disbursement.
- Evaluation and determination of priority activities to be financed using resources provided through the grant.
- Advising implementing ministries as well as Treasury of the activities in the Annual Estimates of Expenditure to be financed under grant.
- Approval of any modifications in activities to be financed or in the grant agreement itself.
- Monitoring and reporting to AID on progress toward attainment of the grant's objectives.
- Ensuring that recommendations of the quarterly review meetings and annual formative evaluations are followed up on.

-Evaluations are carried out as required.

-Authorizes implementing ministries to commence incurring expenditures against items covered in the Annual Estimates of Expenditures under the grant agreement.

-Transfers new activities to be covered from the Vote of Credit to the Appropriation Vote of the implementing ministries.

-Manages deposits and disbursements from AID special account in the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe.

-Obtains reimbursement of reconciliation from AID for foreign exchange expended on technical assistance or training.

-Disbursement of funds to the Exchequer from the National Development Fund based on monthly Forecast of Expenditures submitted by implementing ministries.

-Receives and reviews monthly Returns on Expenditures from the implementing ministries.

-Financial accountability to GOZ and AID for expenditures and disbursements.

(b) Ministry of Education and Culture

-Preparation of justification and supporting documentation by planning section for activities to be financed under grant.

-Various sections such as teacher education, examinations, curriculum, etc., responsible for implementation of activities financed by grant. Includes identification and procurement of commodities and technical assistance. Development of staff training programs.

-Preparation of monthly Forecast of Expenditures and Returns on Expenditures by the finance section for submission to Treasury.

-Preparation by the planning section of monthly, quarterly, and annual progress reports for submission to MFEPD.

-Preparation and justification of Annual Estimate of Expenditure including items to be financed under grant for MFEPD approval and inclusion in final submission to Parliament.

- Planning and analysis required to indicate progress in removing adverse impact of five constraints.

(c) Ministry of Manpower Planning and Development

- Preparation of justification and supporting documentation by planning section for activities to be financed under grant.
- Various sections of ministries such as vocational training, apprenticeship, research, etc., responsible for implementation of activities financed by grant. Includes identification and procurement of commodities and technical assistance. Development of staff training programs.
- Preparation of monthly Forecast of Expenditures and Returns on Expenditures by the finance section for submission to Treasury.
- Preparation by the planning section of monthly, quarterly, and annual progress reports for submission to MFEPD.
- Preparation and justification of Annual Estimate of Expenditure including items to be financed under grant for MFEPD approval and inclusion in final submission to Parliament.
- Planning and analysis required to indicate progress in removing adverse impact of five constraints.

(d) Ministry of Construction

- Construction requirements of MOEC and MMPD.
- Development of architectural plans for construction.
- Prepares bills of quantity and other detailed documentation required by GOZ tendering procedures.
- Tenders for contractor to handle construction. Submits results of tendering process to Tender Board for approval and award of contract.
- Oversees construction activities
- Preparation of monthly Forecast of Expenditures and Returns on Expenditure for submission to Treasury.

-Preparation of monthly, quarterly, and annual progress reports for submission to MFEPD.

(Note: Program justification is handled by either MOEC or MMPD).

(e) Ministry of Trade and Commerce

-Allocation of the foreign exchange under the CIP to the private sector.

-Coordination in the allocation process with Ministry of Industry and Energy Development.

-Submission of appropriate progress reports on the allocations to Treasury and EPD.

(f) Comptroller and Auditor General

-Audit financial records of GOZ to ensure compliance with applicable laws and regulations.

-Submission of annual report to Parliament on the examination and audit of all public accounts.

2. A.I.D.

A program committee will be established in USAID/Zimbabwe to monitor and evaluate the sector grant. The committee will be chaired by the Human Resources Development Officer. Members of the committee will be the Deputy Director, Controller and the Supply Management Officer. The committee will meet quarterly with the GOZ to review progress. Reports on these meetings will be submitted to the USAID/Director. The Mission will participate in the annual formative evaluations, along with the three GOZ ministries concerned.

The primary role of USAID/Zimbabwe will be to monitor and evaluate progress in the attainment of the sector grant's objectives which are to reduce the five key constraints on the expansion of the formal education and skills training system. This role will be performed through quarterly, and annual meetings with the GOZ which are described more fully in subsection IIIC and Section IV. USAID staff will also make periodic site visits and hold discussions with individuals directly responsible for the activities supported under the grant.

USAID/Zimbabwe will concur in the allocation, or any future reallocation, of funds to specific line items or activities

identified in the Annual Estimates of Expenditures to be financed under the sector program grant. This concurrence will be based on the extent to which the proposed list of activities conform to the agreed criteria for the allocation of the grant's resources.

Furthermore, USAID/Zimbabwe will monitor the progress of the drawdowns on the CIP component using procedures already established under the FY 1982 CIP. This includes reviewing monthly reports on Letters of Credit opened and disbursements of foreign exchange.

Since the technical assistance and training elements of the grant will be handled through either host-country contracts or a direct AID contract (as is the case with training), USAID/Zimbabwe will exercise greater oversight responsibility to ensure that applicable AID procedures and regulations are adhered to. In the case of a host-country contract for technical assistance, AID will reimburse the GOZ for expenditures incurred. Participant training will be handled by the Institute for International Education. USAID/Zimbabwe will prepare for the GOZ financial statements of the expenditures incurred per quarter for training for inclusion in their financial records.

B. Implementation Procedures

1. Background

The program grant agreement will be signed with the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development which has primary responsibility for allocating the grant's resources between the three primary implementing ministries (Education and Culture, Manpower Planning and Development, and Construction), monitoring resource utilization, reporting to USAID, and evaluating overall progress in the attainment of the grant's objectives. Within the GOZ, the MFEPD has responsibility for controlling all foreign assistance. Treasury Circular Minute M20 of 1981 delineates the responsibilities of the MFEPD and the implementing ministries.

Any proposed foreign assistance program or project, including amendments to existing programs or projects, is subject to the approval of the Economic Planning and Development (EPD) section of the MFEPD. EPD advises the implementing ministry or ministries as well as the Finance Section (Treasury) of MFEPD of the terms and conditions of the agreement. No commitment may be made to a specific program or project financed by an external donor without the authority of EPD and no expenditure incurred without the specific authority of Treasury.

In understanding how the resources provided under BEST will be programmed, it is necessary to describe the procedures used by

the Government of Zimbabwe to handle donor funds. Under the laws of Zimbabwe, foreign assistance programs/projects must appear in the Annual Estimates of Expenditures submitted to Parliament in July of each year. The only exceptions to this procedure are loans/grants made to parastatals or nongovernmental organizations.

Foreign assistance supported programs/projects have two ways of being reflected in the Annual Estimates of Expenditure. First, they may form part of the normal subheads and items in the budget of a particular ministry. Each subhead or item which includes donor funds has to be footnoted indicating the amount covered by donor funds plus the number of donors involved. This procedure is used for programs/projects already covered by existing foreign assistance agreements at the time the Annual Estimates of Expenditure is prepared. Second, programs/projects for which neither GOZ nor donor funding is available at the time the Annual Estimates of Expenditure is transmitted to Parliament may be included in the vote appropriation of the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development as the Unallocated Reserve or Vote of Credit. Only those programs/projects with reasonable expectation of being financed during the fiscal year may appear in the Vote of Credit. Each program/project is listed as a separate item in the Vote of Credit with the amount of funding expected during the fiscal year. The Vote of Credit does not indicate the likely source of donor funds.

The Vote of Credit was created by the GOZ to meet the statutory requirement that all expenditures by the GOZ must have been subjected to Parliamentary approval and authorization and subject to audit by the Comptroller and Auditor General. Without this provision, donor financed programs/projects negotiated in one fiscal year would have to wait either until the next fiscal year to be implemented or for approval by a supplemental appropriation from Parliament.

2. Inclusion of BEST in FY 1983/84 Annual Estimates

In the case of BEST, provision for the first year funding will be made in the Vote of Credit for the FY 1983/84 Annual Estimates of Expenditure which will be submitted to Parliament in July, 1983. The MFEPD is taking the necessary steps to include in the Vote of Credit those activities of the implementing ministries which are most consistent with the criteria under the grant for which no provision has already been made in the Estimates. In determining which activities to include and the amount of funding to be earmarked for each, a hypothetical fifty-fifty division of the first year's resources between the MOEC's and MMPD's programs was employed. Items involving construction will be included in the Vote of Credit earmarked for transfer to the Ministry of Construction when funds are available.

This fifty-fifty split is arbitrary. The decision was made to use it to ensure that (1) the top priorities of both the MOEC and MMPD are included in the Estimates and (2) maximum flexibility is maintained for the time when the actual allocations are made. Any other division of the first year's resources would have resulted in the exclusion of a priority activity and would have made it more difficult to shift resources between the two ministries during the allocative process itself. This does not mean that the actual allocation will be fifty-fifty when MFEPD applies the criteria and reviews the status of eligible activities.

In the second and subsequent years of the grant, the grant's resources which are financing on-going activities will appear in the relevant line item under the appropriate subheading of the implementing ministry's Vote Appropriation with a footnote indicating the amount covered by donor aid. For example, if AID funds were supporting teacher education and were included in the line items of this subheading governing salaries, furniture/ equipment, and transport, each of these line items would be footnoted indicating the amount of the total covered by donor financing and the number of donors contributing. On the other hand, any new activity to be covered under the program grant for which provision has not been made in the Votes of the implementing ministries will be covered in the Vote of Credit. In this case, the same procedures will apply as noted above during the first year of the grant.

3. Ensuring Additionality of AID Resources

Since the AID grant is providing additional resources to support the planned reform program of the MOEC and the MMPD, it is important to be able to determine that the resources have been treated in the GOZ's budget as additive. The procedures for handling donor funds makes it easier to establish whether resources are additive or substitutive. First, it is possible to measure the impact of budget cuts on each line item of the budget subtracting out the portion covered by donor funds. This will establish whether or not there appears to be a positive correlation between the relative amount of the cut and the relative amount of the item financed by donor funds. Second, items covered in the Vote of Credit are by definition additional. Thus, by taking the detailed breakdown of the MOEC's, MMPD's, and MC's budgets contained in the current fiscal year's Annual Estimates of Expenditure as originally presented to Parliament and comparing these with the Estimates recently revised, the mission will establish a baseline to evaluate the extent to which the BEST resources are being treated as additive over the life of the grant.

4. GOZ Local Currency Procedures

This program represents a hybrid case in which local currency requirements will be met by CIP generations and foreign exchange requirements for technical assistance, commodities and training will be handled using procedures established for the project mode of assistance.

To avoid a situation in which Treasury could not authorize expenditures from the CIP local currency generations due to the absence of local currency at the start of the program, the Treasury is considering ways to use the reflows from the FY 1982 CIP to advance funds to BEST for the first few months until local currency from the BEST CIP element is available. This procedure will permit the immediate implementation of the program grant without a six month delay until sufficient local currency is generated from the BEST CIP.

At the moment there are surplus funds in the Special Account for the FY 1982 CIP. Assuming that drawdowns do not accelerate over the next several months, it would appear that this borrowing of local currency and replenishment later may be the least complicated way of handling the initial need for local currency for BEST.

There are two alternatives to the temporary loan of local currency from the FY 1982 CIP to BEST. The first involves the issuance under the CIP of a Special Letter of Credit. In this case, one of the participating banks in Zimbabwe would agree to deposit the local currency in exchange for the commitment of a specified amount of foreign exchange. The difficulty with the Special Letter of Credit is that the participating bank would have to borrow the funds to be deposited into the special account. Without a prior guarantee that it will have adequate foreign exchange allocated to its customers to cover the Special Letter of Credit, few banks in Zimbabwe would be willing to consider this option. The second option would involve an initial cash transfer of foreign exchange to the GOZ to cover the anticipated local currency requirement for the first six months. While this is obviously preferable to the GOZ, it has two major drawbacks from AID's viewpoint which make it a nonviable option. These are 1) the untied nature of the foreign exchange, and 2) the difficulty in ensuring allocation to the private sector.

5. General Disbursement and Reporting Procedures

Once an amount for an activity has been transferred from the Vote of Credit to the implementing ministry's vote, the ministry may request a transfer of funds to its account with the exchequer.

The implementing ministry submits a monthly Forecast of Expenditures to Treasury. It must be received by Treasury on the 20th of the month prior to the month to which the forecast relates. Treasury prepares a payment voucher for the following month's requirements detailing the activity, donor and Zimbabwean dollar amount. The voucher is passed for payment by the Accountant and approved by the Undersecretary for Foreign Aid in the MFEPD. A check is issued made payable to the Exchequer. The estimates for the two outlying months are used by Treasury to plan its disbursements over the quarter.

Implementing ministries are required to account for aid expenditures by donor, by activity and by various categories, e.g., salaries, materials, transport, contract payments, etc. These quarterly or monthly Returns of Expenditure are on a cash basis of accounting and are prepared manually by an executive officer in the finance section of the implementing ministry The source of the financial data is the monthly printout of paid vouchers which is generated by the Central Payments Office of the GOZ or the ministry's cash disbursement records. Treasury procedures require that all expenditures be identified through use of a voucher coding system that identifies and summarizes financial data by vote provision.

Returns of expenditure are to be forwarded to the Treasury by the seventh working day of the month following the month the disbursement was made. These returns are used by Treasury to fulfil its function of accounting to donors for expenditures.

6. Disbursements for Foreign Exchange Costs Other Than CIP

For the technical assistance component of the program, the GOZ has an option of using a host-country contract or an AID direct contract. If the host-country contract option is selected, the implementing ministry would select and negotiate with the contractor subject to AID's review. AID could then make payment to the contractor for the GOZ based on vouchers submitted

by the contractor and approved by the GOZ. Under an AID direct contract AID would also make payment, either through direct reimbursement or through a Federal Reserve Letter of Credit as is the case for the existing contract with the Institute of International Education.

Disbursement for the training component will be handled through the Institute for International Education (IIE) as the existing contractor for USAID/Z-financed participant training. (See page 74 for an explanation of the role of IIE).

At the GOZ's option, program-related commodity procurement can be handled by the GOZ and be reimbursed by AID on presentation of the necessary documentation. Alternatively, the procurement can be done through an agent with payment by AID. The use of an AID direct letter of commitment is also a possibility.

7. Auditing

Each implementing ministry has its own internatal audit staff. This staff is responsible for auditing activities carried out by the ministry.

All expenditures by ministries of the GOZ are included in the Appropriation accounts which are audited by the Comptroller and Auditor General (C&AG). This annual audit is a statutory requirement to ensure financial compliance with applicable laws and regulations.

The C&AG's staff uses a systems approach to auditing various ministries. Systems are described in either narrative or flow-chart form. Based on an evaluation of the system and the degree of reliance that can be placed on the system and the people operating it, the audit scope is set. The total number of transactions to be tested are usually selected on a judgmental basis and do not normally fall below 10 percent of all transactions, but in some ministries the audit coverage may be substantially greater. This is particulary true of new programs. Also the size and role of the implementing ministry's own audit staff can also affect the scope of the audit.

For each audit, standard internal control questionnaires and audit programs are completed. Working papers are prepared as evidence of work performed. Working papers are reviewed in detail by an Assistant Director and are subject to higher level reviews. Memoranda on control weaknesses and exceptions are communicated in writing to the implementing ministry and are followed up to ensure that corrective action is taken.

8. Procurement and Contracting

The BEST program involves a combination of foreign exchange (U.S. dollars) expenditures for 1) technical assistance training and program commodities; 2) provision of general commodities under a CIP arrangement; and 3) a large local currency element generated by the CIP. In each of these program components, different rules and regulations apply with respect to procurement and contracting. In general, U.S. procurement and contracting procedures will apply to the foreign exchange element of the grant, except where waivers are approved. In the case of the CIP component, procurement procedures will follow those established under the FY 1982 and FY 1983 CIPs, which are identical to those applied to the CIP component of the ZASA program.

(a) CIP Component

A major source of funds for the implementation of this program will be derived from local currency generated by the CIP. This amount is estimated at US$12 million in each of the three annual tranches. Responsibility for implementing all activities funded under the local currency generated by the CIP rests with the relevant GOZ ministries mentioned in this program, GOZ rules and procedures will apply regarding contracting, construction and procurement using local currency generations.

An amount equal to 80 percent of the program, or US$12 million, will be applied in the first year to a Commodity Import Program (CIP). It is anticipated that similar amounts will also be applied to the CIP in the second and third years. The CIP will supply foreign exchange for general purposes to Zimbabwe, at least 80 percent (US$9.6 million) of which is to be directed to the private sector for the

purpose of generating local currency. The balance of US$2.4 million will be retained by the GOZ for allocating to any public sector entity, including parastatals, which demonstrate a priority need for U.S. commodities, equipment or supplies.

The foreign exchange provided under the CIP to both the private and public sectors will generate an equivalent amount of local currency. Eligibility rules will be the same as under the ZASA program, except that procurement in both sectors will be general and not limited to commodities in the education/training field.

Applicable CIP regulations and procedures for both AID and the GOZ are described fully in the FY 1983 CIP PAAD (pp 40-44). The same procedures will apply to the CIP component of the BEST program. Also see Proposed Draft Grant Agreement, Annex I to this document.

(b) Foreign Exchange Component

A portion of the grant will be set aside each year (20 percent or US$3 million) to finance foreign exchange costs related to the program. One of the two elements of the foreign exchange component will be technical assistance of both a long-term and short-term nature to assist the implementing ministries in carrying out activities which address the constraint areas.

U.S. technical assistance will be provided through either an AID or a host-country contract with an American firm or institution experienced in locating and providing technical services in the fields of education and technical training. This contractor will be selected competitively based on responses to a Request for Proposal (RFP), prepared jointly by USAID/Z and the GOZ implementing ministries and issued 4-8 weeks after the Grant Agreement is signed. Of the two alternative contracting forms, a host-country contract is generally more desirable and is preferred by both USAID/Z and the GOZ (MFEPD). The main problem associated with this contracting form is that foreign exchange control complications and budgetary restrictions would arise if the GOZ were to make payments to the US contractor in US dollars. To avoid this problem, arrangements can be made for the USAID/Z Controller to disburse US dollars directly to the contractor based on vouchers approved by the GOZ.

If, on the other hand, an AID contract is used, the activity would not appear under the GOZ budget or accounts and special periodic reporting of expenditures would be necessary from USAID to the GOZ. While this alternative is probably feasible, the option of a host-country contract appears preferable. A final decision will be needed when the Grant Agreement is negotiated with the GOZ in June, 1983.

The GOZ has expressed interest in possible limited use of third world technicians in certain situations where there is special relevance to Zimbabwe in the experience of countries like India, Mauritius, Nigeria and Ghana. Under the ZIMMAN project, we will be seeking to identify areas where use of Code 941 technical services is feasible. When details are known, appropriate waivers will be issued by authority of the Director, USAID/Zimbabwe.

The foreign exchange component will also finance participant training, both long-term and short-term, in the US and, as appropriate, in other developing countries (Code 941). Training will be arranged and managed under an AID Contract with the Institute for International Education of New York (IIE). IIE recently won the contract for training under AID's Zimbabwe Manpower Development Project (ZIMMAN), based on competition among 16 US institutions. This contract also provided for IIE to handle the training components of both the Zimbabwe Agricultural Sector Assistance Program (ZASA) and the Basic Education and Skills Training Program (BEST). While training will be separately funded under each program, USAID/Z and the GOZ decided that in the interest of efficient management and consistency of operation, it would be preferable to contract with one U.S. institution to arrange and oversee the training programs in all three AID-financed activities. Actual training will take place in a wide range of U.S. and third country educational and technical institutions.

Commodities needed specifically by the two implementing ministries to carry out program objectives may also be financed under the foreign exchange component of the BEST program. Unlike the public sector portion of the CIP, these items will not generate local currency, since they will be treated under the project mode of assistance. Eligibility to procure those commodities will be limited to participating ministries (MAFC and MMPD) and must be directly related to BEST program objectives.

Some of these commodities may include items such as audio-visual equipment of non-U.S. origin. When specifics are known, an appropriate waiver can be issued under the authority of the USAID/Zimbabwe Director.

Except as provided for under waiver, the source and origin of goods and services provided under the foreign exchange component of this program will be the U.S. (Code 000). GOZ contracting procedures will apply to a host country contract for technical services, but if AID is the contracting authority, US contractors procedures will be followed. US contracting rules will apply to the training program to be implemented by IIE.

C. Monitoring and Reporting

The implementing ministries are required to submit monthly narrative reports to the Economic Planning and Development section of the MFEPD on each activity supported under the grant. Copies of these reports are also given to Treasury. EPD has responsibility for transmitting these reports to AID. These reports will be one way in which the AID program committee will assess progress. In addition to these reports, members of the program committee will make selected site visits at least once a quarter to activities receiving financing under the grant. These site visits will be timed to occur close to the regularly scheduled quarterly review meetings with the GOZ. During these visits, discussions will be held with relevant individuals directly involved in the implementation of the activity. At the conclusion of these visits, a report will be prepared for the USAID/Director to the Deputy Secretary of Economic Planning and Development prior to the quarterly meeting.

The quarterly meetings will be called by the MFEPD and chaired by either the Deputy Secretary for Economic Planning and Development or the Deputy Secretary for Finance. The implementing ministries will be represented at these meetings at the level of at least Chief Education Officer, Assistant Secretary, or their equivalent and will include representation from the technical or planning division as well as the financial division.

The working documents which will be reviewed at these meetings will be (1) the monthly Returns on Expenditures, (2) the narrative report from the implementing ministries, and (3) the site visit report by the USAID Program Committee. The quarterly meeting will discuss progress toward implementation of the grant and will attempt to resolve any procedural or implementation issues. A report will be prepared by MFEPD following each quarterly meeting giving the status of progress under the grant and noting any necessary corrective actions to be taken the next quarter.

Annual formative evaluations will be held as described in Part IV. The emphasis in these formative evaluations will be the extent to which the GOZ is making progress in ameliorating

the five key constraints. Rather than repeat the discussion in Part IV, here, the reader should see Part IV for a detailed description of the annual Formative Evaluations, the Summative Evaluation, and the ten year Impact Evaluation.

D. Implementation Schedule

The following implementation schedule assumes that the program grant will have been authorized by AID/Washington in mid-June 1983.

Item	Month/Year
Grant Agreement signed between GOZ and AID.....	June 1983
Conditions Precedent to initial disbursement met.	July 1983
Bank letters of Commitment for CIP issued by AID.	July 1983
Transfer of Amounts to Ministries Votes.....	August 1983
RFP for technical services issued.....	August 1983
Initial allocations of foreign exchange by Ministry of Trade and Commerce.....	August 1983
Importers commence placing orders under CIP.....	September 1983
Importers commence establishing Letters of Credit.	September 1983
Field site visit by USAID.....	September 1983
Quarterly Review Meeting.....	September 1983
Proposals from contractors for technical services received and reviewed.....	November 1983
First shipments of commodities under CIP arrive..	December 1983
Contract for technical services awarded.....	December 1983
Deposit of local currency into special account begin.....	December 1983
Field site visit by USAID.....	December 1983
Quarterly Review Meeting.....	December 1983
Field site visit by USAID.....	March 1984
Quarterly Review Meeting.....	March 1984
Field site visit by USAID.....	June 1984
First Annual Formative Evaluation.....	June 1984
Grant agreement amended with second tranche of funds.....	June 1984

Any reallocations of funds made by MFEPD based upon formative evaluation..... June 1984

Additional conditions precedent met..... June 1984

Terminal date for requesting disbursing authorization under first CIP..... June 1984

First group of long-term participants leave for USA..... June/Sept.1984

Bank Letters of Commitment issued by AID for second tranche CIP..... July 1984

Allocations under second CIP tranche made by Trade and Commerce..... August 1984

Field site visit by USAID..... September 1984

Quarterly Review Meeting..... September 1984

Importers commence ordering under second CIP tranche..... September 1984

Importers establish letters of credit..... September 1984

Final shipment of goods from USA under first CIP tranche..... November 1984

Foreign exchange under first CIP tranche fully disbursed..... December 1984

Field site visit by USAID..... December 1984

Quarterly Review Meeting..... December 1984

Field site visit by USAID..... March 1985

Quarterly Review Meeting..... March 1985

Field site visit by USAID..... June 1985

Second Annual Formative Evaluation..... June 1985

Grant Agreement amended with third tranche of funds..... June 1985

Any necessary reallocations of funds made by MFEPD using the results from formative evaluation..... June 1985

Terminal date for requesting disbursing authority under the second CIP..... June 1985

Bank Letters of Commitment issued by AID for third tranche of CIP..... July 1985

Allocations of foreign exchange by Ministry of Trade and Commerce under third tranche to CIP..... August 1985

Field site visit by USAID	September 1985
Quarterly Review Meeting	September 1985
Importers commence ordering under third CIP tranche	September 1985
Importers establish letters of credit	September 1985
Final shipment of goods from USA under second tranche	November 1985
Foreign exchange under second CIP tranche fully disbursed	December 1985
Field site visit by USAID	December 1985
Quarterly Review Meeting	December 1985
Fields site visit by USAID	March 1986
Quarterly Review Meeting	March 1986
Field site visit by USAID	June 1986
Third Annual Formative Evaluation	June 1986
Any necessary reallocation of funds made by MFEPD	June 1986
Terminal date for requesting disbursing authority under third tranche of CIP	June 1986
Field visit by USAID	September 1986
Quarterly Review Meeting	September 1986
Final shipment of goods from USA under third CIP tranche	November 1986
Foreign exchange under third CIP tranche fully disbursed	December 1986
Field site visit by USAID	December 1986
Quarterly Review Meeting	December 1986
Field site visit by USAID	March 1987
Quarterly Review Meeting	March 1987
Field site visit by USAID	June 1987
Fourth Annual Formative Evaluation	June 1987
Any necessary reallocation of funds made by MFEPD.	June 1987
Field site visit by USAID	September 1987
Quarterly Review Meeting	September 1987
Field site visit by USAID	December 1987
Quarterly Review Meeting	December 1987

Field site visit by USAID.....	March 1988
Quarterly Review Meeting.....	March 1988
Field site visit by USAID.....	June 1988
Fifth Annual Formative Evaluation.....	June 1988
Final reallocation of resources under grant made by MFEPD.....	June 1988
Work on summative evaluation commences.....	August 1988
Program Grant ends all funds expended.....	December 1988
Summative Evaluation.....	Early 1989

IV. PROGRAM EVALUATION

The final criterion for success of this sector program will be the degree to which the key education and training constraints have been removed or diminished. The evaluations during the term of the grant will focus on observable progress in the described constraint areas. For all of the constraint areas there are quantifiable variables which alone or collectively permit inferences regarding program success. The GOZ maintains fairly good records with respect to student enrollments, attrition, student progress and achievement. This data is available by school, district and region and can be disaggregated to the level of desired analysis. This same general kind of information is available in terms of numbers of teachers employed, their qualification levels, and annual turnover rates. The government's data gathering and analysis capability should be considerably enhanced by the MOEC's recently acquired computerized Budget Planning Model which will soon be extended down to the provincial and district levels. Also, optical scanners for machine marking of national examinations and the attendant computerization of this process will permit much closer and more accurate evaluation of the relationship of school variables to learner achievement and academic results. The success of the teacher must be inferred from the success of the students. Are the students remaining in school? Is their achievement consistent with national standards? Are they progressing in a timely and orderly way to successively higher academic levels?

A. Evaluation Criteria

If 1983 is established as the baseline year, it will be possible to measure systems improvement as the several measures deviate from their base level. Some of the criteria measures can be directly related to effects on a particular constraint; others may reveal effects that cut across several constraints. For example, increased student achievement, could result from the reduction of any one or more of the constraints. Following are some of the dependent variables which will permit fairly direct inferences as to the program's effect on the several constraints and upon which base line, interim and end-of-program measurements will be made:

1. Total enrollments by grade level
2. Enrollments as a percent of age cohort
3. Per student cost by grade level
4. Student dropout rate by grade level
5. Student achievement on national and international normative exams.

Clearly, these variables could be effected by any change or number of changes in the teaching/learning process - improved instructional materials, more and better qualified teachers, greater access to instructional resources, etc.. These data will permit comparisons among different regions of the country, and between rural and urban schools and an evaluation of effects by different academic level and type of school. Because of differing entry level aptitudes of students by school and region it will be essential to use covariate analysis to compensate for initial differences. Correlational and multivariate analyses should identify those inputs which have contributed most significantly to any educational improvement outcomes. Some caution and judgment will have to be exercised in evaluating the direction of change in any single variable, given the unprecedented expansion and possibly anomalous enrollment patterns of the 1982/83 period. For example, per student costs for certain goods and types of schools may rise even though the average costs do not, or; total enrollments by grade level may remain constant while the enrollment as a percentage of the actual age cohort may rise.

An insufficient number of teachers, particularly at the secondary and vocational/technical levels, is one of the key constraints and is a major priority area of the two ministries. Success criteria for this constraint will include:

1. Cumulative number and percentage of teachers who are certified "qualified" by academic level.
2. Annual attrition rate of teachers.
3. Numbers of new entry-level teachers who are being produced annually.

With respect to the objective of increasing equity of resource distribution, the Ministries' audit and allocation records will permit comparison with baseline 1983 to determine what annual progress has been made. Considerations here will include the following:

1. Ratio of school and training facilities to population.
2. Proportionality of distribution of textbooks, qualified teachers and other instructional or training resources to population density.

Improving the curriculum at both schools and vocational training centers is a GOZ priority. It will of course, be possible to record the number of subject areas and grade levels for which new instructional materials have been developed. And, this number will grow through each year of the program. Thus a direct measure of the reduction of the curriculum constraint will simply be the numbers of new textbook titles and vocational training modules and the degree to which these have been produced and distributed in amounts sufficient for nationwide coverage. However, better materials are developed in order to teach more students and to teach them better. It is such student performance

data, listed earlier, which are the bottom-line criteria for the worth of a curriculum improvement effort.

Evaluating the improvement in the management and planning capacities of the ministries is in some ways analogous to evaluating curriculum improvement. It will be possible to document the numbers of planners at the various levels who have been trained either formally or informally. It will be easy to dimensionalize what has been done for them. What they do in the way of improved planning and management must be indirectly inferred from other observable system variables. These variables, the same ones listed earlier, provide a measure of improved efficiency and effectiveness of the system. It is on this basis that the adequacy of the planning capability must be assessed.

It should be noted that the planning units of both ministries intend to strengthen their research and evaluation capabilities with grant assistance. Also, there will be some differences in emphasis between the two ministries in the degree to which they address the five key constraints. Institutional development (the building, equipping and staffing of new vocational-technical schools) will be the major focus of the MMPD. In contrast, construction is a minor aspect of the MOEC's program, with the emphasis being on staff and curriculum development. The program evaluation will have to take these differing emphases into account.

There are three levels of evaluation which should take place: (a) formative; (b) summative; and (c) long range impact. All of these are to provide information for improved decision-making but decisions for different purposes. The type and sources of evaluation data also differ somewhat for each of these types of evaluation.

B. Formative Evaluations

Disbursement of AID funds under the program will be in three annual tranches, with release of the second and third tranches to the GOZ being contingent upon evidence of satisfactory progress in addressing the constraint areas. It is therefore imperative that the program be evaluated on an interim and continuing basis. The annual or formative evaluations are primarily for the purpose of shaping and guiding progress through the program. The formative evaluations will be undertaken jointly by the GOZ (the three operative ministries MFEPD, MOEC and MMPD) and USAID/Zimbabwe, with possible participation of a representative of AID/Washington in the first two evaluations on which release of future tranches will depend. These two crucial evaluations will be particularly difficult because of the brief period of elapsed time available to the GOZ to undertake and

complete activities addressing the constraint areas. Special attention must therefore be paid to the processes followed and the manner in which the activities have been planned and organized, rather than on finished products. These evaluations will also seek to identify problems or obstacles to attainment of the program objectives and proposals to correct such problems. Based on each of the first two annual formative evaluations, USAID/Z will issue an Action Memorandum signed by the Mission Director, explaining the basis for the Director's determination to approve or withhold commitment of the next tranche of the grant.

Reduction and eventual elimination of the constraints is the final objective, but in order to achieve this there will be many interim and enabling objectives which must be accomplished first. For example, the development of appropriate teacher training material, though not a goal in itself, is a necessary step in the goal of increasing the number of qualified teachers. Planning in the two ministries should identify and operationally define the interim objectives. They should be amenable to independent observation and evaluation, and the interim objectives should be visibly and logically related to the program goals.

These activity objectives, when time-scheduled, will permit continuing progress checks and program evaluation and review by the GOZ and USAID. The mechanism for this review will be an annual meeting chaired by the Secretary of the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development. The one-day session will be attended by the Secretaries of MOEC and MMPD, the USAID/Director and appropriate staff. The morning will be spent in presentation and review of the grant activities undertaken by the two ministries and the afternoon devoted to the formulation of recommendations regarding the conduct of the activities.

Through this formative evaluation process judgments can be made as to whether progress is satisfactory. The continuation or alteration of program activities thus becomes an informed management decision. During the first two years of the program some observable progress should be made in increasing the availability of qualified teachers and new curriculum materials. The output in these two areas is not likely to peak until the third and fourth years, however. Some progress will be made early in the program in improving instructional efficiency and in the equitable allocation of education and training resources, but the most significant changes will occur in the later years.

C. Summative Evaluation

Summative evaluation is the comprehensive assessment of the end-of-program accomplishments and will occur in the year after the grant ends. At this point interim outcomes have relevance only insofar as they have contributed to the reduction or elimination of the key constraints. The dependent variables listed earlier will be the criteria measures against which program success will be evaluated.

The summative evaluation data will have a number of uses. First, it will highlight those constraints, if any, which have not been entirely eliminated and which will require a continuing allocation of GOZ resources. The final evaluation will be useful to USAID as a source of feedback on the appropriateness of its policies regarding sector grants. Finally, other African nations should be invited to share the experiences gained from this major effort. Seminars held in Zimbabwe to which African educational leaders are invited, coupled with appropriate research publications and evaluation reports will be some of the means by which these experiences can be disseminated.

D. Impact Evaluation

Since many of the expected outcomes are long-range and may be difficult to assess in the immediate post-grant period, it will be advisable to consider conducting a long-range impact evaluation some years after the grant. AID's impact evaluations usually occur ten years after the grant is concluded and are conducted by a team of AID specialists, none of whom had any involvement in the program. This analysis examines the post-grant effects to see which have endured. Have trends of improvement continued? Has the government maintained those institutions and capacities which were supported by the grant? Were there any unintended side effects - good or bad? From the long-term perspective are there any lessons or policy implications for the GOZ or USAID? This type of evaluation will be of particular value to other nations confronting educational problems similar to Zimbabwe.

The costs of any summative and impact evaluations would be borne by U.S.A.I.D.

V. ECONOMIC ANALYSIS OF COSTS AND BENEFITS

1. Introduction

The economic benefits of this program grant will be of three types:

(a) More and better-trained manpower at all levels for production, government, research and to improve the quality of life. The greatest long-term constraint in any developing country is the relative shortage of human skills, and this program directly contributes by increasing resources available to the educational system.

(b) More efficient use of educational resources through strengthening of key administrative and planning capacities. The educational system is undergoing continual reform to deliver educational services at a lower unit cost, exemplified by the recently developed (with USAID support) computerized financial planning model which could have annual savings of millions of dollars.

(c) A direct and immediate macroeconomic impact on income and employment. Funding of this program through a CIP will ease the serious foreign exchange constraint and should increase GDP by over 0.5 percent and create on the order of 1,500 jobs per US $12 million tranche (see Macroeconomic Justification, pp 11-13).

Since USAID proposes a program to support reform, expansion and qualitative improvements within the education and training systems as a whole, program inputs cannot be related directly to quantitative changes in system outputs. Cost-effectiveness and least-cost assessment can and should be employed in the design and implementation of any of the program components. However, cost-benefit and rate-of-return economic analysis (projecting outputs as numbers of educated and trained people, estimating the economic benefit attributable to such education or training using income differentials or other proxies, and relating benefits to investment costs) is possible only for the Zimbabwe education system as a whole.

Unfortunately, it is not possible to make fully reliable projections of enrollment, dropout and completion rates, expenditures or economic value of the increased output of the education and training systems, except by applying numerous

assumptions and personal judgments. The current situation is characterized by:

- -- lack of up-to-date census data. The last census was in 1969. A new census is nearing completion, with at least preliminary results expected to be available in early 1983. Such essential data as the size of the adult labor force, geographic distribution, size and distribution of school-age cohorts are unavailable or unreliable at this time.
- -- Since 1979 there has been a surge of new enrollments, resulting from the re-opening of schools, the return of refugees and changes in policy by MOEC to make primary education free though not compulsory. A substantial part of the enrollment increase has been re-enrollment at all grade levels. The result is that there is a substantial amount of overage enrollment (and possibly some underage enrollment in the lower grades) and it is not possible to make reliable predictions of dropouts or completion rates.
- -- Lack of fully reliable manpower data, current stock and projected demand. The MMPD is completing the National Manpower Survey, with results expected to be published in 1983. While there appears to be full consensus that there is a substantial unmet demand for skilled manpower, improved data is needed for assessment of the specific areas of shortage, the likely rate of labor market absorption, trends in wage rates and the implications of these for school leavers.

Therefore, the following scenario is based on assumptions which, while probable, may be changed by policy decisions and other factors over the next few years. The errors in these assumptions are likely to exaggerate the quantitative and financial problems more than economic output.

Assumptions:

- -- primary grade 1 intake will be approximately 400 thousand annually through 1987/88, and thereafter rise proportionate to growth in the 6-year-old cohort (more reliable estimates expected in 1983).
- -- dropout in the primary grades will be not more than 5% annually and that overenrollment ("dropins") in the upper primary and secondary grades will cease to be significant by 1985.

-- at least 70% of the students completing grade 7 will continue to secondary Form I and approximately 20% will complete four years of secondary leading to "O" level certification by about 1988.

-- current wage and salary expectations for primary and secondary school leavers will not increase in real terms over the reported levels of December, 1982, and may decrease relative to the minimum wages.

-- teacher salaries will not increase relative to other employment or relative to inflation, though average teacher salary will increase due to improvements in average teacher qualification.

-- overall sector efficiency will remain relatively constant, hopefully an extremely conservative assumption.

2. Analysis and Implications

By about 1988, total costs (in constant Z$ 1982) may rise to above $600 million for primary and secondary education combined, or total $650-700 million for the MOEC, including the university, teachers colleges and central administrative expenses. This compares to total primary and secondary costs of Z$352 million in 1982, and a total MOEC vote of Z$408.4 million in 1982/83. This would require 8% annual real growth through 1988, with increases proportionate to inflation and to any increases in grade 1 enrollment thereafter. Such increases will be burdensome, though not impossible and, given the commitment of the GOZ to education expansion, not unlikely. If GDP grows at the relatively high planning target of 8 percent or more annually, education will remain at the comparatively high current investment share of 6.7% of GDP. If GDP growth is slower than planned, which is likely, education and training could grow to perhaps 9-10 percent of GDP, probably declining after 1988. This level of investment is probably unsustainable for more than a few years. The key assumption is that the sharp increase in secondary school leavers, which will be substantial by 1988, will enter productive employment with real increases in income sufficient to justify the investment and to contribute to a rate of growth in GDP sufficient to offset any further increase in total enrollment.

One should note that the increases in enrollment and total expenditure in the above scenario are dependent on relatively optimistic assumptions regarding dropouts and secondary entries. Further, unit costs are held constant at 1982 averages, although changes in teacher-pupil ratios and administrative efficiences are likely to reduce average costs, particularly at the secondary level. However, using these assumptions, it is possible to make an order of magnitude cost-benefit analysis:

(a) Primary and Secondary Education

Assuming the above enrollment scenario, the output of the primary and secondary education system would have the following profile by 1988 and successive years:

Level Completed	100% of Cohort	EXPECTED ANNUAL INCOME	AVERAGE YEARS OF EDUCATION
Less than Grade 7	30%	Z$ 600	4
Grade 7 but less than "O"	50%	Z$1,500	8
"O" level, whether or not continuing to higher education or training	20%	Z$4,200	11

It is assumed that with 100% enrollment, leavers with less than Grade 7 will earn the minimum wage; thus, no economic value is imputed to their schooling. Similarly, Z$600 per year is subtracted from the yearly income of the other two categories as their educational opportunity cost. Therefore, the added income (presumably economic value) for an entering cohort of 100 students over a lifetime in constant Z$ 1982, discounted at 11%, would be Z$427,561 in present terms. The cost of that education using actual 1982 unit costs, similarly discounted, would be Z$86,689. In other words, the ratio of present discounted benefit to cost is almost five times. This is, of course, a very rough estimate of the return on education. There are many other factors involved in determining income other than years of education, and on the other hand there are many benefits to an education other than a higher income. Whether such returns on education investment will be sustained over time depends on assumptions with respect to wage increases, inflation of non-salary education costs and the dropout and completion rates. And the above analysis deals only with the wage economy, excluding large numbers of children in the subsistence sector. It has been observed, however, that agricultural productivity increases at a much higher rate (7-11%) for those averaging 4 or more years of education, and this could be the most effective factor in raising the minimum standard of living in rural areas. From any perspective, education continues to be one of the best investments available in Zimbabwe.

(b) Technical Training

Technical training investments must be considered as additional to the education investments and should generate additional increments of income. Unit costs for post-secondary training are estimated at Z$1,500 annually or Z$4,500 for a

three year course. Considering foregone earnings as something above minimum wage for manufacturing (Z$ 128/month), the typical investment in training for a journeyman trade is Z$9-10,000. From an investment viewpoint this would be justified by an expection of additional income of less than $1,000. In fact a journeyman can expect increased income of Z$4-5,000 upon completion of training.

While there is little question that technical training for modern sector employment will have a high return, there are two economic factors which will have to watched carefully.

First, there is financing capacity. While recurrent costs appear manageable, with employers paying a substantial share, the capital costs of establishing training capacity are very high, currently Z$12,000 to Z$15,000 per place. This high cost makes it difficult for the MMPD to finance new training capacity.

Second, there is the rate of job creation. For the present and perhaps the next five years there appears to be substantial unmet demand for skilled manpower. The National Manpower Survey should clarify this when it appears. Later in the decade, as the flow of secondary school leavers increases, there is likely to be a growing but temporary surplus of applicants. It is likely that those with technical skills will continue to be in demand while those with only academic preparation may be in surplus. New entrants with less than secondary education may find fewer opportunities for modern sector employment.

3. Other Economic Analysis Factors

(a) Shadow Prices

There is no need to shadow price education inputs. Zimbabwe is unique in obtaining most of its education inputs from local manufacturers and suppliers. Further, teacher salaries are comparable with other sectors of employment. At the upper end of the salary scale, they are somewhat lower than the private sector and some loss of experienced teachers can be expected. This is particularly true of technical instructors.

(b) Unit Costs

Several GOZ and USAID working papers, including the FY 1984 CDSS, suggest the need to reduce unit expenditures. The unit costs in the government Group A primary and secondary schools are very high relative to the other schools in Zimbabwe and are

comparable to the costs of high quality schools in Europe or the U.S. Aside from the equity considerations of providing high cost and high quality schooling for a very small minority of the population, these schools are substantially under utilized and teacher/pupil ratios in the Group A secondary schools average 1:19.7. Clearly, there is substantial room for reducing the unit expenditures in these schools and the GOZ is likely to do so. At the other extreme, unit expenditures in the private or "registered" schools, though relatively high compared to other countries in Africa, are inadequate to provide the desired quality of education in Zimbabwe and are likely to rise. To achieve the desired quality and to increase the percentages successfully completing each level will require more qualified teachers, additional inputs of instructional materials, and a substantial school building program. In sum, while average unit costs may remain at the 1982 levels in constant dollars, it is desirable that there be a reallocation of resources between types of schools.

	1982 Enrollment	Teacher-Pupil Ratio	Average Teacher Salary	Unit Cost
A Primary	35,436	29.8	Z$ 8700	Z$260.2
B Primary	182,218	49.0	5700	
Registered Primary	1,687,337	38.2	3200	118.2
		Average		Z$134.3
A Secondary	22,228	19.7	Z$ 9600	Z$521.4
B Secondary	66,369	32.2	7000	
Registered Secondary	135,236	32.2	6000	339.8
		Average		Z$411.4

4. Implications for Recurrent Budget

To finance education and training expansion according to the above scenario requires an increase in total expenditure of about 8% annually in constant dollars. This would be about the maximum feasible for government expenditure. However, it is not necessary to assume that this increase will fall entirely, or even mainly, on the MOEC's and MMPD's budgets. A very large percentage of the schools are privately built and managed, with the MOEC providing staff salaries, a tuition grant (per capita voucher), and partial reimbursement of private secondary boarding costs. In the private schools, particularly in the rural areas, there is a well-established practice of self-help, fees and community contributions in kind. A variety of plans are being enacted by the MOEC to extend these practices to all schools.

Similarly, for vocational and technical training, there is substantial involvement of employers both in the implementation of training and in the financing of training. A payroll tax on firms employing apprentices generates funds for apprentice skills training programs. The GOZ has increased the tax rate from 0.1% to 1.0% and broadened the incidence of this levy to include all private firms with annual wage bills over Z$2,000. This enlarged pool of resources is expected to add an additional Z$10 million annually and will be used to cover a wide range of public and private skills training.

Finally, there is undoubtedly major potential for administrative savings and more efficient management of resources, independent of the reforms made for education policy reasons. Though difficult to quantify, it may be argued that one of the largest economic impacts of the USAID program may well be through the strengthening of key administrative, logistic and data-handling capacities and the improvement of MOEC and MMPD capacities to assess the financial and personnel implications of alternative education and training policies. On December 10, 1982, there was a preliminary demonstration of the computerized financial management model for the MOEC developed by the Academy for Educational Development and University of Pennsylvania with USAID support. This system is to be fully implemented under the proposed program, and simulates overall costs under various administrative and policy reforms. For example, it identifies a combination of administrative and curriculum changes which would use teaching staff more efficiently while holding capital costs constant. These changes would result in a projected annual saving of Z$55 million in teachers salaries beginning in 1988 and continuing indefinitely. The present discounted value of this projected saving (at 11 percent) is over nine times that of the cost of this entire program and implies a rate of return on the order of 100 percent per year even if no other benefits accrued.

VI. CONDITIONS, COVENANTS, AND NEGOTIATING STATUS

The GOZ has been actively involved in the development of the BEST program from its initial design to the preparation of this PAAD. The two A.I.D. design teams met several times with senior staff of both primary implementing ministries to formulate the criteria and procedures under which the program is to be implemented. Financial accounting, disbursement procedures, and contracting were reviewed carefully with the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development.

Once the BEST program has been authorized in Washington, USAID/Zimbabwe will negotiate the final Grant Agreement with the GOZ. It is expected that the negotiations and execution of the Grant Agreement will take place before the end of June 1983. This date is important since the resources are to be utilized by the GOZ to implement the programs of the MOEC and the MMPD as envisaged in the Annual Estimates of Expenditure for FY 1983/84 which commences on July 1, 1983. A draft of the proposed Grant Agreement is attached as Annex I.

Conditions precedent to initial disbursement under the Grant Agreement require the GOZ in substance to submit:

A. An opinion by the Attorney General's Office that the terms and condition of the Grant constitutes a legally binding obligation of the GOZ;

B. Names and specimen signatures and titles of responsible officials of the GOZ who are authorized to represent the GOZ in implementation of the provisions of the Grant Agreement; and

C. Proposed activities or items within the Annual Estimates of Expenditure to be supported under the first year of the Grant.

Prior to any additional disbursements under the proposed Grant, the GOZ will be required to submit an evaluation report with evidence that satisfactory progress is being made toward the attainment of the program's objectives. The GOZ will also submit any revisions to the original list of items financed under the Grant and the proposed list of items to be included in the next Annual Estimates of Expenditure.

Special covenants to be included in the Grant Agreement are in substance as follows:

A. The GOZ agrees to conduct annual formative evaluations of the Grant which will assess the progress being made toward the attainment of the program's objectives. These evaluations will identify any

obstacles inhibiting the attainment of progress and the proposed corrective measures to be undertaken by the GOZ to resolve them.

B. The GOZ agrees to cooperate with USAID/Zimbabwe in the budgeting activities which may be funded under the Grant. This includes the free exchange of relevant programming and budgetary information.

C. The GOZ agrees to assure the adequacy of financing and budgetary resources for the activities selected from the Annual Estimates of Expenditure for funding under the Grant.

D. The GOZ agrees to provide evidence that the funds provided by A.I.D. under the Grant will be additional to, and not a substitute for, the GOZ's own budgetary resources.

E. The GOZ agrees to offer assurances that it will make available to the Zimbabwean private sector at least 80 percent of the funds provided under the commodity import mechanism of the Grant.

INITIAL ENVIRONMENTAL EXAMINATION
OR
CATEGORICAL EXCLUSION

Project Country: Zimbabwe

Project Title and Number: Basic Education and Skills Training 613-0208

Funding: FY's 1983, 1984, and 1985 LOP $ 45 million

IEE/CE Prepared by: Richard L. Shortlidge, Jr.

Environmental Action Recommended:

Positive Determination _____

Negative Determination _____

or

Categorical Exclusion ____X____

This activity meets the criteria for Categorical Exclusion in accordance with Regulation 16, Section 216.2 (C) (1) (ii) and Section 216.2 (C) (2) (i) and (ix). It is excluded from further review because:

1. Program consists primarily in budgetary support to the GOZ in the education and training sector. Knowledge of or control over decisions regarding the specific inputs to be financed under the program rests with the GOZ. Section 216.2 (C) (1) (ii).
2. CIP-type procurement, technical assistance, and training which are the inputs to be financed under the sector program grant by A.I.D. meet the criteria for categorical exclusion as defined in Section 216.2 (C) (2) (i) and (ix).

Approved by: Roy A. Stacy Date: March 3, 1983

Roy A. Stacy, Director
USAID/Zimbabwe

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ANNEX B

PROPOSED OUTLINE OF EDUCATION SECTOR ASSISTANCE

PART I

A. An Overview: The National Context"

Factors Conditioning Educational Policies and Objectives

1. Government Development Policies and Objectives as Reflected in Policy Documents

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   (b) Economic
   (c) Social
   (d) Cultural

2. Other Conditioning Factors

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   (b) Prevailing Socio-economic Climate
      (i) International Influences
      (ii) Local Influences
         - Income policies
         - Occupational structure
         - Employment structure
         - Factors influencing social mobility
         - Individual and group perceptions, expectations and aspirations
   (c) Population Characteristics
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      - Distribution and migration patterns
      - Settlement patterns

3. Time Factor

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   (c) Control of Education

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   (b) Secondary

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- University
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C. Immediate Post-independence Developments and Future Educational Priorities

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(a) Amendments to the 1979 Education Act
(b) Provision of "free" primary education and rapid expansion at all levels
(c) Introduction of a new method of teacher training for primary schools
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(a) Creation of a unitary education system
(b) Provision of universal primary education
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(d) Fostering Education with Production
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D. Key Constraints Inhibiting the Attainment of Educational Goals

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- by race
- by sex
- by region

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- by race
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- by region

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4. Efficiency of resource utilization
5. The contradictions and conflicts of an over-reliance on a "top-down" strategy in administration
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PART V

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   (e) Re-examination of pre- and in-service teacher training
   (f) Production of textbooks locally

2. Better utilization of physical resources
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4. Financing (Private and Public)
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ANNEX C

EDUCATIONAL DEVELOPMENTS IN ZIMBABWE: THE MAIN ISSUES AND PROBLEMS

BY

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Prepared for Dr. R.L. Shortlidge, Jr., USAID/HRDO

I. Introduction

Since gaining independence in April 1980, the Government of Zimbabwe has begun the process of reforming its inherited education system. The most significant reforms to date have been: abolition of primary school fees; rapid expansion of both primary and secondary enrollments; removal of racial discrimination in education; introduction of a new teacher training programme; adoption of new science education program and the addition of agriculture to the school curriculum as a compulsory subject. These changes in education are consistent with the new Government's desire to redress the mistakes of the past and to focus attention on the development needs of the poor majority.
The task of this paper is three-fold:

(1) to describe the recent educational developments in their historical context;
(2) to identify and analyse the main issues and the attendant problems as Zimbabwe develops her education system and tries to relate it to overall national development; and
(3) to address the implications of the issues and problems in (2) for future educational planning strategies.

There is a lack of relevant research to support this exercise. Often the available research provides an inadequate analysis of the process of education itself within Zimbabwe. There is also a paradox in current government educational policies and programs. Despite political rhetoric which severely critizes the Rhodesian education system as discriminatory, stale and outdated, and colonizing, it is precisely this system which is being expanded largely unchallenged.

The reality behind this paradox is that education as it is in Zimbabwe has become very much an integral part of Zimbabwean society. Thus whilst there is considerable room and valid reasons for further educational reform, there is a real danger in working under the assumption that current problems derive essentially from its origins from a settler colonial past. The "Zimbabwean School" is a transferred institution, but the most important point is that over time it has been turned into a powerful and independent force influencing social and cultural groups and value systems. It is against this background that educational change will by necessity occur in Zimbabwe.

The experiences of other developing countries have shown the limited degree of success which is to be gained from modifying the education system in the expectation that the school alone will spearhead the desired change in society. In fact, as Hanf et al (1975) have pointed out, political leaders and the public tend to greatly overvalue the importance of education in national development. (1) The politicians' view of education stems from an over-optimistic assumption that investments in education alone can generate rapid economic growth. This is based on a misinterpretation of the high correlation between education standards and the development observed in both developing and developed countries. While educational investments have made a significant contribution to development, it has required complementary public and private invest-

ments to stimulate the demand for labour. Also, it should be remembered that Europe's industrial revolution began amidst a largely illiterate population. Universal education came about slowly as the result of a complex process of development in which education stimulated and was stimulated by growth in the economic system. Thus the amount of education required to meet the requirements of an expanding economy puts demands on the overall level of development and the rate at which growth is occurring. From an economic perspective, investments in education operate within a general economic context and can result in under-investment as well as over-investment.

Zimbabwe's education system, like most in developing and developed countries, is likely to be profoundly resistant to change for reasons which stem from inertial factors within both the system itself and the system it serves. A further set of factors which tends to compound the problems of current educational development derifes from the international context in which Zimbabwe finds itself. There is a danger that research results conducted by developed countries will be uncritically applied and adopted in Zimbabwe. There is an element of this in the attention being given to "education with production" and pre-school education. This by no means suggests that theoretical propositions and traditions of empirical research that have been in the study of education in the developed nations have no relevance for Zimbabwe but rather that the decision makers must exercise caution in drawing conclusions about what should be done in Zimbabwe.
In summary, this paper is to provide a historical and analytical description of events. The second objective is to discuss alternative strategies. However, the paper will not attempt to define a specific alternative strategy, but rather describe and analyse a range of options.

Historical Perspective

(1) Nature of the "Colonial Situation"

Zimbabwe had ninety years of a rather different and unique colonial experience. Unlike most other British African colonies which were "Protectorates", Zimbabwe, then known as Southern Rhodesia, was established by conquest, and later granted "self-government" status. As a consequence, it developed as a "settler-colony." (2)
Britain lost effective control and could only exercise influence and not power. The white settler colonialists had almost untrammeled political and economic power which they used to shape the super-structures of government and the future of the country, based upon racial segregation with its historical roots in South Africa from where most of the early white settlers had been recruited by Cecil John Rhodes in the late 1880's. Separate development of the races was also a deliberate policy to ensure the natural outcome of a privileged position for the white minority.

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P.F. Hone (1909) captured the attitudes of the settlers and the practical meaning of separate development when he wrote:

> "It is generally recognised by those who have studied the difficulties which arise between white and black races, that the differences in character, temperament, intellect and humanity itself are so well marked, so clearly defined, that never, will it be possible for the two to blend amalgamate into one... It must, however, be recognised that in industry, commerce, manual and domestic labour, white and black races will be indispensable to each other, the former as employers ... the later as labourers ... Apart from these two great classes, employer and labourer, there will be no direct intercourse between white men and black men except for those white missionaries and teachers who give up their lives to advancement of christianity and civilisation amongst the natives."...(3)

Segregation, then, was the hall-mark of Rhodesian society, and as Chidzero (1977) said: "it was underpinned and sustained by the education system." (4) The duality and the function of the system were intended to be complementary to and consistent with the aims of the society at large. After all, it is now widely recognised that "education systems shape and are sharped by and respond more readily to their socio-economic environments. As Faure (1972) said:

> "Education, being a sub-system of society, necessarily reflects the main features of that society. It would be vain to hope for a rational, human education in an unjust society." (5)

Black nationalists argued that the Rhodesian education system went beyond that. Not only was its racial structure a response to institutionalised racial segregation, but even its contents were deliberately designed to prepare black and white children for their predetermined slots in life. In short, there were two unequal education systems with entirely different aims and purposes.

Ironically black nationalists failed to observe that African education rarely followed the direction prescribed by successive white minority governments of Rhodesia. It took a different course determined largely by Africans' perceptions of education and what they saw as its role in the new socio-economic set-up and the new occupational structure emerging in Zimbabwe. In other words, Africans responded by seeking the types of education which would reward them in ways demanded by the occupational structure. As a consequence black education in Zimbabwe resisted efforts to make it different than white education. Gradually, over time it became a poor mimic of the English based white system.

(2) Control of Education

The groundwork for education was laid by missionaries. The rudiments of a formal school were established by the London Missionary Society at Inyati in 1859. This was but a humble beginning of what was to become an extensive involvement of missionary societies in the provision of formal education for both blacks and whites with the establishment of Southern Rhodesia. The missionaires set up their schools in places relatively near nodes of European settlement since protection and security were a priority in those early days. Their most concentrated educational efforts were consequently found in parts of the country near 'forts' e.g. Fort Victoria, Salisbury, Bulawayo and Umtali. It is also important to remember that the type of education provided for Africans depended on the policy and religious principles of the particular missionary society, its financial resources and its relationship with the government and the local population. Ironically, the patterns of missionary involvement form the roots of present-day regional disparities in the provision of education.

Direct government praticipation in and involvement with the control and administration came with the enactment of the Education Ordinance of 1899. This Ordinance led to the establishment of the grants-in-aid system and the Education Department to administer it. The Education Department, however, was at the time charged principally with the oversight of European Schools. As a result, European education which was later to include Asian and Coloured education, was developed and administered along completely different lines from African education. Suffice to say, European education was generously, if not lavishly, provided for mainly by public funds and enriched by private and missionary resources. It was directed at the establishment of compulsory and free education based on non-sectarian links within a political, economic and social context in which white children were predestined to assume a priviliged position in life. O'Callaghan (1977) quotes a Mr. Cleveland as having said that education for Europeans must be both compulsory and free because "Any other policy ... must encourage the growth of class distinctions among the European community since there would be a stigma attached to the child whose parents could not afford to pay fees; such distinctions must have a weakening effect in a new country, where the European minority needed all the cohesion and initiative which it could master." (6)

On the other hand, the responsibility for providing African education was left largely to the missionary societies who could not afford to be financially independent of the government even if they wished to be. The result was inevitable: the missionaries eventually became dependent on government aid, provided through the grants -in-aid system. This made the missionaries, willing or unwilling, subordinate to the philosophy of the government and its overall plans for education. The substance of this relationship, as the Kerr Commission (1951) observed later was that,

> "Government was able to use the grant-in-aid system to impose a minimum standard on mission schools and to

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some extent regulate their growth." (7)

The government's plan was to set up separate educational arrangements for Africans. A separate Native Education Department was set up in 1928. It was, however, renamed as the Department of Native Development the following year for it was then expanded to include agriculture and community development. This department was dissolved in 1933 and succeeded by the National Affairs Department. As a result education came under the Native Affairs Department.

A department of Native Education was eventually created in 1956. Although this was the time of the Federation, there were no fundamental changes in the control or administration of education. In fact, the Federal constitution of 1953 reinforced the separate administrative divisions of African and European education. The former remained a territorial matter, whilst the latter came under Federal control.

Throughout the period (1890-1956), the successive white minority regimes willingly controlled, but reluctantly aided African education preferring to leave its provision in the hands of missionaries.

However, during this period the foundation for direct government assistance to African education was laid. In 1920 and 1921, the government opened two specialised African training schools, Domboshawa and Tjolotjo. Also the year 1945 was a significant year for African education. Four government primary schools were opened in urban areas and the first government secondary school, Goromonzi, was opened in 1946.[4] On the other hand, by 1950, the missions had established five African Secondary schools.

The government accepted full responsibility for African education in urban areas after the Kerr Commission Report (1951-52). But it must also be realised that the government controlled the number of African adults who could move into urban areas and, therefore also the number of African children who could attend schools in these areas. The government shaped and used its legal weapon, the Land Apportionment Act, later known as the Land Tenure Act, to control rural to urban migration and access to government schools.

Far greater changes in the control and administration of flowed out of the Judges Commission Report of 1962. The Report recommended the expansion of government responsibilities in African education but without departing from the dual education system. At that time the government provided African education in urban areas. Since government schools were cheaper than those run by rural mission schools, this was sighted by the Commission as one of the reasons for the "flight" of children from the African areas to the urban centres.

During U.D.I.[8] (1965-1979), the government embarked on a policy of transferring African education from Missions to "responsible" community boards and councils, themselves politically controlled by the central government. These community boards and councils would, through community taxation, contributed a greater share of the financing of African education than had been possible with mission committees.

By 1970 there was a plethora of different kinds of African schools. These included Government, Government-sponsored, Mission, Community (aided and unaided), Council (aided and unaided) and Farm Schools. The aim of the government during the period of U.D.I. was not to place direction and control of African education in African hands, but to maintain the dual system using different mechanisms. The author of this new policy of community development and local government, Roger Bowman (1945) had referred to:

"the need to work through groups, build up new groups around the individual, use them as the machinery of social control". (9) The central government retained the right to grant or withdraw licences to establish educational institutions and the educational requirements imposed by the system of examinations. Further the curriculu and inspection of schools kept them under tight government control.

The administration complexity within African education and between black and white education has contributed in no small measur to the problems faced by the present government as it struggles to expand, rationalize and simplify the system under a set of democrati rational policy objectives.

(3) Policy in Education

The government and missionaries stressed different purposes of education for black and white children. Both were agreed on the purpose of European education: initially, it was intended to inculcate the moral principles on which Britain (and South Africa) were based and to minimise ethnic tensions among the European settlers as well as providing the general educational base for advanced technical and professional skills development. These aims were gradually refined and expanded, particularly as Rhodesia distanced itself from Britain. The result was a high standard of education for white children consistent with their privileged position in society. One spokesman quoted by Atkinson (1972), was blunt but honest about it:

> "It is absolutely essential ... that the superior race should at least in every case receive a superior education to the inferior race." (10)

The education of Africans was intended from the beginning to serve two purposes: to facilitate conversion to Christianity and to give Africans the training that they required to fulfill European needs for African labour especially in agriculture, mining and industry. As a consequence, the majority of African pupils were permitted to have a primary level education - which was often incomplete and the secondary and other higher levels of education

were reserved for the chosen few who would be permitted to enter the formal economy as unskilled and semi-skilled workers. The government policy and rationale rested on the assumption that:

> "The native in his ignorance, almost invariably abuses a purely "book" education, utilising it only as a means of defying authority and oppressing his raw fellows." (11)

Therefore according to the Native Commissioner of Bubi,

"More good would be done to the natives if the missions confined themselves chiefly to industrial work and made book learning optional." (12)

These aims were reinforced by the British Government policy for African education. The 1925 memorandum on education stated:

> "Education should be adapted to the mentality, aptitudes, occupations and traditions of the various peoples, conserving as far as possible all sound and healthy elements in the fabric of their social life adapting them where necessary to changed circumstances and progressive ideas as an agent of natural growth and evolution." (13)

The aims and objectives of the white minority were also aided by the Phelps-Stokes Commission from America which was concerned with education in West, South and Equatorial Africa. Its Chairman, Thomas Jesse Jones, visited Southern Rhodesia early in 1921. The first Report of 1922 proved to be so useful to the British Colonial office that another Commission was sent out to East, Central and South Africa and reported in 1925. The Phelps-Stokes Commissions stressed the need for mass education, to serve what they saw as the needs of the African people: to keep in touch with the indigenous culture of their tribe, to provide them with the elements of good agriculture and good hygiene, and to give them training in simple crafts and home economics. The institutions that they felt Africa needed were schools of agriculture and industry like the Hampton Institute and the Tuskegee Institute in America.

The Southern Rhodesian Native Department did not have to modify its approach to education in accordance with Phelps-Stokeism. Men like Keigwin and J.J. Graham had been advocating similar approaches since 1910. Keigwin was convinced that agricultural and industrial training were needed for Africans in southern Rhodesia. This would give them a practical education for daily life, a good source of livelihood and fit them "for their own self-development."(14)

However, the Phelps- Stokes Commission and the successive white minority governments failed to take into account a number of important considerations. First, they ignored some of the realities of occupational structure in colonial times. Second, they misunderstood the objectives and social functions of formal education and purposes for which it was being utilised by Africans. Third, they underestimated their own significance as a normative reference group. (15) Fourth, they did not seek African opinion.

The African response to the education provided in Rhodesia followed a pattern not too dissimilar to most other colonized people. At first there was an attitude of indifference towards education. This was understandable because education did not at first seem to offer any real advantages to those who had got it. A number of those who had acquired it could speak and read English and their own language, but they were not paid for it and they still had to cultivate the land like everyone else. Indifference soon faded away, especially after the First World War when some people began to reap substantial financial rewards from their education by working as teachers, policemen and domestic servants.

But the immediate post-Second World War period was a watershed of African demand for education. New socio-economic conditions set into motion trends in educational demand which have persisted to this day. In short, they triggered an unprecedented demand for education by Africans, which previous governments satisfied up to the end of the 1950's and which the present and future governments will be hard pressed to satisfy. The changes in the socio-economic structure, drifting decidely towards increased industrialisation, were accompanied by a requisite demand for literate labourers. As a result, the low-level industrial and agricultural education of the past, which is uncannily similar to current government emphasis on "Education with Production", were, and are at odds with Africans' demand for an academic education. African parents, therefore, did not send their children to school so as to meet the needs of agricultural or rural development, or to get education for its own sake but they sent them there to maximise their childrens opportunities within the emerging high-skilled, better rewarding occupational and prestige structure created by the new socio-economic conditions of a modern Zimbabwe. The challenge in the post-independence period will be to broaden the traditional concepts of education to give greater prestige and value to employment opportunities in rural and less developed areas. The danger is that these efforts will be rejected as old wine cast in new bottles.

Some Concluding Remarks on the Historical Perspective

In the light of this historical perspective, it is possible to make some preliminary remarks on issues which have far reaching implications for policy makers. Furthermore, it is useful to question some popular educational fallacies which have often been taken for fact in current discussions about education.

Fallacy one:

There is a widely prevalent fallacy concerning the structure, content and methodology of Rhodesian education which as often been used as a justification for educational reform. This is the view that, because Zimbabwe is a former British colony, it has a colonial education system modelled along the lines of Britis

The realities of the education systems of both countries contradict this. To start with, there is no uniform British education system. The educational system in England has a unique type of diversity which is totally missing from the former Rhodesian education system.

In England, schools are the responsibility of the Secretary for Education and Science, who is responsibile for securing "effective execution" of the "national policy." But he does not control schools directly. Similarly, he does not control the content of the curriculum or prescribe text books. This does not mean that the Secretary does not have great power if he chooses to use it, both in matters of emergency and of routine. He can give directions to an authority acting "unreasonably"; he may have to act as an arbiter in disputes and he can also call for any information. But in the normal course of events, the Secretary acts mostly as a check point rather than as an initiator.

The style of the system is generally determined by Local Education Authorities. They decide on size and general organisation of schools. They prescribe the level of textbook allowances. They decide on the scale of in-service training, how many local advisers and inspectors to employ. They also control appointments to school governing and managing bodies.

Teachers have a great deal of professional freedom; and schools vary depending as much on the personality of the Head teacher and staff as the area pupils come from.

Southern Rhodesian schools were far removed this set-up. They were based on a top-down centralised control of the educational system. In fact, the system was "Rhodesianised".

Fallacy Two:

The duality of the former Rhodesian education system is also misleading. Structurally, there was duality, but it tended to disguise the multiplicity of sub-systems within each of the main divisions.
An over-emphasis on this dual-education analysis would suggest tha the former African education system should be modernised along the lines of the European education system.

This would be a disaster because the country cannot afford it. Real progress seems to be in analysing the various invisible sub-systems underlying what were formerly known as the African and European education systems and giving them a new path of development in the context of present socio-economic and political realities.

This historical perspective has shown that education policies, especially on the content of the curriculum have always been made "at the top." Past experience has proved that educational policy makers, even well intentional ones were often too distanced from

the people to appreciate their real needs and wants. As a result, most educational reforms have rarely produced the desired results.

Moreover, there is a danger that educational policies become self-serving to justify the administrative system set-up to enforce them rather than the client population they serve. This particularly troublesome in Zimbabwe where historically there has been little or no involvement of the African population in education policy formulation. In short, there is a critical need to involve a cross-section of people including educational administrators, school heads, teachers, ordinary citizens, and parents in education policy making. Through such a bottom-up approach may emerge a better understanding and basis for an educational system to serve the objectives of an independent Zimbabwe. While such an approach to policy formulation does not in and of itself guarantee success, it does minimise the likelihood that Africans will perceive government efforts to focus on rural development as yet another attempt to deny blacks access to the modern sectors of the economy.

II. An Outline of the Education System

Legal Basis, Control and Administrative Aspects

The legal basis of the present education system is the 1979 Education Act and the 1981 Education Amendment Act. The 1979 Act repealed the earlier Education Act and the African Education Act, and the 1981 Amendment Act altered some provisions of the 1979 Act. The 1979 Education Act was a landmark in the development of the present education system. Among its beneficial aspects were the unification of the dual education system of Rhodesia, partial abolition of racial discrimination in education, the consolidation of administration under a Minister and Secretary of Education, creation of a unified teaching service, and provision for the establishment of a National Education Advisory Board, Regional Boards and School Advisory Councils. Much of the attention on this Act has been focused on its negative aspects, such as the "Community Schools" and the institution of broad pay disparities among teachers.

The 1979 Act divided schools into three main categories, namely: Government schools, community schools and Independent or Private schools.

Community Schools

The "Community School" was the new concept embodied in the 1979 Education Act. These schools were a very controversial issue at their birth in 1978 and have remained so ever since. The controversy was not on the "community school" concept as such, but on the "Zimbabwe-Rhodesian" government's interpretation of this well known concept. (16) By the time of independence in 1980 there were 48 community and another 4 were in the pipeline.

The Community schools were former government primary or secondary schools which were purchased at a price agreed upon between the government and either the community or group of parents which wished to buy the school. However, schools were rarely bought for their real market value. Some well established schools were sold at a price of a modest house in a Salisbury middle income residential area. (17)

The community school was run by a Board, which would "determine" which persons may be enrolled as pupils at any community school, in respect of which it is established."(18) On the surface these schools were non-racial since,"the Board shall not ... refuse to enroll any person on the grounds of race or colour alone."(19) However, the Act went on to state..." provided that in determining the persons who may be enrolled as pupils the Board shall have regard to religious, cultural identify"(20)...

Although the community had control over admission policy, each registered community school continued to be subsidized by the government through a grant from the ministry "in respect of accommodation for each pupil who boards at the school.... and shall not be less than 75 per centum of an amount representing the difference between the fee charged for a pupil to board for the school year concerned at a Group A government primary school or a Group A government secondary school"...(21)

The Minister of Education and Culture, Dr. Mutumbuka, introduced the new Education Amending Bill on 4 February 1981. Its main purpose was to withdraw government support from community schools, because:

> "We find the concept of community schools as they are presently constituted abhorrent, unacceptable and contrary to the principles we espouse." (22) The Minister then went on to say that, the government was not opposed to "community" schools as such. What was totally unacceptable in relation to the type of community schools for which provision was made in the Education Act, was that it involved the acquisition of government property, both moveable and immovable, in order to establish a facility for the benefit of only a certain, small section of a privileged community who could afford to pay high fees and whose children the Board of Governors was prepared to admit. In other words, it was a bastion of privilege, rather than a facility from which all would benefit.(23) Therefore, the existing community school boards were asked "to give up their community status and to open negotiations for the return of the schools to government control."(24)

To date, not all community schools have given-up their community status. Ultimately the matter will likely have to be settled in the courts, since the debate on the 1981 Amendement Act has raised a constitutional issue. The Boards of Governors

of the community schools and white members of parliament have argued that the 1981 amendment is an infringement on some of their rights guaranteed by the Lancaster House Agreement. For example, Chapter III, Section 20, subsection (3) of the Constitution of Zimbabwe-Rhodesia states that:

> "No religious denomination and nor person or group of persons shall be prevented from establishing and maintaining schools, whether or not that denomination, person or group is in receipt of any subsidy, grant or other form of financial assistance from the State."(25)

But then sub-section (4) states

> "Nothing contained in or done under the authority of any law shall be held to be in contravention of sub-section (3) to the extent that the law in question makes provision-for regulating such schools in the interests of persons receiving instruction there-in."(26)

The outcome of this legal and political controversy will have important implications for the control and administration of schools in Zimbabwe.

Government schools

Government schools are divided into three categories: Group A, Group B, and Group C.

Group A schools are government primary and secondary schools which were exclusively for European, Asian and Coloured children. Most are located in the former European suburbs. They operate on a zoning system, so that only children whose parents live in the designated area can attend a particular school:

> "The Secretary shall, with the approval of the Public Services Board, in relation to every Group A government school, specify an area for the purposes of determining... the children who may enroll at such schools, and may specify different areas in respect of boarders and day scholars."(27)

Another stipulation for Group A schools is that the parents must either own or rent the houses they occupy. In practice, this excludes the children of domestic servants from attending these schools.

Despite the new political climate, these discriminatory provisions of education legislation have not been repealed. Ironically, the government has found them to be a convenient constraint on rural to urban migration. For this reason, it has moved cautiously towards removing them.

Group B schools are in essence African government primary and secondary schools located in the former townships. Historically, there have not been enough of these schools to serve these communities. As a consequence there has been considerable inter-township movement of school children.

Group C are any government schools in the Communal lands (formerly Tribal Trust Lands). Although the law made a provision for government schools in communal areas, this meant nothing in reality given the absence of such schools.

Private Schools

Private schools include mission schools, council schools, farm schools, town and rural council schools. In the past, they catered for more than 80% of all school children in the country and accounted for 90% of all schools. With the current rapid expansion at the primary level, particularly in rural areas, the number of these schools continues to grow. Thus, there is little likelihood that their relative share of enrollment and schools will change significantly in the near future.

Under the provisions of the 1979 Education Act, registered Private Schools were entitled to a government grant "in respect of tuition for each pupil enrolled at the school by the tenth day after the date of commencement of the teaching period in the school year concerned," and "in respect of accommodation for each pupil so enrolled who boards at a registered private secondary school." (28) Also, "The minister shall ... make a grant to the responsible authority of every registered private school equivalent to the aggregate of the salaries of teachers employed at the school." (29)

It should be noted here that Private schools are in reality "community schools". Most were built by local communities, using local materials and human resources. The main difference is that these schools were not specifically created to maintain racial segregation. Furthermore, they were not former government schools which had been converted to private status in anticipation of independence. The fact that the government has encouraged communities to assume greater responsibility for schools clearly indicates support for private schools. Thus, the main issue surrounding the "community schools" founded as a result of the 1979 Act is their flagrant effort to perpetuate racial segregation.

The Internal Structure

Formal education in Zimbabwe is divided into three levels: Primary, secondary and higher education. Pre-school education is not yet provided and organised by the government, hence it usually involves high fees and largely in private hands. The Ministry of Women's Affairs and Community Development has recently assumed responsibility for pre-school education. UNICEF has provided the ministry with a grant to assist it to promote pre-school education.

Each of the three official levels within the education system will be looked at in turn.

Primary Education

Primary education is free but not compulsory. Parents are, however, required to pay a General Purposes fee which varies according to grade and school type. In addition, parents have to buy uniforms.

The advent of political independence in 1980 led to a profound change in enrolment patterns. In 1979 819,586 children were in primary school. By 1982, the number was 1,25,300. The greatest increases occurred in 1980 and 1981 when enrolments increased from 1,235,994 to 1,715 169. (See Table I)

Enrolment in Grade one in 1980 was 217,5% more than 1979, an increase of 204,300 pupils. The 1981 figure for enrolment at Grade one shows an increase of 95,100 on the 1980 figure which is 2.7 times more than the 1979 figure.

The number of school children grows more rapidly than the number of schools. In 1979 there were 2,401 primary schools. This number had increased to 4,012 in 1982. Some of the children, particularly in urban areas, were therefore absorbed by schools which had introduced "hot seating"or double session arrangements.

Although these increases represent a dramatic improvement in overall primary enrolment, they have not occurred uniformly. Thus important disparities exist in access to primary education, partic - larly between and within the six provinces. The lack of adequate data prevents a more thorough assessment of these disparities. However, before independence, formal education was compulsory for all European, Coloured and Asian children between the ages of 6 and 16. As a result, there were virtually no drop-outs among this segment of the population. Furthermore, European, Asian and Coloured children did not write an exaination at the end of primary school. Enrolment at the secondary level was automatic.

The circumstances were and still are completely different for black children. Riddell (1980) says that before independence about 75% of all black children began primary school. Riddell further adds that 45% dropped-out and only 34% of the population or school age cohort completed primary education. Riddell concentrated on average national figures and ignored the very considerable disparities within and between regions.

In 1982, there are 1 925 330 pupils in primary school. The average number of pupils per primary class at the national level is 41,9. However, there are rather significant variations within and between regions and by different types of schools. For example, Private and Government Group B schools have average primary classes of 41,7 and 48,1 respectively, and the Group A schools have 29.9. The optimum figure for the government is 40 pupils per class.

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Distribution of Primary Schools

At Independence in 1980 there were 2401 State and Private primary schools. This total was lower than in 1978 when there were 2961 schools. The difference reflected the schools closed or destroyed during the war. The extent of the destruction and disruption of education during the war and the magnitude of the task of reconstruction faced by the new government was formidable. The number of schools closed and displaced by end of 1979 is shown in Table 2.

Thus with the phenomenal increase in the primary enrolments, the government's task has been two-fold. The first is the reconstruction,2 800 primary (and secondary) schools and the construction of over 300 new rural primary schools. Since independence, 2434 schools have been reconstructed and a backlog of 366 schools remain. (See Table 3). The number of new rural primary schools built is 317 with 860 new rural primary schools and 200 new urban primary schools needed in the next three years.

There is a need to consider the implications for investments in educational facilities. In the past, the distribution of schools was interlocked and interwoven with the effects of the Land Tenure Act, the processes of evangelisation, and patterns or urbanization and migration which reflected policies of separate development for whites and blacks. Therefore, it is important to take these factors into consideration in the location of schools and strategies to overcome regional and local disparities in access to education. The reconstruction and construction of schools needs to be tied closely with government policies governing economic and demographic patterns of growth.[4] To date the reconstruction program has emphasized their institution of the past. This was understandable in the rush to demonstrate the new government's commitment to rural development. But the time has come to reexamine this policy and to forge a uniform policy for the establishment of educational facilities

Secondary Education

Secondary schools are extremely significant. They are not only terminal institutions for the bulk of the relatively small number of students who enter them in the first place, but they also control access to college and university and the better paying jobs in the modern sector. They are, therefore, the key to people's hopes for social and economic advancement. As such, the government is under pressure to broaden significantly access to secondary education. The six years to complete secondary education for blacks are filled with examinations. For most, failing an examination normally means the end of their educational career. First, there is an internal examination after Form II called the "Junior Certificate of Education," which is followed by the "General Certificate of Education" ('O' level) at the end of Form IV and finally the "Higher School Certificate" examination ('A' level) after From VI.

School places at the secondary level have always been in short supply. In 1979 there were 177 government and private secondary schools for 19,962 pupils. These pupils represented 13.8% of their 144 519 age cohort who entered school in 1972.

This situation has radically changed since Independence. In 1981, enrolment in secondary schools increased from 74,321 in 1980 to 148,690. This represented a 225% expansion. Enrolment reached 218,430 by 1982. This rapid growth was made possible by establishing "Upper Tops", that is, attaching Form I and II classes to existing primary schools, introducing "hot-seating" arrangements in some urban centres and establishing new secondary schools. 446 had been built by the end of 1981.

However, there have been major inequalities and disparities between black and white pupils in the probability of completing secondary education. White pupils had a relatively "smooth" journey until Form IV, on the other hand black pupils travelled on a "hazardous" road marked by an examination after Form II. For example in 1978, 19.8% of the white pupils reached lower sixth, but only 4.4% of the African pupils reached the same level.

At the present time, it is not clear whether it is government policy to eliminate this disparity between whites and blacks. The government seems to be committed to providing 9 years of schooling To what extent it will expand access to post Form II remains to be seen. However, rising expectations could force the government to widen access to "O" and "A" levels prematurely, that is, before it has acquired the necessary resources and before the employment sector increased its absorptive capacity.

Distribution of Secondary Schools

At Independence, Zimbabwe had 177 Government and Private secondary schools. Most of these were located in or near urban centres or commercial farming areas. Since 1980, there has been a fourfold expansion in the number of secondary schools to 694. The distribution by province is given in Table 4.

In both Manicaland and Mashonaland high concentrations of secondary school age population combined with a relatively small area served by secondary schools would argue for government policy to place an emphasis on expanding day secondary schools as opposed to boarding schools. On the other hand, in Matabeleland, while each secondary school serves roughly the same number of secondary age children, the area covered by each school is more than twice that of Manicaland and Mashonaland. Thus, in Matabeleland given the lower density of population, a policy of only promoting day secondary schools is likely to be less satisfactory. In Midlands and Victoria,

the already good distribution of secondary schools and lower population density would justify considerable care where day and boarding schools were located.

Teacher Demand and Supply for Primary and Secondary Schools

The rapid increases in enrolment in the primary and secondary levels are mirrored in the recruitment of significantly more teachers. In 1982, there are 56,567 teachers in primary and secondary schools. This is 2½ times more than the 1979 teaching force of 22017. The breakdown of teachers in the different schools and the teacher-pupil ratios are shown in Table

Both teachers and students are concentrated in Private schools. Private schools have 86% of all the pupils and 83% of all the teachers. In fact there were more primary teachers in Private schools than pupils in Group A primary schools. While the teacher-pupil ratio in Private schools at the primary level is 1½ times higher than the Community and Group A government schools, the ratio is close to the policy of 40 students per teacher. This figure is considerably better than other developing countries with similar per capita income. For example, the ratios for Ethiopia and Tanzania January 1982 were 59 and 58 respectively.

In 1980 there were 28,455 primary school teachers. Out of these, 9.8% had standard qualifications, 62.0% had non-standard qualifications and 28.2% were untrained. In 1981, in the face of a backlog of untrained and underqualified teachers, the government launched a new primary teacher training program, the Zimbabwe Integrated National Teacher Education Course (ZINTEC). With the introduction of ZINTEC and the recruitment of unqualified and retired teachers, a further 11,415 teachers were added to the system.

ZINTEC is the most significant recent development in teacher education in Zimbabwe. ZINTEC has at present 5 Regional Teacher Training Centres, each catering for at least 200 students three simes a year. ZINTEC has the capacity to produce 3 000 "teachers" annually. This capacity far exceeds the annual output from nine traditional primary teacher training colleges of 1,930 per year. What impact ZINTEC will have on conventional teacher education remains to be seen.

Under ZINTEC student teachers go through the program shown below:

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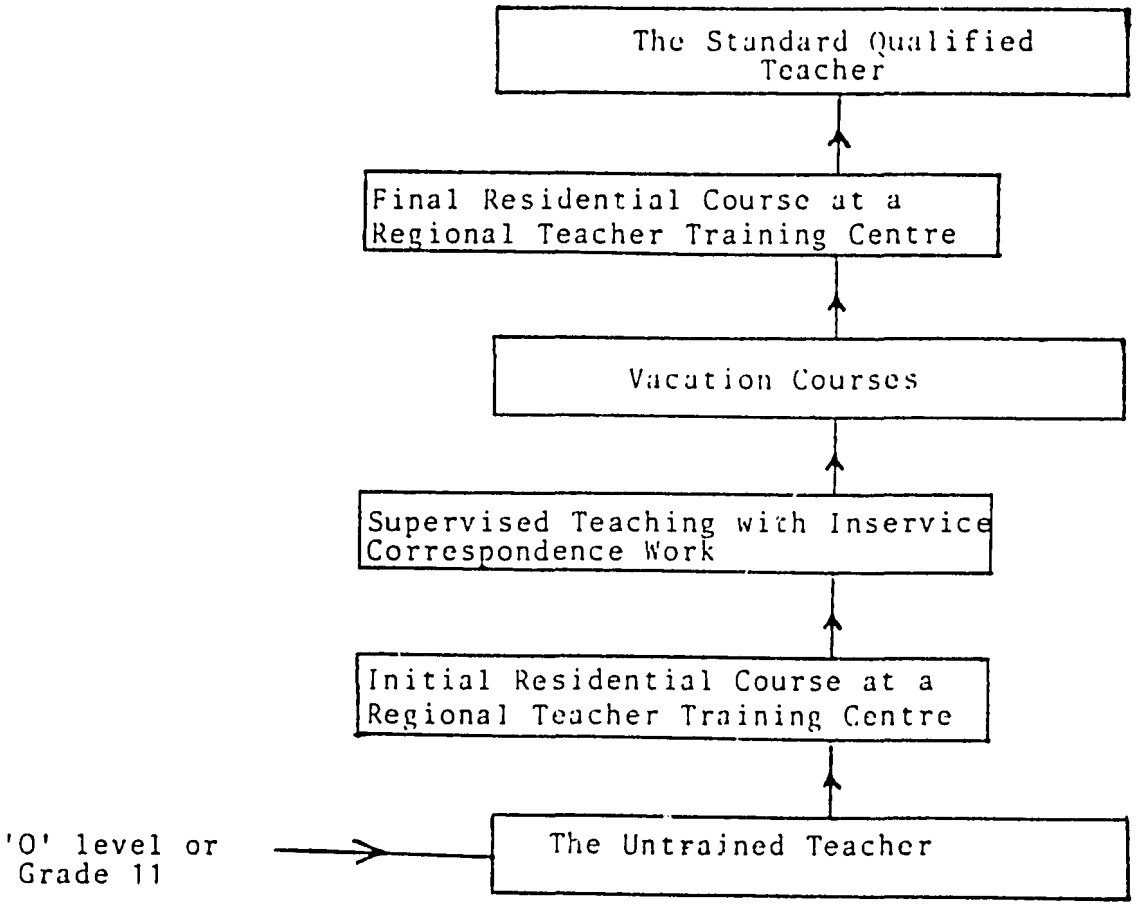
ZINTEC Training Program



The program is expected to cost Z$42.7 million and the anticipated cost of training one teacher is Z$4,314. The cost in the conventional teacher training college is Z$4 500.

The number of secondary teachers in 1979 and 1981 were 3534 and 3730 respectively. In 1981 the number increased to 4 874. By 1982, it had climbed to 8 350.

Unlike the primary level, there has not been acceptance of a ZINTEC type approach to teacher education, although this has been discussed. The University of Zimbabwe proposed a program of intensive training for secondary teachers analogous to ZINTEC. However, to date, shortfall of secondary teachers, the government has actively recruited teachers from other commonwealth countries. In addition the government with USAID assistance is building a 1,200 secondary teachers training college in Salisbury.

There are various types of courses and qualifications for both primary and secondary school training. Primary school teacher training is divided into T(3) Junior and Infants, and T(3) Domestic. Secondary School training is divided into T(1), and T(2) (for academic classes) and T(2) B for technical classes. The University also runs B. Ed courses and one year Post Graduate Certificate in Education which equips students to teach at the secondary level. At present, there are 9 teacher training colleges: one for secondary

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teachers only, seven only primary, and one for both primary and secondary (See Table 5). Together these colleges have the capacity to produce 2 385 teachers a year.

Higher Education

The post-secondary institutions include: the university, polytechnics and technical colleges, colleges of education, colleges of agriculture and institutions for health personnel training. In addition, there are a number of public and private agencies which have training facilities and absorb a significant number of school leavers annually.

The University

Zimbabwe has one university. Total enrollment rose from steadily from 1 355 in 1975 to 1 798 in 1978, but fell sharply to 1 481 in 1979 due to call-up of blacks. The year 1981 saw a sharp rise to 2 525 with the attainment of political independence. The vast majority of university students are enrolled in full-time undergraduate degree programs, 79.8% or 2 464. The breakdown by enrollment in 1982 is shown in Table 6.

The university has nine faculties: Agriculture, Arts, Commerce and Law, Education, Engineering, Medicine, Science, Social Studies and Veterinary Science. The distribution of full-time students enrolled in undergraduate programs is shown in Table

Undergraduates make-up 79.8% of the 1982 university student enrollment. However, 48.7% of the undergraduates are enrolled in two faculties, namely, Commerce and Law and Social Studies. The distribution of students by race is also significant. But the university no longer provides a racial breakdown. In 1981, 69% of the black students were enrolled in three faculties: Arts, Commerce and Law and Social Studies. On the other hand, most Asian, Coloured, and White students were enrolled in Medicine, and Commerce and Law. The percentages were 82 and 68 respectively.

Polytechnics and Technical Colleges

There are three polytechnics in Zimbabwe. One is in Harare, another in Bulawayo and a third in KweKwe. Smaller private owned, but government monitored technical colleges also exist in Harare and Bulawayo and the other urban centres such as Gweru and Mutare. In addition, the Ministry of Manpower, Planning and Development plans to set-up five more technical colleges. These would attend to specific manpower development requirements or to a particular set of industrial and agricultural skills. Thus Gweru will be used for

the training of former combatants; Mutare is to be set aside for forestry and petrol-chemical industry training; Chinhoyi, agricultural technology; Hwange, mining and Lowveld, sugar and ethanol technology. And Dr. Mandaza, the Permanent Secretary in the Ministry of Manpower Planning and Development calculated that, "All these should increase the overall annual enrollment (in technical colleges) to almost 10 000 by 1985".

Harare Polytechnic (HP) and Bulawayo Technical College (BTC) offer courses in Adult Education, Business and Administration, Hotel Keeping and Catering, Automative Engineering, Civil Engineering, Construction, Electrical Engineering, Electronics, Mechanical Engineering, Science, Telecommunications, Town Planning and Printing. The KweKwe Technical College, (provided by Union Carbide Company), has enrolled its first intake of 200 automotive, mechanical and electrical engineering apprentices. Entrance requirements to the courses are high: good GCE-'O' level passes in English, Mathematics and a Science subject.

As shown by Table 7 HP and BTC enrolled 8921 students in 1981. This was 3.5 times more students than the university. Yet both colleges did not enroll to their full capacity. Planned expansion at technical colleges is constrained especially by a scarcity of financial resources and acute staff shortages. Staff shortages result from a high turn-over and immigration of whites.

Apprenticeship Training

This is an important avenue for higher education. Apprenticeship training is administered by the Ministry of Manpower Planning and Development through the Apprenticeship Training and Skilled Manpower Development Authority. As a result of close cooperation among ministries, parastatals and the private sector, a considerable number of apprentices receive training at the technical colleges through the block release sandwich system. At present there are seven trades in which training is offered:

Aircraft Industry
Building Industry
Electrical Industry
Hairdressing Trade
Mechanical Engineering Industry
Motor Industry
Printing Industry.

The extent of the contribution of the Apprenticeship training program in recent years and its possible future contribution can be seen in Table 8.

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Apprenticeship training has, however, as a result of racial discrimination practices, been monopolised by Europeans, Asians and Coloureds. At independence, out of 14 000 journeymen in the aircraft, building, electrical, mechanical engineering, automative and printing industries, only 500 were Africans. Needless to say, this situation is being rectified.

Agricultural Colleges

There are two agricultural colleges (Chibero and Gwebi) and two institutes (Mlezu and Esigodini) in Zimbabwe. Rio Tinto (a private foundation) has established a third agricultural institute at Empress mine. In addition, the university offers a three-year degree course in Agriculture.

The two colleges offer a two-year diploma level course. The minimum entry requirements is passes in five 'O' level subjects, which must include mathematics and a science subject. In addition, students are required to have a full year's practical working experience prior to enrolling. Although both colleges are now multiracial, Gwebi intake has historically been white and Chibero's black. The number of diplomas awarded to date (as at 31st September 1981) can be seen on Table 9.

The minimum entry requirements at the institutes (including Rio Tinto) is a Junior School Certificate (Form II or Grade 9). But competition for places limits entry to Grade 11 (Form 4) students. They offer a three year course, leading to a certificate in agriculture.

Enrollment at the two colleges and two institutes in 1981 was 362 and it is 332 in 1982. The drop-out rate at the institutes has increased as student leave for the better paid and expanded teachers training colleges. However, the overall output from the agriculture institutions is rather low, considering the importance of agriculture to the national economy and rural development. The projected outputs to 1985 are shown in Table 9.

Health Training

Health training is pursued at three levels in Zimbabwe: University, diploma and certificate qualifications. The university offers a 6-year degree course in medicine and a 3-year degree course in pharmacy. However, because of the high entry requirements, medical students commence in second year. As shown by Table 6 there are at present 365 full-time undergraduate and postgraduate students in the medical faculty. And 42.5% of the medical students are black.

The training of diplomates is the responsibility of the Ministry of Health. Courses are offered in Radiography (diagnostic and therapeutic), Laboratory Technology, Community Nursing, Nursing Administration, Nursing Education, Health Education, Operating Theatre Nursing, Intensive Care Nursing, Anesthetic Nursing, Psychiatric Nursing and Advanced Clinical Nursing. All the diploma courses in nursing are post basic training.

Training for the certificate level courses is done by the Ministry of Health and by mission hospitals. The most important categories (as far as higher education facilities are concerned) are, the State Registered Nurses, Health Assistants and Medical Assistants.

The 3-year course for State Registered Nurses is offered at four hospital schools: Bulawayo Central Hospital, Harare Central Hospital, Mpilo Central Hospital and Parirenyatwa Hospital, (see Table 10 and Chart 2. The minimum entry requirements is 5 'O' level passes. Due to competition, the trainees usually have very high qualifications, including 'A' levels. There are usually three intakes per year and in 1981 there were 1 000 trainees enrolled in the four hospital schools. The average annual output is over 200 nurses.

The 3-year course for medical assistants is offered at 25 registered schools, the majority of which are operated by mission stations. The average annual output is 150. Health assistants are trained at Domboshawa Training School. A 3-year course is offered and the minimum entry requirements is 3 'O' level passes. The average annual output is 30.

III. A Summary of the Main Issues and Problems caused by Educational Expansion

Judged by these increases in enrolments and number of schools, and against the entire history of educational development in Rhodesia, Zimbabwe has made very impressive progress. Two years after independence, Zimbabwe has almost universalised primary education and widened access to secondary and higher education.

Whilst it may be tempting to ignore the problems overshadowed by this initial success, there is no doubt that Zimbabwe could face some serious problems in the future resulting from this expansion. Essentially, these problems center on the maladjustment between the education system and its socio-economic environment.(30) These problems are:

(1) the gap between education supply and demand,
(2) the gap between resources and requirements,
(3) the imbalances between education outputs and employment opportunities, and
(4) the "irrelevance" of educational content and methods.

Each of these problems is discussed below.

The Gap Between Educational Supply and Demand

Despite the attainment of nearly 100% enrolment of primary school aged children, Zimbabwe will have to struggle merely to stand and to maintain the present enrolment rates. There are many reasons for this, ranging from the sheer size of the school age population, to the question of finance.

The growth of Zimbabwe's population has been as dramatic as the spectacular recent expansions of the education system. At a rate of growth between 3.6% and 4.2%, the population doubles itself in less than 20 years. Since this is a compound rate of growth, the time required to double is decreasing, rather than increasing. By the end of this century, in 18 years, Zimbabwe will have more than 14 million people.

Zimbabwe is a country of young people. In the 1980 population estimates 61.5% of its population was under 19. Half of these were in the pre-school age group, under five years of age. A Mr. Birdwood (1981) calculated that Zimbabwe needs 792 new schools and almost 20 000 teachers in the next three to cater for these school age cohorts. (31)

Caught between rising demand and limited resources, the government has been able to cope in the short run by spreading the available resources thinner and thinner over more and more pupils. The results concealed by rising enrolment statistics in the light of very limited

resources are likely to be high drop-out and repeater rates, and a widespread erosion of educational quality.

The Gap Between Resources and Requirements

Total educational revenue and expenditure were stagnant in the past. This stagnation came to a dramatic end in 1981. 1979, education's share of GNP was 4.3%. By 1981 it was 7.9%. a proportion of the national budget, education grew from 10.5 to 16.4% over this same period. Thus educational expenditure is growing faster than the national economy and the national budget. In view of other pressing national needs (such as agriculture, housing, rural development, health and transport), education cannot go on indefinitely getting an expanding share of the national economy pie without seriously depriving these sectors of needed resources.

Education is a labour-intensive industry with a relatively static technology, in competition for highly qualified manpower with less labour intensive enterprises whose technology is advancing, and whose productivity and real wages are also rising. Sooner or later, education is forced to match the rising wage rates of these competitors even though its own productivity is not rising. This spells increased real costs per student, even if quality remains unchanged.

The Zimbabwean education system is postponing the day of reckoning by stretching its resources thinner. So far, it has kept down costs per student by employing more unqualified teachers, by filling some classrooms to overflow levels, and by purchasing fewer textbooks and other learning aids. But there are limits to these routes. In long run, the central issue is how to get better educational results from available resources or put another way, how to improve the efficiency and productivity of schools while minimizing the cost per student and the rate at which the educational budget increases as national resources increase.

Imbalances Between Educational Outputs and Employment Opportunities

The imbalance between supply and demand on the input side of the education is matched on the output side by imbalances of several sorts between the end products of education and the manpower needs and absorptive capacity of the economy. Unemployment is a real problem most urban areas and the problem is exarcebated each year by the entry of school leavers into the labour force. Concealed under-employment and unemployment also exist in the rural areas where school-leavers are mostly idle except for brief peak agricultural periods.

The linear expansion of education in Zimbabwe has a further detrimental effect on the employment opportunities of primary school graduates. Since the secondary level cannot absorb all the Grade seven primary school children, primary education will likely remain in the near future a terminal point for the majority of young people. These children, aged 12-13 are forced to look for employment at a very

early age. Their age makes them too young for conventional employment. As a result they may wait 2-4 years before employers consider them for employment. By this time many will have lost the skills mastered at school. For example, John Simmons (1976) found that the length of time that had elapsed since the individual had left school was an important factor in the gain or less of cognitive abilities. (32)

The education system acts as a convenient means of screening people for employment in the modern sectors. As the supply of educated people increases employers demand higher and higher academic qualifications. As a consequence, jobs for primary graduates decrease as secondary graduate gradually take jobs formerly filled by primary graduates. This in turn puts on pressure for secondary chool education. As the job market becomes saturated with secondary school graduates, the emphasis will shift from an ordinary to a higher or better secondary school certificate.

At present, both local and overseas educated university graduates are readily taking up jobs and replacing Europeans in the Public sector and private sectors. However, the gap between the loss of skilled manpower and its supply from immigration or local labour sources is still far short of what is required, particularly in the technical fields and in nursing.

Many people assume that the jobs left by white emigrants will be filled by the returning "educated Zimbabweans." The fact is that all htese jobs are not being filled by local and foreign graduates. The fields where the needs are greatest are fields where black enrolment has been extremely limited. Furthermore, there is a mismatch between the skills, or rather the academic qualifications which these graduates possess, and the job requirements.

The "Irrelevance" of Educational Content and Methods

The maladjustment mentioned so far can be defined largely in quantitative terms, that is, too much of one thing relative to another, such as, too much demand for education and too few places, and too many school leavers and too few jobs. But there are also maladjustments which are qualitative. These relate to what is learned, how it is taught and its relationship with the needs of the society it is supposed to serve.

A frustrated educational reformer once quipped that it is harder to move a curriculum than a graveyard. (33) This may or may not be an exaggeration, but in Zimbabwe, the content of the curriculum and the methods of conveying it to the learners have lagged behind changes in society and the quantitative expansion in education. The education system has grown enormously, but it still looks very much lik its former self, only larger.

This criticism, however, should not be overdrawn. Normally, curriculum changes, lag behind quantitative expansions. In Zimbabwe, policy makers have discussed curriculum ideas such as "education with

production" and "education for self-reliance." These are by no means new themes for they sound very reminiscent of earlier discussions of the Phelps-Stokes Commission and the justification for establishing F(2) secondary schools for blacks.

Conclusion

Some Policy Implications

What implications do these trends have for present and future education policy?

1. Even if one accepts that education is a basic human right then is no intrinsic reason why the provision of education should be free anymore than provision of medical care. The payment of educational costs needs to be carefully re-examined. There are two aspects of this re-examination. First, it should take into account both peoples ability and willingness to pay for education and society's limitation to do so. Second, the relationship between who pays for education and who benefits needs to be studied. Through both analyses, a fair equitable system of paying for education could be designed.

The policy implications of such studies will likely be that the government should pursue selective policies of educational subsidisation and not "across-the-board" funding. In its rush to provide "free education" on an extensive scale, Government not only funds the more affluent segments of the population, but it also turns-off the very source of self-help and cooperative effort that are at the heart of self-reliance.

2. In years ahead, whether Zimbabwe succeeds or fails in the education sector will largely depend on what happens at the secondary and post secondary levels. It is these levels where the per student cost are highest and the closer ties between education and work exist.

The high cost of secondary and post secondary education combined with relatively low student faculty ratio creates considerable potential for improved efficiency.

3. Finally there is a need to involve communities and local government more directly in the educational decision making process. For example, it would be extremely constructive to know how communities would allocate public resources if given an opportunity to make choices between schools and clinics on the one hand and income generating activities on the other.

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ZIMBABWE: PRIMARY AND SECONDARY ENROLMENT

1965-1982
(in 000's)

	1965	1970	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
imary:										
ade I/Infants 1	125.7	139.5	168.9	170.0	174.6	163.5	173.1	376.4	471.5	406.9
ade 2/Infants 2	114.1	122.7	154.1	155.1	155.1	144.9	142.7	207.9	375.2	426.8
ade 3/Standard 1	110.3	116.1	140.4	141.9	141.6	130.5	125.9	170.4	299.9	358.6
ade 4/Standard 2	98.6	103.5	125.6	125.6	124.5	114.9	110.8	144.7	285.7	227.6
ade 5/Standard 3	94.7	99.2	110.7	114.4	111.9	102.1	99.3	126.0	162.5	186.6
ade 6/Standard 4	50.2	67.0	89.0	92.7	97.6	89.5	88.1	112.9	148.8	166.3
ade 7/Standard 4	41.8	53.8	74.3	84.0	85.9	82.1	77.9	97.1	140.7	151.8
ecial Classes	29.5*	8.6*	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5	0.6	0.9	0.7
ded community lasses	9.2	0.7	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	-		
tal Primary		711.1	864.4	885.2	892.7	829.7	819.4	1 236.0	1 715.2	1 925.3
condary										
ade 8/ Form 1	10.6	16.0	19.7	20.1	19.6	18.9	20.0	22.2	84.0	90.6
ade 9/ Form 2	8.6	15.0	18.8	18.9	17.7	17.7	18.1	27.1	26.3	76.9
ade 10/Form 3	5.9	7.8	13.7	14.4	14.6	14.7	14.7	15.9	16.9	25.8
ade 11 Form 4	5.0	6.5	10.7	12.6	12.9	13.4	13.3	12.9	15.4	15.9
rm 5	1.3	1.9	3.6	3.7	3.7	3.6	3.2	1.8	2.5	1.9
rm 6 Lower	0.7	1.1	1.4	1.6	1.6	1.6	1.6	2.6	2.5	3.2
rm 6 Upper	0.7	0.9	1.3	1.3	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.4	1.7	2.2
ecial Classes	0.4	0.5	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.4	0.3	0.4	0.3
st Primary		-								
ational & Home-ift Classes	-		1.3	1.5	1.4	1.1	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.1
tal Secondary	33.2	47.5	70.9	74.3	73.3	73.0	73.5	74.8	150.3	216.6
tal Enrolments	707.3	758.6	935.3	959.7	966.0	902.0	892.6	1,310.8	1,365.5	2,141.9

ENROLMENTS AT OTHER EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS (IN UNITS)

	1971	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
icultural Colleges	165	159	155	164	133	171	173	169	332
chers Training Colleges	2492	2932	2861	2985	2982	3082	2824	4310	7910
hnical Colleges	3228	4033	4472	5852	3694	3663	3469	6128	N/A
iversity of Zimbabwe	993	1353	1506	1617	1798	1481	1873	2525	3091

Source: Annual Reports of the Secretary of Education and Culture, 1965, 1978 and 1980.

1981-82 Ministry of Education and Culture

Table 2

Effect of the War on Education

	As at:		
	31/12/77	31/12/78	31/12/79
Primary Schools closed	477	1 094	1 520
Pupils displaced	92 654	265 675	403 250
Teachers displaced	2 652	6 058	9 330
Secondary Schools Closed	8	38	57
Pupils displaced	1 553	10 157	16 834
Teachers displaced	61	512	838

Source: Annual Report of the Secretary of Education, 31 December,1979.

Table 3

Schools Reconstruction Program
(Up to December 1981)

	Manicaland	Mashonaland (1)	Matebeleland (2)	Midlands	Vicotria	Total
1. Total No. of Schools in the Reconstruction Program	508	739	634	492	427	2 800
2. Total No. of Schools worked on to date	471	537	507	492	427	2 434
3. Total No. of Schools fully completed	171	78	-	-	-	249
4. Total No. of Classrooms in the Reconstruction Program	3 150	19 204	3 384	1 202	2 485	29 425
5. Total No. of Classrooms Completed to date	990	1 855	1 827	612	1 556	6 840
6. Total No. of teachers' houses in the Reconstruction Program	1 500	2 315	1 170	767	1 485	7 237
7. Total No. of teachers' houses completed to date	-	3 143	1 601	323	872	5 939
8. Estimated total cost of the Reconstruction Program	Z$4 500 000	16 723 800	18 884 779	5 600 000	7 146 000	52 854 579 (3)
9. Progressive expenditure to date plus commitments	$2 549 430	6 912 957	5 253 000	2 855 000	2 245 418	19 814 305
10. Total funds received to date by Provincial Authorities	$2 340 500	5 994 859	4 965 613	2 735 000	2 115 418	18 149 390

Source: Ministry of Local Government and Town Planning, Harare, February 1981

(1) Consists of Mashonaland East, West and Central.

(2) Consists of Matebeleland North and South.

(3) This total also includes money spent on the construction of toilets and offices, and the buying of furniture.

Table 4

Distribution of Secondary Schools by Province-1981

Province	Area (Km^2)[1]	No. of Secondary Schools[2]	Average Area (Km^2) served by each Secondary School
Harare	540	41	13.2
Manicaland	20282	90	225.4
Mashonaland	43013	202	212.9
Matabeleland	56074	110	509.8
Midlands	26450	143	185.0
Victoria	23110	108	214.0
Totals	169469	694	224.2

1. Source: Department of Physical Planning, Harare, June 1981

2. Source: Ministry of Education and Culture, Harare, 2nd Term, 1981.

Table 5

Conventional Teacher Training Colleges in Zimbabwe-1981

College	Level	Status	Controlling Authority	Present or Planned Capacity	Potential Annual Output
Gweru	Secondary	Associate	Government	900	450
Hillside	Secondary and Primary	"	"	450	225
Mkoba	Primary	"	"	630	315
Mutare	"	"	"	630	315
Seke	"	"	"	630	315
United Col. of Education	"	"	Private	630	315
Bondolfi		Non Associate	Private	300	150
Morgenster	"	"	"	300	150
Nyadiri	"	"	"	300	150
Totals				4 770	2 385

Source: Chanakira, E.J. "Teacher Education in Zimbabwe with special reference to the role of Teacher Training Colleges." Paper presented at a seminar on "Education in Zimbabwe, Past, Present and Future," held at University of Zimbabwe, 27th August to 7th September, 1981.

Table 6

Zimbabwe

University Enrolments-1982

Enrolment by Student Status

Student Status		Total Enrolment	Percentage
Under graduate:	Full-time	2 464	79,8
	Part-time	109	3,5
Post graduate:	Full-time	115	3,7
	Part-time	172	5,6
Diplomas		230	7,4
		3 090	100

Full Time Undergraduate and Post Graduate Enrolment by Faculty

	Under Graduate					Post Graduate		
Faculty	1st Year	2nd	3rd	Further Years	Total	Course work	Research	Total
Agriculture	50	41	31	-	122	-	6	128
Arts	123	159	96	-	378	3	13	394
Commerce and Law	282	224	181	-	687	12	-	699
Education	-	-	-	-	-	12	4	16
Engineering	93	47	31	8	179	-	2	181
Medicine	23*	95	87	159	364	-	1	365
Science	99	65	39	-	203	15	20	238
Social Studies	221	173	119	-	513	15	12	540
Veterinary Science	18	-	.	-	18	-	-	18
	909	804	584	167	2 464	57	58	2 579

* Pharmacy only. First year medicine student start in second year, in view of the high entry requirements.

Source: Senior Tutor, Student Numbers 1982, University of Zimbabwe, 1982. (Mimeo).

Table 7

Zimbabwe

Technical College Enrolment- 1981

Department	Student Enrolment: Harare Polytechnic	Student Enrolment: Bulawayo Technical College
(A) Adult Education	1211	125
(B) Business/Commerce		
(1) Professional/Management Studies	1544	692
(2) Secretarial & Commercial	961	916
Sub-totals	2505	1608
(C) Technical		
(1) Automative Engineering	211	-
(2) Civil Eng., Building & Mining	278	441
(3) Electrical Engineering	327	512
(4) Mathematics and Science	92	272
(5) Mechanical Engineering	221	754
(6) Printing and Graphic Arts	142	-
(7) Science and Technology	157	-
(8) School Catering		65
Sub Totals	1 428	2 044
Totals	5 144	3 777
GRAND TOTAL TECHNICAL COLLEGES		8921

Source: Harare Polytechnic annual report, 1981
Bulawayo Technical College, annual report 1981

Table 8

Apprentices by Industry Completed & due for Completion

(As at 31st March, 1982)

Industry	Completed to Date 1981	Completed to Date 1982	Due for Completion 1981*	1982	1983	1984	1985	1986	1987	Total
Aircraft	106	12	22	67	93	81	85	34	9	391
Building	26	1	9	34	59	139	170	10	-	421
Electrical	153	9	30	68	120	305	499	38	-	1110
Mechanical	296	17	58	206	300	487	640	665	-	2356
Motor	137	2	117	177	76	275	454	62	-	1161
Hairdressing	36	1	-	16	78	43	5	-	-	142
Printing	43	4	12	53	64	83	133	35	-	380
Totals	797	46	248	621	790	1413	1986	894	9	5961

*Extended.

Source: Apprenticeship Training Authority, April, 1982.

Table 9

Zimbabwe

Agricultural Colleges- 1982

Enrolment:

	1st	2nd	3rd	Total	Percentage
Chibero	40	43		83	25,0
Esigodini	14	14	14	42	12,7
Gwebi	43	43		86	26,0
Mlezu	67	23	30	120	36,3
	164	123	44	331	100,0

Certificates or Diplomas Awarded to date and Projected Outputs

	Certificates or Diplomas Awarded to date	Projected Outputs 1982	1983	1984	1985	Total
Chibero	332	40	40	40	40	160
Esigodini	176	17	17	20	20	74
Gwebi	895	40	40	40	40	160
Mlezu	662(1)	30	23	70	80	203
	2 065	127	120	170	180	597

Awards Certificates
(1) Manpower Inventory Study of Zimbabwe, Whitsun Foundation, 1980, p. 112.

Staff

	Lecturers	Instructors	Assistant Instructors	Administration Staff	Support Staff	Total
Chibero	6	7	-	3	60	76
Esigodini	-	4	5	-	23	32
Gwebi	7	9	-	3	128	147
Mlezu	-	10	8	-	45	63
	13	30	13	6	256	318

Source: Department of Research and Specialist Services, April, 1982.

Successful Candidates in Examinations Held by the Medical Council of Zimbabwe-1965-82

	1965	1970	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
1. Health Inspectors			5	3	6	5	12			
2. Diploma in meat and other Foods Inspectors		-	11	5	-	1	9			
3. Certificate in Meat Inspection		-	9	14	-	12	5			
4. General Nursing	126	137	185	199	209	191	211			
5. Midwives	38	56	65	70	79	111	93			
6. Psychiastric Nurses		-	9	5	7	12	7			
7. Enrolled Nurses		17	27	20	14	15	16			
8. Advanced Clinical Nurses		-	-	-	-	9	-			
9. Diploma in Community Nursing		-	-	9	9	6	8			
10. Diploma in Nursing Administration		-	-	-	-	6	6			
11. Nurse Anaesthetics Diploma		-	-	-	-	-	4			
12. Diploma in Theatre Nursing		-	-	-	-	-	16			
13. Prosthetists & Orthotists		-	-	-	-	1	-			
14. Medical Assistants:										
Preliminary		112	199	198	192	159	95			
Finalists		128	158	155	161	168	119			
15. Health Assistants		21	27	33	25	12	30			

Source: Secretary for Health Annual Reports 1965-79

Best Available Document

Chart 2

State Registered Nurses Training Program

Student Status	Program	Duration (Months)
State Registered Nurse	State Final Examinations	3
	Practical Nursing	4
	4th Block Medicine Surgery Nursing Care	4
	Practical Nursing	24
	3rd Block Medicine Surgery Opthamology Nursing Practical Nutrition	4
	Practical Nursing	32
	2nd Block Medicine Surgery Opthamology Nursing Practicals Nutrition	4
	Practical Nursing	32
	1st Block Medicine Surgery Pharmacology Nursing Practical Nursing Care	4
	Practical Nursing	21
Student Nurse 5 'O' Levels	Preliminary Training School Examinations Nursing Care Nursing Practicals	

Best Available Document

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Table 11

Health Personnel Registered with the Medical Council of Zimbabwe (1965-82)

	1965	1970	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979	1980	1981	1982
Medical Practitioners	861	853	890	919	853	885	4016			
Dental Surgeons	124	126	144	152	135	151	113			
Pharmaceutical Chemists	329	310	299	301	271	301	352			
Opticians	12	35	32	31	33	27	32			
Dispensing Opticians	-	15	25	26	26	25	27			
Clinical Psychologists	-	2	21	20	21	20	22			
Physiotherapists	81	86	110	113	117	121	111			
Speech Therapists	-	-	3	-	-	7	8			
Radiographers	6	1	109	121	136	153	181			
Occupational Therapists	-	2	12	13	12	12	15			
Prosthetists & Orthotists	-	2	-	1	-	8	7			
Medical Lab. Technologists	29	18	118	123	99	121	135			
Health Inspectors	95	77	85	90	81	77	95			
Meat & Other Food Inspectors	90	1	1	1	1	-	-			
Meat Inspectors	-	3	25	29	33	25	29			
Dental Technicians	-	13	35	37	37	28	29			
Dental Hygienists	-	1	10	11	12	7	29			
Electroence phalagraphic technicians	-	-	2	3	-	6	9			
State Registered Nurses	3208	3742	1688	1741	1818	1882	4612			
State Registered Midwives	1295	1552	1869	2053	2155	2321	2150			
Maternity Nurses	-	158	172	123	173	175	142			
Medical Assistants	220	1153	2401	2381	2781	3294	2535			
African Orderlies who have not been transferred to the Medical Assistants Register	1063	771	321	328	318	307	267			
Health Assistants	57	195	334	358	387	402	358			
African Hygiene demonstrators who have not transferred to the Health Assistants Register	162	108	54	32	30	50	31			
Nursing Assistants	-	163	789	810	730	716	662			
Maternity Assistants	-	209	1762	1943	2033	2166	1933			

Source: Secretary for Health Annual Reports 1965-82.

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ANNEX D

RELEVANT EDUCATION: SOME CRITICAL CONSIDERATIONS FOR ZIMBABWE

BY

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USAID/HRDO

April 30, 1982

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INTRODUCTION

Very often debates on relevant education are confusing. The confusion arises from the ambiguities in the definition of the concept itself and carry over into specific programs adopted to achieve relevancy. It stems also from the failure of educators to define in functional and measurable terms what constitutes relevancy in education.

In this paper, it will be argued that the problem derives largely from the nature of the concept itself. Relevancy cannot be addressed as a single issue but rather as a number of inter-related issues which have to be considered simultaneously.

This paper starts with a critique of relevant education in developing countries, before focusing specifically on Zimbabwe. In the opening section, the discussion centers on the various meanings attached to this concept. The section on Zimbabwe begins with an analytical description of efforts made during the colonial era to introduce relevant education. The paper also explores why these earlier efforts were failures. In this section, the paper argues that the debate on relevancy has largely focused on the structure and not the content of education.

The attainment of independence by Zimbabwe in 1980 opens a new chapter in the debate on relevant education. Therefore, it is important to try and place the current aims of the new government into their historical context. Since considerable attention has been placed on the concept of "Education with Production", this is accorded special attention.

THIRD WORLD PERSPECTIVE

For over a century, the educational debate in black Africa has in one way or another focused upon the issue of "relevancy". However, the debate has been at its sharpest during the post-colonial period. Yet, the controversy is no nearer a resolution than it was in its beginning. Considering the attention attached to this issue, it is surprising that relatively few attempts have been made to examine critically the various issues involved in relevancy and their implications for educational planning.

The basis for the debate on relevancy is the contention that education systems inherited from the colonial era are largely irrelevant to the socio-economic environments of developing countries. Carnoy (1974) states the case bluntly:

> "Western formal education came to most countries as part of imperialist domination. It was consistent with the goals of imperialism the economic and political control of the people in one country by the dominant class in another. The imperial powers

> attempted through schooling, to train the colonized for roles that suited the colonizer" 1/

In addition to thisneo-marxist allegation, there is a whole gamut of other loaded criticisms. For example, the educational systems are blamed for inculcating the "wrong" attitudes and values in the pupils such as their apparent dislike of rural life and hostility to manual labour. They are critised for being examination oriented, thereby promoting rote learning, competitiveness, individualism and elitism. More importantly, they are jeered for being too academic and therefore for not equipping their graduates with the skills required in the world of work.

The stream of criticisms by scholars, planners, and politicians against colonial education is almost endless. It is easy to be caught up in this rhetoric and to be persuaded that there is nothing worth retaining in the inherited education systems.

Two points must, however, be noted. First, there is a need for educational reform, not for its own sake, but for sound educational reasons. Second, it is obvious that an education system should be made to harmonise with the society it is intended to serve. If the majority of the people in developing countries live in rural areas and depend upon agriculture, it is only natural that the education system should be related to this environment and the main activity of the people.

In spite of these general areas of agreement, there is a lack of agreement on the nature of a relevant education. For example, what would a relevant education look like? Of what would its curriculum comprise? Most important what are the objectives that underly the whole notion of relevancy? There appear to be four more or less implicit types of objectives.

First, developing countries wish to adapt education to their traditional social structures. This cultural adaptation rests on the assumption that some sort of consensus can be created between the school and society. One of the most basic functions of educational institutions is thought to be a homogenizing one. In the broadest sense, this means that educational institutions are concerned with the inculcation of values and appropriate modes of behaviour and the teaching of skills which prepare the individual to participate effectively as an adult member of a community.

This objective rests on very weak grounds. Formal education is in most developing countries of Africa a relatively recent

phenomenon. From its beginning, its intimate relationship with a differentiated occupational structure meant it had a differentiating rather than homogenising function. Therefore, Western formal education was, and still is dysfunctional for traditional social structures, since it constitutued a new dimension of social structure. The critical issues is whether this dysfunctionality carries with it negative normative aspects. If a country's objective is modernization, be it along socialist or capitalist lines, education will continue to be disruptive of traditional values and ways of life.

The second objective rests on the general belief that a well articulated and applied relevant education will contribute to political development. The term "political development" is itself normatively based and it revolves around such notions as political stability, creation of political consciousness among the masses, creation of national unity and erosion of tribalism etc. It is assumed that educational institutions are effective agencies of political socialisation in that they generate the appropriate skills, attitudes and values that are vital to welding the nation through producing sentiments of common citizenship.

The evidence that educational institutions can justify such aspirations is scanty. Correlations between levels of education and various indices of political development tell us nothing as to how schools actually create conditions of political stability for example. But this is not to say that education is not conducive to political development, only that the proof is lacking.

Third, the argument for a more relevant education rests upon its contribution to the employment of school leavers. Schools are alleged to cause unemployment because they fail to provide young people with the skills and training required by public and private employers. Since the cause of unemployment among school leavers is normally attributed to the academic curricula of the schools, it is assumed that a relevant education which means normally vocational and agricultural education will solve the problem.

However, most of the evidence suggests that unemployment of school leavers is not as much related to the character of schools as it is to the consequences of too rapid an expansion of education relative to economies which are either stagnant or growing too slowly to absorb the annual output from the schools. By assuming the schools are at fault, there is a tendency to ignore the complex question of the demand for labour. The problem then, is not that schools are producing too many people with an

academic education, but that they are simply producing too many people.

The nub of the problem lies in the slowness with which subsistence economies are converted to modern exchange economies. In most developing countries, the majority of the adult population is involved in purely subsistence activities. Only a very small proportion of the population is employed in the exchange economy. The products of schools have always been motivated by a desire to enter paid employment within this relatively small sector of the economy. Hence, education is regarded as an investment in future employment opportunities and a bridge from the subsistence to the modern sector. Thus, unemployment among school leavers would be a consequence irrespective of the type of education given, as long as slow rates of economic growth are maintained.

Finally, relevant education is thought to contribute to national economic development, and particularly to rural development. The basic argument is that the present education systems train their pupils for scarce "white-collar" jobs. If the curriculum could be made more relevant, education would stimulate the rate of economic growth in the rural and traditional sectors. Considerable evidence exists that education is one of the main determinants of economic growth. More limited evidence demonstrates a high correlation between years of schooling and agricultural productivity. However, what is overlooked on the debate on relevancy is that these findings are based on the very same educational systems which are deemed irrelevant. In fact, most evidence at least would argue that it is basic educational skills such as numeracy and literacy combined with the creation of new attitudes and values which account for these realtionships. If present systems are accomplishing this already, the question may be not to destroy these systems but to strengthen them to do the job that they are doing better.

As Ogionwo (1969) found, the real value of education in rural development is:

> "Above all to broaden horizons and raise expectations. It provides the individual with some familiarity with modern concepts and institutions. When an educated farmer settles down to farming, when he develops some commitment, and abandons the off-farm occupation that also appears to be the result of education, he is likely to be a more aggressively innovative farmer. There is evidence that such a farmer is somewhat more likely to seek out useful knowledge more agressively from other agencies

> and institutions where it is available. There is also evidence that he is likely to use modern farming inputs more intensively and, in general, be more commercially oriented." 2/

The relationship between education and rural development is a complicated, multidimensional process. There is a tendency to see it as a simple relationship where education is merely seen as a lubricant of the rural development machinery. But it also contributes in undesirable ways. For example, education by making pupils aware of the existence of alternative means of earning a living, other than through agriculture, contributes to rural to urban migration. In a free society, it will be difficult to stimulate the positive aspects of education without encouraging the negative as well.

The four objectives of relevant education discussed above indicate that policy makers often engage in planning without consulting the clientele or taking into consideration the weight of evidence. Sir Chirstopher Cox (1956) warns:

> "Intentions and fulfilment are very different things, particularly when those responsible for policy and those for whose benefit it is designed have very different aims and values..." 3/

In other words, the support of the clientele is probably the single most crucial variable in determining the effectiveness of any education program.

The proponents of relevant education work on the underlying assumption that formal education is easily manipulable and that it can be modified to meet whatever is wanted. This view is simplistic and ignores a series of crucial variables that must be taken into account if education is to change. Education has acquired so much inertia that any moves to change it will meet resistance from those with vested interests in maintaining the status quo. Those with vested interests include teachers, education ministries, students and parents. Thus education systems cannot be changed without a profound understanding of the socio-economic context in which they function.

Zimbabwe has only recently attained political independence and has only begun the process of reforming her education system with a view to making it relevant to her new circumstances. However, Zimbabwe had a rather unique colonial experience shared by only a few countries in Africa. Zimbabwe, like Kenya and South Africa, was not a "Protectorate", but a "Settler Colony" and thus her affairs of state were not determined and controlled by the Colonial Office in London, but in Salisbury by a white minority community. Therefore, whereas most African countries

blame the British colonialists for transplanting metropole institutions without adapting them to their new environments, Zimbabwe cannot do the same, she has to articulate the problems of her colonial inheritance quite differently. On the whole, the Zimbabwean colonial situation reflected the dominant position of whites and the subordinate position reserved for blacks. It is within this context that an understanding of Zimbabwe's educational system will be achieved.

ZIMBABWE: THE COLONIAL EXPERIENCE

What is surprising in the recent emphasis on relevant education is not its originality but its focus on a number of arguments that were first stated in equally cogent fashion before Zimbabwe was born. As early as 1847, the British Colonial Office received a comprehensive memorandum on education which included some suggestions on how to make the school more relevant to the then existing colonies. Among the specific steps proposed were the establishment of industrial and farm schools, with the inclusion of agriculture, stock management and land surveying in the curricula of teacher training institutions. 4/

At the turn of this century, the missionaries who had set up schools in Rhodesia were criticised by the settler colonialists for providing the African with an academic curriculum, which was thought to be inappropriate, because among other things,

> "many people object to what seems to them the "cheeky" manners of mission natives and others complain about the laziness or the airs they give themselves...." 5/

Accordingly, it was suggested that the native be given

> "an industrial continuation school, where simple handicrafts could be mastered which would send them back to their reserves, rather than out into the labor market, and make them the apostles of sweetness and light to their own people." 6/

The attitude of the missionaries to industrial and agricultural training was rather cautious. To them, the evangelical outcomes of education were more important, and, though the missions did eventually develop programs of industrial and agricultural training, this was undertaken only where it could be proved to be the sole or best means by which church members might live a consistent Christian life. 7/

Actually, in addition to realising the value of an

academic education as a catalyst of evangelization, the missionaries were also fully aware of the African's strong preference for academic education. To the African, education meant writing and reading books, counting and talking in English. He did not want to be taught how to plough or weed the fields, for he knew how to do these things and to learn them was not why he had come to school. Therefore, when the authorities focused their attention on vocationalisation of curriculum, "....the missionaries found themselves essentially in the position of salesmen attempting to distribute a product for which demand was limited and where the problem of modifying the nature of the product in the light of consumer preferences was all important." 8/

As far as education is concerned, the early 1920's belonged to Thomas Jesse Jones and his two missionary-inspired Phelps-Stokes Commissions on education in what was former British Africa. The commissions recommended mass education with its curriculum adapted to the people's local circumstances. The Colonial Office endorsed these recommendations in the 1925 memorandum which states thus:

> "Education should be adapted to the mentality, aptitudes, occupations and traditions of the various peoples conserving as far as possible all sound and healthy elements in the fabric of their social life, adapting them where necessary to changed circumstances and progressive ideas, as an agent of cultural growth and evolution." 9/

The Government in Zimbabwe then must have felt that it was a step ahead, because it had been working on a similar line before the Phelps-Stokes Commission visited the country in 1924 and before the Colonial Office published its recommendations. Keigwin helped to set-up two colleges at Domboshawa and Tjolotjo in 1920 and 1921 respectively. Murray (1929) says that the schools had

> "a bias towards industrial work, not only for practical purposes but also to break down the conception that school and work are two different things." 10/

Accordingly, twenty-one out of the thirty-six hours of the working week were given to agriculture, management of stock, building, carpentry, forestry and gardening, "with the aim of equipping the pupils to improve conditions in the reserves when they return." 11/

In the end, the recommendations of the Phelps-Stokes Commissions and the colleges established by Keigwin failed to achieve their original objectives. The causes of their failure were fundamentally two. First, they failed to take into account the degree to which traditional African society had changed since the arrival of settler colonialism in 1890.

Second, the government failed to realise the extent to which money and wage labour had become important elements of black society and they did not fully grasp the role education was playing in this new socio-economic milieu.

The impact of settler colonialism on traditional Zimbabwean societies was, to put it bluntly, devastating. A political unit with definite boundaries (then called Rhodesia) was created overnight; a new administrative system, based on the doctrine of separate development was established and a modern economy introduced. At the same time, urban centres mushroomed; road and railway networks were established and a new occupational structure was set up. A person was free for the first time to travel beyond his tribal boundaries and seek wage employment elsewhere. Imported goods were introduced and new secular ideas joined Christianity to undermine long-held values. The following observations made by the Chief Native Commissioners in the period 1903 to 1909 show the extent of change in traditional African societies:

1. "There is a steady increase in the demand for trade goods, of which the articles most in request are hoes, picks, cutlery, blankets, clothing, salt, beads, etc. with occasionally such luxuries as coffee, sugar, golden syrup, and corned beef..."

2. "The natives progress is becoming more marked each year. This does not apply to any great extent to requirements of articles of civilised manufacture but of correspondence by post, railway travelling, cleanliness in dress and person...."

3. "The large number of town and country stores catering for the native customer is a striking illustration of the increasing wants of the native. The stock-in-trade comprises agricultural implements .... boots and shoes, ready-made clothing of all descriptions, hats, shirts, drapery, coffee, tea, sugar ....and such luxuries as golden syrup, cigarettes, confectionery and perfumery....." 12/

Obviously, money was important to buy these commodities. But there were also other things for which money was a necessity. For example, a hut tax of 10 shillings for every adult male and 10 shillings extra for each wife exceeding one was imposed as early as 1894, and ten years later it was

replaced by a poll tax of one pound on each male over 16 and 10 shillings upon each wife exceeding one.13/ To get the money required to purchase consumer items and pay taxes, the Africans turned to wage labour.

Formal education must be viewed within the context of African participation in the wage sector. It was not a mere coincidence that average attendance in mission primary schools, after stagnating at around 45,000 for over a decade, shot up from 46,000 in 1936 to over 86,000 in 1943 and to 140,000 in 1947.14/ Why did education undergo this rapid expansion during World War II and the immediate post was period?

Formal education was an instrument, valued not for its own sake, but for its cash return. Better paying jobs were available in the modern sector. To obtain these better paying jobs, an individual had to have education. Because employers preferred workers with an academic background rather than those with vocational and agricultural training, preference was given to schools with a strong academic base. Hence, as Foster (1965) observed:

> "African demands for academic education had little to do with the curriculum of the school but reflected their realistic perception of the differential rewards accorded to individuals within the occupational structure."..... 15/

The authorities in Rhodesia appear to have had other hidden purposes for their scheme of education in addition to the noble idea of equipping African people with agricultural and industrial training. It was these hidden purposes which contributed in no small measure to the failure of Phelps-Stokeism. Du Bois (1903) arguing against Phelps-Stokeism and its influence on the education of American blacks, stated that it was an education which "practically accepts the alleged inferiority of the African" and was intended to keep the African in "his position" as a drawer of water and hewer of wood. In Africa itself, people accused Phelps-Stokeism of attempting "to make the African fit in with the Europeans scheme of exploitation and control."16/Perhaps the following questions of a black Rhodesian teacher best illustrate the doubts of the Africans about the purpose of industrial and agricultural training:

> "Why do you teach our children only to use the Native axe and knife, and prevent us using saws, and hammers? Why do you tell us to make wooden spoons? Do you want us to climb the ladder of civilization? We buy metal spoons from the store. Is it wrong for our children to want to have chairs and beds, and be like the Euorpeans? It is not easy to tell our children, No, you must want to be Native, No you must make spoons because it is hand

and eye training. No, the Pass Laws are not all bad because they are made to protect you."17/

The post Second World War period up to U.D.I. was a watershed for economic and educational development in Zimbabwe. Chidzero and Moyana (1979) point out that the Zimbabwe economy which was until then largely oriented towards primary export production (tobacco, gold, copper, etc.) turned to import - substituting manufacture of textiles, clothing, metal work and food processing.18/ The manufacturing and agricultural boom during this period resulted in increased demand for skilled personnel and this led to a surge in British immigration and cheap labour from the neighbouring countries, particularly Malawi, Zambia and Mozambique. This is also the period which the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland was formed and it increased the size of the internal market.

During this period, the education system expanded phenomenally, particularly at the primary level. Primary enrollments increased from 147,000 in 1947 to 341,000 in 1955. This was a natural response to the industrial sector's call for a more educated labour force. Also the curriculum became decidedly more academic. Structurally, the education system as it was to remain until Independence was in place - a broad-based primary level with highly selective secondary and post-secondary levels.

After being dormant for almost two decades, the theme of relevant education re-emerged in the ten-year educational plan of 1966. Under this plan, twelve and a half percent of primary school leavers were to follow a four-year academic secondary course, followed by a two-year course for those for university. Thirtyseven and a half percent were to enter a two year terminal junior secondary school whose curriculum was to be designed to prepare pupils in vocational skills to become semi-skilled workers. In these schools, a third of the time was to be spent on handicrafts and activities suited to the area in which the school was located. The balance of 50 percent were to be given the opportunity of pursuing formal secondary education by correspondence courses. In summary, 62.5 percent of the secondary school students were provided with an academic education.

The 1966 plan coincided with the Unilateral Declaration of Independence by the white minority government. U.D.I. made the country an international outcast and led to the imposition of economic

sanctions by the international community. In the short run, the economy suffered and employment opportunities began to contract when schools were producing more graduates.

The 1969 constitution led to the entrenchment of the racial policies of the Rhodesian Front Government. Of particular importance was its Land Tenure Act, which divided land into equal halves. One half was set aside for four and a half million Africans and the other half was reserved for a quarter of a million whites. It is therefore not surprising that the provisions of the new educational plan, with its vocational orientation, were seen as another way of providing Africans with an inferior education. Any merit which the 1966 plan might have had was cancelled by these political considerations. Unemployment of the black school leavers increased and even a secondary school certificate could no longer guarantee a job in the wage sector. Moreover, the school leavers could no longer bank on returning to the rural areas and becoming subsistence farmers like their parents because African land was on the whole overpopulated. It was against this combination of political injustice and the frustration caused by working on unrewarding rural farms that led school leavers to join the ranks of the nationalist movements and their emerging armed forces. It should not be forgotten that it was the educated rather than the uneducated who initially took up the cause of national liberation.

The discussion has centred on the structure of education and the strong preference for an academic education on the part of Africans despite attempts of policy makers to vocationalise the curriculum. These historical trends have important implications for the formulation of relevant education in a post-independent Zimbabwe and cannot be ignored if curriculum changes and modifications are to succeed. It is against this background that the discussion in the next section turns to the content of education and what it means within the development context.

V. THE CONTENT OF EDUCATION

The school system is made up of a number of interrelated sub-systems, namely, primary, secondary and institutions of higher education. The products of one sub-system constitute the intake of another. Thus, primary schools feed secondary schools: secondary schools feed tertiary institutions of higher education and some institutions of higher education in turn feed the secondary and primary schools.

As a result, institutions of higher education have enormous influence upon the curriculum and instruction methodology of the lower ones. For instance, university entrance requirements have been a major constraint upon the development

of the secondary school curriculum while secondary school entrance examinations stressing the academic and literary skills have been the focus of primary education and have severely restricted attempts to diversify primary curricula.

In order to free the primary and secondary schools to develop more relevant curricula and to adopt other kinds of learning approaches, it is necessary, first, to persuade the university and other post-secondary institutions to accept students with different educational backgrounds from the one to which they are accumstomed. Keeping this in mind, the discussion turns to each sub-system beginning first with primary.

The primary level is the largest component within Zimbabwe's education system. It is also the poorest in both money and quality. Although it accounts for 92% of the school population, it receives relatively less money than secondary education and expenditure per pupil is 4.8 times less than it is in secondary schools. To expect any immediate improvement in the financial prospects of primary schools is to be unrealistic. Populations are rising, economic growth is barely keeping up with these figures, and the country is committed to a policy of quantitative expansion of the primary school system to overtake the population growth. Within this context, it is virtually impossible to see how more money per child can be spent on primary schools.

Primary schools are part of a broader education system which is selective and competitive. About 80% of the primary school age cohort goes to school, selection at this stage being influenced by factors like availability of schools, motivation, cultural considerations and socio-economic factors whthin the family and local community. However, only a proportion finish the full seven years of primary school and a much smaller proportion (12-13%) pass through a selective examination to secondary education. But for those who pass through, the rewards may be very high. Wage and social differentials between those who have, and those who do not have secondary education are enormous. For this reason, it is hardly realistic to expect parents and their children to regard primary as an end in itself.

The formal character of the primary curriculum is made up of English, a vernacular language, mathematics, social and environmental science and Bible knowledge. This curriculum is reinforced by the final examination which is designed to select the few to proceed to secondary education. The examination determines the teaching in the primary schools and has far more influence on curriculum than does any printed syllabus.

But unfortunately, in most primary schools, as Hawes (1972) observed, it is neither the syllabus nor the examination requirements which are the determinants of what and how teachers teach children; rather it is a kind of dreary oral tradition of "survival teaching" handed down from one hard-pressed, under-trained teacher to another Again as Hawes observed, this teaching tradition survives. because it is easy, popular and safe, because it preserves the teacher's dignity and it gets children through the examination. It may also be the easiest way to operate in what are otherwise difficult physical conditions with overcrowded classes and a scarcity of necessary equipment. 19/

Therefore, discussions of curriculum change need to take into account two problems. The first relates to the close link between what is taught in the schools and the examination. The second is the environment in which this curriculum is taught which is characterised by untrained and isolated teachers.

Secondary Schools

Only 12-13% of those who enter primary school go on to secondary school. Thus, secondary schools are exclusive institutions in the sense that their enrollment is highly restricted.

Formerly there were two types of secondary schools, namely, academic (F1) and vocational or technical (F2) schools. Most pupils in the academic schools did the following subjects:

English language	History
Mathematics	Vernacular language
English literature	General science
Geography	Bible knowledge 20/

Pupils in the vocational schools took the following subjects: English, vernacular language, environmental studies, science, and mathematics. Boys also took two practical subjects from the following selection:

Agriculture	Building
Metal work	Woodwork

Girls selected two practical subjects from the following:

Agriculture	Housecraft
Needlework	

This bifurcated system has now been replaced by a more comprehensive one. Pupils are now streamed according to ability, so that the 'able' ones write the "O" level examination after four years and the "slow" ones after five years. The curriculum is an assemblage of academic and vocational core subjects. But the teaching methodologies and even what the schools teach are geared towards the examinations.

In the past, there were three examinations within the secondary level. The first was taken after two years, the second after four years, and the third in the sixth and final year of secondary education. As the Minister of Education and Culture, Dr. Mutumbuka said,

> "The whole African education system under the colonial regimes was a kind of 'ambush' system. African pupils had to survive a series of 'ambushes' before they could get to the end of the system; therefore, it is not surprising that very few of them ever got to the end." 21/

Also much of the criticism of secondary education centres on the "lack of integration between the secondary school system and the industrial and economic needs of the country." 22/

Whilst the frustrations of the unemployed school leavers and politicians are understandable, the simple truth is that no society can guarantee jobs for school leavers, and there is no way job-corps, vocational or agricultural curricula in the schools, or other panaceas, are going to prevent unemployment from being a chronic feature of any economy with a slower rate of economic growth than growth in school leavers.

Thus, the debate on relevancy must focus on two central issues. The first issue deals with labor demand and reflects the rate of expansion in job opportunities for people with different levels of education and skills. The second issue relates to the content of the education and skills. Both issues relate to the content of education and training received. Both issues must be treated together in any debate on relevancy. One should not lose sight of the fact that unemployment may simply be a quantitative education problem, too many graduates, rather than a qualitative one.

Higher Education

Higher education includes all post secondary level institutions such as agricultural colleges, polytechnics and technical colleges, teacher training colleges and the university. However, this paper concentrates on only two of these, the university and teacher training colleges.

(1) The University

Zimbabwe has one university modelled along the lines of a British university. It initially operated as an extension of London University before becoming more autonomous. The university is the apex or highest level of the tripartite

division of the education system in Zimbabwe. Being the most prestigious of the system, the university inevitably influences much of what goes on in the primary and secondary levels.

The overall enrollment at the university in 1981 was 03% of the total population and 14% of the school population. Hence it is an elitist institution. Its elitism, however, goes beyond the issue of mere student numbers and extends into its curricula and methodologies.

The university has been accused of "staying in the clouds" and of ignoring the needs of a new Zimbabwe. The university concentrates upon high-level academic and professional preparation, leaving the development of intermediate level training to smaller institutions. The university has yet to make real significant progress towards patterns of organization, teaching and evaluation closely related to local realities. As Coombs (1968) notes,

> "Instead of seeking new truths, they have busied themselves building academic ramparts to protect old beliefs. Instead of keeping merely at arm's length from society's untidy confusion, they have removed themselves astronomical distances from the urgent problems of society." 23/

The crux of the matter is that the university is overtly pre-occupied with the question of standards, not its own standards, but those defined by the international company of universities all over the world. But of course as the Nigerian Commissioner on Post School certificate and Higher Education in 1959, argued:

> " A country can stay on the intellectual gold standard without, as it were, having to adopt the imprint of another coinage."24/

(2) Teacher Education

It is stating the obvious to say that teachers are an important, if not the most important, ingredient in education. It is they who are supposed to interpret the goals of the curriculum and translate them into reality in the classrooms. Often the proponents of curriculum change assume that the teacher is some kind of super-person whose intellectual capacity is matched by a diversity of skills and a strong motivation. Thus, a teacher is expected to be capable of teaching well an array of academic and vocational subjects. What is forgotten or overlooked is that most Zimbabwean teachers are not qualified and have themselves limited background. Many of them took up teaching not because teaching was their first choice, but rather they failed to get into other institutions of post-secondary education. In the first term in 1981, 40% and 5.5% of the primary and secondary school teachers respectively were untrained.

Furthermore, it should be recognized that the trained teacher is really an average teacher who is modestly qualified, moderately well trained with tions. In all likelihood, he probably views the drive for curriculum changes with indifference, if not suspicion, because he feels secure with his former practices. While these are unpleasant generalisations, they must be taken into consideration in any discussion of relevant education or curriculum change. They are provided with further education and training in yet more school-type institutions and then they are certified as teachers capable of returning to schools from which they originally came. This, as Thompson (1980) noted, constitues a cycle: school - college - school, which is more suited to the perpetuation of existing practice than changing it.25/ Moreover, student teachers often arrive with inadequate standards of general education and a good deal of time is spent on upgrading their academic skills. As a consequence, the college curriculum becomes overcrowded with professional teaching studies competing for time and attention with the academic studies.

The most important and significant post-independence change in teacher education is ZINTEC. (Zimbabwe Integrated National Teacher Education Course). This new approach addresses the urgent need for expanding teacher training rapidly as the educational system also expands rapidly. The main aim is to produce as many teachers as possible in the shortest available time. ZINTEC training centres enrolled a total of 2130 teachers between May 1980 and December 1981 as opposed to the 1755 teachers enrolled in the traditional three-year colleges.

ZINTEC combines pre-service with in-service training. The student teachers spend only the first and last term of a 12 term course of 4 years in a training centre and the rest of the time is spent in the schools (mostly rural). These students, in fact, work as full-time salaried teachers. As in the old system of teacher training, the school - college - school cycle is also present in ZINTEC except that the stay at college is shortened. Thus, it is important to consider whether ZINTEC student teacners are any freer from the influences of the established patterns in the schools in which they teach than traditionally trained teachers.

Whether trained in the new or the old ways, teachers are responsible for preparing young people for life and employment in an increasingly demanding and complex society outside schools. Yet their own experiences tend very largely to be confined to the society of the school. This is especially true with the ZINTEC student teachers. These teachers have very

limited experiences beyond local communities. They have little knowledge of the realities of urban living, about the employment sector, and about the way their government works.

Furthermore, many teachers enter the teaching college not out of choice, but because they have failed to achieve selection for a further stage of formal education, or because they could not get a job in the industrial or commerical sector. Teacher training and teaching itself are considered by these individuals as second best. It is not surprising that many trained teachers have recently left teaching to take jobs in an expanding public and private sector.

If teachers are to play their full role in relevant education, there have to be changes in teacher education not only at the pre-service level but also during the in-service period. It is often taken for granted that once a teacher has been trained and has received his certificate, he is equipped sufficiently for a life-time of teaching. This assumption overlooks the fact that training can at best only hope to do little more than equip the teacher to start out on his career. Any changes in teaching methodology, syllabus and new school organization render the teacher's training out of date and will require retraining. Thus, the problem of untrained staff is exacerbated because curriculum changes in a rapidly expanding system require, not only training more new teachers but also significant retraining of old teachers.

ALTERNATIVES IN EDUCATION: THE EXAMPLE OF NON FORMAL EDUCATION

Growing awareness of the inadequacies of formal education has led educationists, policy makers, and developmental specialists to focus attention on alternative forms of education. It is in this context that nonformal education has been refined and made into an effective tool for learning, especially for adults. Nonformal education is mainly divided into three categories:

1. Supplementation of formal education - where the objectives syllabuses, examinations may be identical to those of the school and the clientele consists of those who wish to undertake, complete or further their formal education but have no opportunity of entering or returning to school;
2. Complementing formal education - where education and training not necessarily offered in schools is provided to people who need it whether or not they have had previous schooling; and

3. Replacing formal education - where through the institution of learning networks, the formal school may be dispensed with altogether.26/

In analysing the strengths of nonformal education approaches, it is helpful to compare and contrast it with the formal school system. Through such a comparison, it is possible to see how the two forms of education may complement or supplement each other.

The main advantage of nonformal education lies in its purpose. Whereas schooling is intended to provide the knowledge and skills a pupil will need for all aspects of his life, nonformal education seeks to provide for a person's specific and immediate need. Schools deal with packages of theoretical and abstract knowledge and standardised content, but nonformal education focuses on the specific tasks and skills which are needed, and will be able to deal with modular units of learning derived not from some accepted concept of the way knowledge is structured but from the problem which is being faced.

Furthermore, formal education is relatively inflexible, requiring full-time attendance over long periods of time at a particular place. Nonformal education is likely to be more flexible since it will normally be available on a part-time and sparetime basis as and when the person is available and for as long and as often as may be required or possible. Many nonformal education activities may be located close to the life and work of the individual whereas schooling tends to withdraw people from their normal life context and to isolate them in specially designated institutions.

The close relationship which nonformal education has with learning and application gives it a further advantage. While formal education may communicate certain skills, it commonly finds that the motivation of it pupils, while strong, is not the kind which teachers and the curriculum developers prefer. But the skills learned in nonformal education will be selected according to their immediate applicability in the daily life and circumstances of the learner.

One of the strongest arguments in favour of nonformal education is that while schooling is heavily state subsidised, many forms of nonformal education can be entirely paid for by the participants, firms, groups and individuals who will benefit from them. And it may be argued that where they pay a good proportion of the costs, they are likely to value the learning experience more highly.

Also of importance, there is a closer tie between costs and benefits in most non-formal education activities. Since these activities are practical and specific it is easier to make an assessment of their benefit. On the other hand, formal schooling is costly and the benefits are less easily measurable.

In the next section, the significance of nonformal education within the Zimbabwean context is explored.

NONFORMAL EDUCATION IN ZIMBABWE

Zimbabwe has a long history of nonformal education. The term nonformal education is new, the activities to which it refers are not. Any attempt at making an accurate survey of nonformal education is frustrated not only by administrative and logistical problems, but also by the very wide range of the activities involved and the definition of the concept itself

Russell (1976) tried to make a survey of nonformal education activities in 1976. He found over 452 agencies involved offering 7,258 courses a year to 194,000 people.

The problem of keeping an accurate count of nonformal education activities is compounded by the transient nature of the activities themselves. Each activity's birth, life span and death are defined by its unique circumstances. In essence, nonformal education activities reflect the changing problems of the people they serve.

Coombs (1974) has defined nonformal education as "any organised, systematic, educational activity carried on outside the framework of the formal system to provide selected types of learning to particular sub-groups in the population, adult as well as children."27/

Instead of seeking to provide a broad, multi-purpose and common form of education to the population as a whole, non-formal education is concerned with identifying different groups of people, diagnozing the specific learning needs of each group, and then seeking the most appropriate means whereby these needs may be met. It is obvious that nonformal education techniques draw upon a different set of traditions from formal education. nonformal education begins with the people and their needs and makes the realistic assumption that no single tool or technique will serve all purposes. On the other hand, formal education seems to be regarded as a tool to provide for the wide range of learning needs of a particular age range within the population.

Learning needs are very difficult to define and to assess. However, Coombs and Ahmed (1974), identified four main kinds of learning needs. In addition, they also identified three main groups of people which could be considered in nonformal education activities in the rural areas in which they worked.

The learning needs are:

1. General or basic education, including such elements as literacy, numeracy and understanding of one's society. Some educationists would also include liberal and cultural studies.

2. Community improvement education to provide for the strengthening of local and national institutions and organisations, to enable people to participate more effectively in civic affairs, in the management of co-operatives, credit banks, associations and clubs, and in undertaking community improvement projects.

3. Family improvement education to develop the knowledge, skills and attitudes which would help people to raise their standards of health, nutrition, child-care, family planning, home construction and repair, in order to improve the quality of their domestic lives.

4. Occupational education, to assist people to make a better liying for themselves and to contribute more effectively to the economic development of their community and country.

The three main rural groups identified are:

1. Persons directly engaged in agriculture - farmers, herders, fishermen etc., groups which would vary in their activities and needs according to the areas in which they lived. Distinctions would be made between commercial and subsistence farmers, subsistence and semi-subsistence, ranchers and herders and so on.

2. Persons engaged in off-farm commercial activities, such as traders, large and small traders, large and small repair and maintenance workers, construction and transport workers.

3. General service personnel, including local civic leaders and planners, administrators and managers responsible

at various levels for the provision of public services such as schools, clinics, transport and supply, storage and marketing etc. 28/

In view of these considerations it becomes abundantly clear that the 1976 study underestimated the range of non-formal education activities going on in Zimbabwe.

Russell himself conceded that the study does not include the more "informal appearing" types of nonformal education, such as that carried out under a tree by an agricultural demonstrator, a community adviser or a savings club development fieldworker. And it does not refer to on-the-job and other training provided in industry, the courses offered by correspondence colleges, nor, with a few minor exceptions, does it refer to the activities of the young farmers' club movement and master farmers' organisations.

In summary, before it is possible to know how nonformal education may be an alternative approach to meeting the learning needs of young people and adults in Zimbabwe, it is necessary to have a better understanding of the range of existing non-formal education activities. Such a study should not only take into account the types of learning needs met, and groups served but also the problems and limitations they face. Furthermore, there should be an analysis of the linkages between these non-formal education activities and the formal system. That is, the extent to which these linkages build on the formal system or actually offer an alternate system for people by-passed by the formal system. Such a study would likely shed considerable light on the relevancy issue, since it would indicate the relationships between people's learning needs, and the various formal and nonformal education activities designed to address them.

II. POST INDEPENDENCE DEVELOPMENTS

The political independence of Zimbabwe on 18 April 1980, brought with it a government committed to eradicating poverty, ignorance and disease among the poor. This government replaced one that was, by and large, committed to the protection of minority white interests and privileges.

The new government's principles for education were enunciated in Z.A.N.U.(PF)'s election manifesto:

1. The abolition of racial education and utilisation of the education system to develop in the young a non-racial attitude, or common national identity and common loyalty.

2. The establishment of free and compulsory primary

and secondary education for all children regardless of race.

3. The abolition of sex discrimination in the education system.

4. The orientation of the education system to national goals.

5. The basic right of every adult who had no or little education opportunity to literacy and adult education.

6. The special role of education as a major instrument for social transformation.

The manifesto also identified three stages in the education system:

(1) Pre-school education: mainly of a nursery form for children aged 3-5 years..... it would make it possible for the present long period of primary schooling to be reduced.

(2) Primary education: this will be pre-secondary and will build upon nursery education as it projects itself into the secondary sector. It should emphasise equally the development of literacy and psychomotor abilities and create in the child a comprehensive educational base.

(3) Secondary education: this form of education will build itself upon the primary base and, while remaining comprehensive in character, must sharpen the child in the direction of his aptitudes. It should prepare children variously for university, technical and vocational courses.

Furthermore, "a ZANU (PF) government will launch a vast network of technical and vocational schools throughout the country and will establish Zimbabwe Institute of Technology, which will offer courses at university level."
And, "a ZANU (PF) government will expand university education and reorientate it to the needs of the Zimbabwean nation, emphasizing more the courses necessary for the development of the country. University education should be largely free." 29/

However, there is no clear definition of priorities between the six goals or principles and the various levels of education. The document avoids potential conflicts caused by limited resources. Despite these criticisms the government has made significant progress in implementing its education program.

1. The education system at all levels has been expanded. Education is now free at the primary level, but it is not yet compulsory. Although the secondary level has been expanded, it is still not large enough to absorb all the primary school graduates.

2. Racial discrimination in school attendance has been removed.

3. A new system of teacher education (ZINTEC) has been introduced.

4. "Education with production" has been introduced into curriculum.

Since this paper focuses on the issues involved in relevancy, it is on the introduction of "Education with Production" (EWP) that the discussion now turns. EWP has implications for changes in teaching methodologies, textbooks, equipment and school organization.

III. EDUCATION WITH PRODUCTION

First and foremost, EWP is not a new concept to Zimbabwe. It has been tried before, albeit under different labels and different circumstances.

EWP has also been known in other country contexts. For example, Ghandi called it "basic education", Nyerere called in "education for self-reliance" and Van Rensburg had his "Serowe Brigades".

EWP attempts to link education and training with production. Van Rensburg (1981) defines it:

> "School and community must be linked so that teachers and learners are involved in real life activity, cultural, political, economic and social; it means linking theory and practice in every way possible. At the core of these links lies the combination of education and production."30/

Although EWP has a core of academic subjects, like English, mathematics and science, they are linked to activities both in the institution and the community. Therefore, teachers participate in production to discover its principles and problems and how to relate their teaching and subjects to it.

Another important aspect of EWP is the attempt to move towards joint responsibility, consultation and participation in decision making as a collective learning activity involving the community, teacher, student and employer Also through EWP, education is to become a part of the changing environment as well as a result and function of it. As Luria has written:

> "Mental processes depend on active life forms in an appropriate environment ..... human action changes the environment so that human mental life is a product of continually new activities in social practice ..... moreover, some mental processes cannot develop apart from the appropriate forms of social life."31/

In short, education must or should be organically linked to its socio-economic environment.

How has EWP been translated into practice? To date it largely consists of a few discrete projects. It is yet to be integrated into the system in any large scale way. Most of the existing projects are in their infancy. A number have met with initial success. Yet in measuring success one should not forget that most of the students are former combatants and refugees who lived a similar life during the war. Whether this success can be transferred to the larger population remains problematic.

In considering the significance of these activities to the larger environment, it is useful to reflect on the Serowe Brigades. The story of the Serowe Brigades has demonstrated that there are still too many vested interests protecting the formal system.

The concept of EWP runs the risk of being narrowly interpreted. For example, it is easy to assume that people live to work, instead of working to live. In other words, the kinds of training which people get in EWP can be translated into programs which do not make up the whole of the learning needs of society. Society continues to need people with a broad and deep knowledge of problems and the world environment in which Zimbabwe finds itself which transcend the need for a trained workforce.

The capability and capacity of the existing institutions of EWP to stimulate the development of the communities in their "sphere of influence" is questionable. Institutions like Chindundurwa and Rusununguko are so psychologically distanced from rural communities that they have no direct linkage to rural development. If the intention is to make the graduates from these institutions of EWP the catalysts of development by sending them "back to the land" on completion of their courses, two problems are likely to arise. First, the graduates will be motivated to seek work in the modern sector in the urban and mining areas rather than seek work in rural areas. Second, these graduates may face difficulty in getting support from the tradition bound rural communities. This is a problem because of their relative youth and the isolation of their training from the problems of rural communities.

The most critical question, however, is the extent to which the concept of EWP is capable of contributing to the solution of the problems confronted by Zimbabwe. Considered as a solution to the school leaver problem, it is clear that this depends upon the capacity of the country to employ school leavers.

At the moment, the government seems to be moving cautiously. It seems to be weighing two possible ways to develop EWP. The first would be as a means to provide some of the intermediate level skills required by the economy. The second would be as an alternative education system. Achieving the former strategy will be far easier than achieving the latter.

IX. CONCLUSION

The post-independence national debate within Zimbabwe on improving the relevancy of education is in its infancy. How the concept of EWP will be transformed into the realities of the classroom and teacher training remain to be seen. In this debate, it is important to take six factors into consideration in shaping curriculum changes.

First, there are the past experiences. To many blacks in rural areas, EWP sounds all too familiar to Phelps-Stokism and the vocationalisation of the curriculum advocated by Keigwin. Therefore, EWP cannot simply be another name for the vocationalisation of education. It must avoid the negative connotation of being an instrument to keep rural people in rural areas, denying them access to modern sector employment. Therefore, policy makers must attempt to demonstrate how the new concept of EWP differs from previous efforts to vocationalise education.

Second, efforts to change the curriculum in the name of relevancy must take into account the multi-dimensional nature of education and the way in which people in rural and urban communities view education. Thus, changes in curriculum need to harmonise with the aspirations and perceptions of the people served. This suggests participation of local people and groups in the formulation of national education policy to achieve grass-root support for educational change.

Third, curriculum reform cannot ignore the linkages between levels within the education system. That is, a change at one level will succeed only if it is tied to corresponding changes at other levels. Therefore, a program such as EWP is not merely one designed to change primary or secondary education in isolation. It has to involve changes in examinations and post-secondary education.

Fourth, in considering how to make education relevant, it is important not to lose sight of the evidence on the relationship of education to overall economic growth. Most of the studies on the determinants of growth indicate that so-called irrelevant systems are already major contributor's to economic growth. Thus, the issue should focus on whether the envisaged changes in the name of relevancy will strengthen or weaken this relationship. Therefore, the marginal or net gain to be achieved must be weighed against the cost of the changes. Introducing agriculture, wood working, metal working, and other skills training into primary and secondary schools is costly. Thus, are their costs justified in terms of the gains to be realised?

Fifth, what alternatives exist which might achieve the same or better results but at a lower cost? For example, the high correlation between basic education skills such as literacy and numeracy strongly suggest that emphasis on improving the way these subjects are taught might have greater economic pay-off to society than introducing vocational subjects. This is particularly true in primary education where children are often too young to begin occupational skills training. One thing is certain, the cost of improving the quality of instruction of subjects already taught is likely to be considerably cheaper than introducing vocational/occupation skills training in each secondary school.

Sixth, and finally, it is important to raise the question whether it is the responsibility of the formal primary and secondary education system to offer differential occupational skills training or should this form of training be left to specialised post-primary and post-secondary institutions. The bulk of the evidence argues for the latter rather than the former approach.

In summary, consideration of the above six factors suggests that a strategy for curriculum reform would have the following features:

1. At the formal primary and secondary level reform would be directed at strengthening the quality of basic subjects such as language, mathematics, science and history.

2. These qualitative changes would encompass developing learning materials and teaching methods which were relevant to the environment in which most children live. Thus, rather than teach agriculture as a separate subject, practical knowledge and agricultural skills would be integrated into the teaching of the core subjects.

3. These qualitative changes must be rewarded in terms of the instruments which measure success within the education system, that is, they must be reflected in examinations which determine advancement to higher levels within the system.

4. Occupational skills training should be left to institutions and structures outside the formal primary and secondary education system. Ministries other than Education and Culture, such as Ministry of Manpower, Ministry of Agriculture, and Ministry of Health, should acquire adequate financial support to strengthen their programs. Furthermore, nongovernmental organisations which offer complementary skills training programs should be promoted. And finally, private and public sector employers should be encouraged to expand their in-service and on-the-job training programs. For the private sector, this can be accomplished through incentives such as tax rebates for on-the-job training.

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ANNEX E

EDUCATION AND SOCIO-ECONOMIC QUALITY IN ZIMBABWE

by

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I. Introduction

The aim of the Government of Zimbabwe is to build "a socialist, democratic and egalitarian society."1/ The present study is an attempt to examine what is being done to achieve this goal.

Education is regarded as "an important Government instrument for achieving equity."2/ Consequently, it has been declared a human right and basic human need. The Government of Zimbabwe accepts this relationship between education and equality and has made education an important dimension of its program to redress social and economic inequalities.

How is education being shaped to achieve equality? More importantly what are the prospects that education will create a more democratic and equal society? In this paper, inequalities are examined in the context of the various post-independence educational developments.

Part I of the paper is an overview of Zimbabwe's educationa policies and aims. Government policy documents and other available materials are used for this purpose. These policies and aims provide a back-drop for reviewing post-independence educational developments. This section looks criticially at these policies to determine if contrary to government policy they have contributed to and reinforced inequality. Also the extent to which inaction in some critical areas has had an adverse effect on the creation of equality is examined.

Part II is an analytical description of educational inequalities in Zimbabwe. Of particular concern are any inequalities which may have emerged since independence. This is not meant to downplay the importance of "inherited" educational inequalities but to forge a bridge between the past and the present educational inequalities. This recognizes the rapidly changing socio-economic context in which education is operating.

Part III places educational inequalities in their broader context. It examines the socio-economic context in which educational changes are taking place and in which equality is to be achieved. A major focus is the economy. The paper provides an overview of the structure of the economy and the employment sector; it examines income distribution and discusses the ownership of productive assets. The paper highlights some of the paradoxes inherent in the Zimbabwean economy.

Part IV looks more closely at the relationships between education, inequality and equality. It explores how education influences and is influenced by the society it serves. The

question addressed is, given the current educational changes and the nature of the Zimbabwean society, what are the prospects of creating equality?

Part V concludes with a discussion of some policy implications. These are derived from the analytical sections of the paper.

II. Background

Zimbabwe's pre-independence policies and the superstructures of government "were designed to maintain a sound economy but an inequitable socio-economic order."3/ Political independence achieved in 1980 started the process of economic and social change. The new Government of Zimbabwe is committed to addressing the developmental needs of the poor majority.

Educational Policy

The Ministry of Education and Culture has not fully articulated its educational policy. This policy is an evolving one. Much of the present educational policy is derived from three sources: the ZANU (PF) Election Manifesto, the Government's economic policy document "Growth with Equity" and public speeches by the Minister of Education and Culture.

The ZANU (PF) Election Manifesto has three objectives which have a bearing on educational policy.

Promotion of National Consciousness and the Unity of All People of Zimbabwe

> "The national concept and the sense of belonging..... should submerge and destroy tribal, regionalistic and racial animosity."

Involvement of All the People in the Development of the Country's Resources

> "The productive process must involve them (the people) as full participants, in both the decision making process, management and control of the industries concerned, and in the sharing of benefits in accordance with their contribution of inputs of labour."

The Development of a Socialist Society

> "In working towards the Socialist transformation of Zimbabwean society, a ZANU Government will..... recognise historical, social and other political realities of Zimbabwe. One of these existing practical realities is the capitalist system which cannot be transformed overnight. Hence, while a

socialist transformation process will be brought underway in many of the existing economic sectors, it is recognised that private enterprise will have to continue until circumstances are ripe for socialist change."4/

The following primary objectives contained in Growth with Equity have important implications for educational policy also:

- To achieve a sustained high rate of economic growth and development.
- To raise incomes and standards of living of all the people.
- To expand productive employment of rural farmers and urban workers.
- To create and maintain high levels of employment in all sectors and at all levels of skill and responsibility.
- To train, mobilise and utilise fully the country's human resources.
- To provide, improve and extend social services to lower income groups in the urban and rural areas. 5/

Educational Aims

The following are the principles of education contained in the ZANU (PF) Election Manifesto:

- The abolition of racial education and utilisation of the education system to develop in the young a non-racial attitude, a common national identity and common loyalty.
- The establishment of free and compulsory primary and secondary education for all children regardless of race.
- The abolition of sex discrimination in the education system.
- The orientation of the education system to national goals.
- The basic right of every adult who had no or little educational opportunity to literacy and adult education.

- The special role of education as a major instrument for social transformation. 6/

Growth with Equity outlines the following educational aims:

- Education should enable Zimbabweans to acquire knowledge which will influence their attitudes, values and skills.

- Education should act as an instrument for effecting pupils access to other basic human needs.

- Education is expected to cover a wide spectrum in its content and form, yet at the same time imbued with local values and combined with practical knowledge of concrete conditions.

- Education is expected to contribute to more rapid adoption of improved agricultural methods and higher productivity of the rural people. 7/

The major aims of education have also been enunciated by Dr. Mutumbuka, the Minister of Education and Culture. These are perhaps best illustrated in his address to the August-September 1981, "Seminar on Education in Zimbabwe, Past, Present and Future." His speech emphasised the following points:

- Education should be mass-based in order to serve the development needs of the masses.

- Education must emphasise unity and equality.

- The curriculum must be over-hauled so as to give it a scientific and technological bias.

- Every school must become a productive center. At least one third to half of the school time must be spent on theory and practice of productive work.

- All Zimbabwean children should have a working knowledge of English as well as Shona and Ndebele.

- Teachers must be prepared to change their ideas and expectations.

- Higner education institutions must serve the people.

- Non-formal education should equip the masses with the necessary skills to control their lives.

- Mass literacy should be used as a weapon for development.

> Educationists must move towards a unitary system of education which must provide equal educational opportunities for all Zimbabweans irrespective of race and irrespective of whether they live in the urban or in the rural areas.8/

III. Post Independence Developments

How far has educational reform developed along the lines suggested above? What are the main changes? What is the impact of these changes on inequality in education as well as in the society at large? The following section discusses some of these post-independence educational developments.

Education has expanded phenomenally in less than two years after attaining political independence. Other independe African states have pursued a similar goal for more than a decade with limited success. Primary education is "free", although not yet compulsory. What follows is a brief descript of access patterns at the primary and secondary levels. After all widening access to educational opportunities is the first step towards the creation of equality.

Some statistics are worth noting. In 1979, Zimbabwe had 2,401 and 177 primary and secondary schools respectively. (See Table I). In 1982, primary schools have been increased by 58.4% to 3,803 and secondary schools by 314.7% to 734. Of special significance is the opening of secondary schools in rural areas. However, a considerable number of the new secondary schools are "upper-tops", that is, Form One and Two secondary classes attached to existing primary schools. In 1981, 61.5% of the secondary schools were upper-tops.

Enrollments increased spectacularly. In 1980, 376,392 pupils were enrolled in Grade One. This was 2.2 times the 1979 Grade One enrollment. Further, in 1980 approximately 135,000 new pupils entered the system between Grades Two to Seven. The total 1980 primary enrollment was 1.5 times the 1979 primary enrollment.

In 1981, there were 455,536 pupils in Grade One. This was 1.2 times the 1980 Grade One enrollment. An additional 100,000 pupils entered the system between Grades Two and Seven. The 1981 total primary enrollment was 2.1 and 1.4 times the 1979 and 1980 primary enrollments respectively.

Finally, in 1982, 410,453 pupils were enrolled in Grade One. This is 45,083 pupils less than the 1981 Grade One enrollment. But approximately 20,000 pupils entered the system between Grades Two and Seven. However, the 1982 total primary enrollment is only 1.2 times the 1981 primary enrollment.

The decline in Grade One enrollments is likely to be temporary. With a population growth rate of nearly 4.0%, the educational system is on the brink of a major expansion. However, the danger is that the drop in the 1982 Grade One enrollment may create a false sense of security.

Secondary enrollments had a relatively slow start. Rapid secondary expansion started in 1981: Form I intake went up 3.7 times from 22,201 in 1980 to 82,262 in 1981. Also, over 2,600 additional pupils were enrolled in Form II. But the most significant change occurred in the primary to secondary "transition rate": in 1981 84.7% of the 1982 Grade Sevens proceeded to Form I - compared with only 28.5% in 1980. Secondary enrollment doubled between 1980 and 1981.

In 1982 the primary to secondary transition rate dropped to 73.7%; but over 2,200 pupils entered the system between Forms II and IV. The total secondary enrollment is 3.0 and 1.6 times the 1980 and 1981 enrollments respectively.

Enrollments were boosted by the reopening of schools closed during the war and opening of new schools. "Double-sessions" and "hot-seating" arrangements enabled the government to increase primary enrollments without building new schools. In 1981 there were 9,583 primary "hot seating" classes. Although the expansion of primary and secondary school enrollments still outpaces the capacity of the country to recruit and train teachers, the teaching force has also increased spectacularly by 131.1% from 22,433 in 1979 to 57,634 in 1982. To meet primary school teacher requirements, the Government introduced a new teacher training program-ZINTEC and the intake at the traditional teacher training colleges has also been increased. 9/ Qualified teachers were recruited from Australia, Canada and the United Kingdom. There are nearly 700 overseas teachers in Zimbabwe.10/

By comparison curriculum reforms have been relatively slow and those introduced have yet to make an impact. "Education With Production" (EWP) has been added to the school curriculum. The objective of EWP is that "every teacher and every pupil must study and work towards the improvement of the local standard of living through the application of their learning to production."11/ To promote the concept of EWP, the Minister of Education and Culture established the "Zimbabwe Foundation for Education with Production" (ZIMFEP). Its role is "to initiate and establish pilot projects related to "Education with Production". 12/ The foundation mainly oversees the former refugee schools which had their origin in Mozambique and have continued in Zimbabwe.

Another significant development has been the Zim-Science Project. Zim-Science is a collaborative effort involving the

University of Zimbabwe's Science Education Centre and the Ministry of Education and Culture. It is a cost-effective method of meeting the laboratory requirements of secondary schools, particularly those in rural areas. The project has created a simplified package which contains all the apparatus and chemicals needed to carry out experiments at Form I and II level. The kit is accompanied by a well structured pupil and teachers' guide book.

The kit is produced locally at an estimated cost of Z$1,500 per package. On the other hand a conventional school laboratory is estimated at Z$30,000-Z$50,000. The total cost of the 1981 program was Z$730,000 and this was for 463 centres catering for 40,000 pupils.13/

In a bid to unify and maximise the efficiency of the education system, the 1979 educational administrative structure has been rearranged and refined. The ministry now has two deputy ministers: one for primary education and the other for secondary and higher education. The ministry is administered by a Permanent Secretary. It is divided into four functional divisions: Education and Services; Professional Staff and Teacher Training; Administration, Finance and Planning; and Culture. Ministry staff includes 150 professionals and 233 supporting staff.14/ In addition to Head of Office, there are also six regional offices. Each region is controlled by a Regional Director, assisted by Deputy Regional Directors, Education Officers, District Education Officers and other support staff.

As regards the question of racial segregation, schooling has been desegrated more or less along the lines determined by the 1979 Education Act. Race is no longer the primary determinant of enrollment in the formerly segregated schools. Family economic conditions which determine the locations of residence have replaced race as the most important determinant of enrollment in these schools.

Finally, plans are in progress to define a new education policy. A Bill to repeal the 1979 Education Act will be presented to parliament this year. Whether or not the new education policy will represent a radical shift from the present remains to be seen.

What has been the impact of current educational developments on inequalities? To address this question involves defining and setting criteria for equality. While educational expansion obviously supports the policy objective to create a more equitable system, they are not necessarily synonymous.

Creating equality involves the orchestration of two almost separate activities. These activities should occur simultaneously since they reinforce each other. The first is

the creation of equality within the education system. This involves two processes: (1) providing equal educational opportunity and (2) ensuring equal achievement or equality of results. The second is the creation of socio-economic equality. The results of post-independence educational changes in terms of creating equality have been somewhat mixed. In some instances existing educational inequalities have been perpetuated and reinforced. The following section of the paper examines some of the quantitative and qualitative aspects of these educational inequalities.

IV. Educational Inequalities

Quantitative Aspects

First, there is a need to mention some caveats. First, it is still premature to make firm statements about quantitative inequalities, since the provision of equal educational opportunity is a fairly recent phenomenon. The creation of equal educational opportunity is a complex and lengthy process.

Second, some of the critical data, particularly on demography and school facilities is not available, incomplete, or does not exist in an appropriate form. For example, while there are regional and district population estimates, these are not broken into individual age groups.

Third, some of the available data especially on enrollments must be treated with care. The reason is that the Ministry of Education and Culture enrollment date is collected and supplied by Headmasters who, as Heyneman (1980) pointed out, are not neutral sources.15/ Government per capita grants are partly linked to pupil numbers and in such situations the probability of counting errors is high.

Finally, internal migration and settlement patterns are changing rapidly as land policies and perceptions about economic opportunities (or hardships) shift. Of special importance are the implications of resettlement programs and squatting on the population's distribution and the provision of social facilities. Resettlement and squatting not only distort the enrollment patterns but also make planning extremely difficult.

With these caveats in mind, let us turn to an examination of the impact of post-independence changes on inherited quantitative educational inequalities. At the core of the question of equality of educational opportunity is access. It is a measure of new entrants into the education system as a percentage of the eligible population. According to the organisational structure of the Zimbabwean educational system, the total number of six year olds in the population

in a given year constitutes the eligible population for Grade One of primary school. In view of the backlog (inherited) from the past) the total population aged 5 to 12, who have not yet entered Grade One, must also be considered the eligible population for enrollment in primary school. The eligible population for secondary is that between 13 and 19 years.

(1) Enrollment Trends

This section examines enrollment trends. Specifically, it attempts to address systematically the following key questions: What is the school age population and how is it growing? How does enrollment compare with school age population? How many schools does Zimbabwe have? How are populations, enrollments and schools spatially distributed?

Zimbabwe has a population between 7.7 million and 10 million. Over 90% of the population is black. Non-blacks are made up of Europeans, Asians and Coloureds.

The population's demographic characteristics and growth trends strongly influence present and future enrollment trends. The birth rate is estimated to be 49/1000 and the death rate 15/1000, giving the country an official 3.4% annual growth rate. Since some births and deaths are not recorded, the actual annual growth rate has been variously estimated to be between 3.4% and 4.2%.

The 5-19 year old make up nearly 42% of the total population. Primary and secondary enrollments make up 28.4% of the total population. Approximately 13.5% of the school age population then is not in school. But it does not mean that all the 13.6% are not productively engaged outside the formal school system.

However, enrollments are partly influenced by patterns of population distribution. The population distribution patterns in turn reflect the complex interplay of factors like climate, geography, socio-economic conditions, political considerations and history. At present 82.5% of the non-blacks are urbanised while only 11.6% of the blacks are urbanised. Bulawayo and Harare account for 71.3% of the country's urban population. In these circumstances we should expect large schools with big classes in urban areas, and small schools with small classes in rural areas, reflecting the population distribution patterns.

Before independence schooling opportunities for black children were limited. Moreover, many of those who went to school dropped-out before completing. Riddell (1980) calculated that out of every 1,000 black school age children, 25%

never went to school, 33.7% completed primary, 6% went to secondary 3.7% completed primary, 6% went to secondary 3.7% reached Form IV and less than 0.3% reached the lower Form IV.16

Post-independence changes have altered this situation. A higher percentage of children of all races eligible for school enrollment is now in school. These changes are best examined by level.

(i) Primary

Zimbabwe, has made impressive quantitative progress. -Its 1981 Grade One enrollment is even higher than its 1982 Grade One enrollment. And it was mentioned above that over 100,000 children also entered primary between Grades Two and Seven in 1981. Because of this rapid expansion, it is often assumed that Zimbabwe has achieved universal primary education. There are reasons for doubts. First, there appear to be some inconsistencies in the enrollment data. Second, and more importantly, there are some documented examples of certain population sub-groups that have not benefitted, from the expansion. The numbers are not insignificant.

For example, Brand (1982) in his study on "Zimbabwe's Poor" quotes from a survey done on five commercial farms in the Bindura District in 1981. It reveals that only 40.1% of the children of school-going age were actually in attendance 17/ Further, it is known, that tribal minorities like the Tonga, Venda, Barwe, Chikunda and Hungwe - who live along the northern, eastern and south-eastern borders of the country-have very few primary schools, let alone secondary schools.

The government intends to resettle 162,000 families on white-owned commercial farms over the next three years. The question is: will educational facilities be provided in time? Along side resettlement is the problem of squatting. The number of squatters, though unknown, is increasing. There are estimated to be 90,000 squatters in Manicaland alone.18/ This creates a dilemma for the government. If it provides school facilities for these squatter settlements, it legitimise them. On the other hand, to not do so denies educational opportunity to children,

This brief discussion raises a question regarding exactly who are benefitting from the post independence educational expansion. The data, albeit limited, suggests that the more advanced regions and population subgroups are able to capitalis on their earlier educational traditions and in the process compound the pattern of relative inequality. 19/

In 1979, primary enrollment stood at 819,586. In 1980, 1981 and 1982 it rose to 1,235,994; 1,715,169 and 1,934,614

respectively. The 1980, 1981 and 1982 distribution of primary enrollments by region were as follows:

Region	Primary enrollment as a % of Total Primary Enrollment		
	1980	1981	1982
Harare	10.0	7.0	6.8
Manicaland	17.3	16.9	17.0
Mashonaland	23.6	26.3	27.1
Masvingo	15.1	15.3	15.2
Matabeleland	17.8	18.4	18.3
Midlands	16.2	16.1	15.6

It will be observed that comparing 1980 and 1982, there was little change in the relative distribution of enrollment. This is the conclusion if one assumes the decline in Harare and increase in Mashonaland is simple result of families who had fled the war returning to the environs with the advent of peace. Thus, there has been no significant post-independence shift in the pattern of enrollment.

Since the schools reconstruction program has favoured communities which already had schools before the war, the limited data suggests that previous inequities in access to education have carried over into the post-independence period.

(ii) Secondary

Perhaps the most significant progress in terms of widening access to educational opportunities was made at the secondary level. The Grade Seven to Form I "transition rate" changed from 27% to 84.8% between 1979 to 1980 and 1980 to 1981. And Dr. Makura, the Secretary for the Ministry of Education and Culture, is reported as having said that:

> "We have made provision that all the Grade Seven pupils will move to Form I next year (1983). There is no policy of weeding out yet, and the pupils will proceed to 'O' level within four or five years, depending on ability."20/

However, transition rates vary by region. The 1981-82 Grade Seven to Form I transition rate ranged from 99.5% in Harare to 53.5% in Mashonaland. Yet, Harare and Mashonaland accounted for only 10.1% and 30.7% of the 1981 Grade Seven enrollments respectively. Overall, urban children have a much better chance of going to secondary school than their rural counterparts.

There are also quantitative inequalities between and

within regions in the way in which secondary schools are distributed by type. Zimbabwe has 734 secondary schools. Private (80%), Government Group B(15%) and Group A (5%). These are distributed as follows:

	No. of Schools	Percentage of Each School Type		
		Group A	Group B	Private
Harare	44	38.6	34.1	27.3
Manicaland	100	2.0	11.0	87.0
Mashonaland	213	1.4	8.0	90.7
Masvingo	118	0.9	9.3	89.8
Matabeleland	113	7.1	25.7	67.2
Midlands	146	2.1	21.2	76.7

It was stated above that over 60% of the secondary schools are "upper-tops". This is a crucial factor in considering educational inequalities. The main point is that upper-tops are not qualitatively comparable with the conventional secondary schools. This point will be expanded in the section on qualitative inequalities. Suffice to say, most private secondary schools, are upper-tops, these are located in the rural areas and they cater for 60.6% of the secondary school pupils.

Thus the transition rates are misleading. While access to Form I and II have increased dramatically, given the relative distribution of secondary schools with Forms I- IV, it is clear that most secondary students will be unable to advance from Form II to Form III. This will begin to occur in 1983.

(2) Geographical Access

A factor which also influences enrollment is geographical access, that is, the relationship between school location and population distribution. Since there are more day than boarding schools in Zimbabwe, it is a considerably important factor. In general, children in rural areas walk long distances to school, whether primary or secondary. However, with fewer secondary schools the average distance walked to secondary schools is significantly longer than the one to primary schools. With the emphasis on day schools spatial planning becomes very important.

In 1982, only 8.3% and 16% of the primary and secondary schools respectively were located in urban areas. (Table 2). These schools enrolled 13% and 36.8% of the primary and secondary pupils respectively. Secondary enrollments are skewed in favour of urban areas for three main reasons. First, historically secondary schools have been concentrated in urban areas. Second, the new secondary schools are mostly upper-tops which go up to Form II whereas most urban secondary schools reach Form IV. Third, through hot-seating, the Government managed to increase urban enrollments without building new schools.

The ratio of primary to secondary schools is 5.2:1 (see Table 2). However, it varies by region: Harare 4:1, Manicaland 6.6:1, Mashonaland 4.3:1, Masvingo 5:1, Matabeleland 7.5:1, and Midlands 4.3:1. Not only is each secondary school serving more primary schools on average in Matabeleland, but each secondary school also serves a more scattered population. In other words, pupils travel longer distances to school.

Table 2 also shows that the area served by each primary and secondary school varies by region. For primary schools, it ranges from 3:1 km^2 in Harare to 66:7 km^2 in Matabeleland for primary schools. For the secondary schools, it ranges from 12:3 km^2 to 500:7 km^2 in Harare and Matabeleland respectively. The area served by Matabeleland rural secondary schools is even larger because 28.6% of the secondary schools are located in urban areas.

In summary, rapid expansion appears to have resulted in reinforcing patterns of access to primary education which existed prior to independence. The school reconstruction program has contributed by rebuilding the school physical infrastructure as it was before independence. If the population of primary school age children is actually larger than the official estimated, it is likely that the primary enrollment rate is overestimated. If so, it is possible that relative access to primary education is in 1982 no different that it was in mid-1970's prior to intensification of the war. A potentially more serious problem is posed by expansion of secondary schools. Increasing the transition rate favours urban over rural communities and Mashonaland over Matabeleland. A disproportional number of urban children have access to fully graded secondary schools than rural children. As a consequence, most rural children will be "locked-out" of secondary education after Form II while majority of urban children are able to proceed to 'O' level. The disparity between rural and urban children will be greatest in Matabeleland given, the far more limited access of rural children to secondary schools. The real danger in this scenario is that the post-independence period has witnessed a widening rather than a narrowing of regional disparities within Zimbabwe.

Qualitative Aspects

Quantity with Quality

Equalisation of school quality is a critical issue since pupil academic performance partly depends on it. Although a wide range of resources determine school quality, teachers, school facilities and good school management are the most important. The distribution of these resources is uneven among the various school types in Zimbabwe.

Teachers

The critical factors are teacher qualification, experience and language ability. Prior to independence the education system had proportionately more qualified and experienced teachers than it currently does simply because in absolute terms it was smaller. Moreover, previous discriminatory policies drove most educated blacks into the teaching profession. However, post-independence expansion necessitated an increase of the teaching force. Also elimination of discrimination in the labour market resulted in trained teachers leaving the teaching profession to take up other jobs in the private and public sectors. As a result there has been an increase in the number of untrained and inexperienced teachers.

In 1982, out of 45,873 primary school teachers, 99.1% are members of either the Public Service or U.T.S.21/ Out of these 45,467 teachers; 47.9% are untrained; 33.3% hold non-standard qualifications and 18.8% hold standard qualifications.22/ Thus, untrained and non-standard qualification teachers account for 81.2% of the primary school teaching force.

At the secondary level, out of 8,386 teachers, 71.9% are members of either the Public Service or U.T.S. Out of these 6.033 teachers, 11.9% are untrained; 6.2% hold non-standard qualifications and 81.9% have standard qualifications. In the future, if secondary enrollment continues to rise rapidly the proportion of standard qualification teachers will likely fall since teacher training colleges will be unable to keep up with rapid enrollment increases. More untrained teachers will be recruited to meet the demand for teachers.

Although official Ministry of Education and Culture statistics do not show the distribution of teachers by qualification, qualified and experienced teachers are concentrated in urban areas. Overall, Government schools, since most are in urban areas, have more qualified teachers than private schools.

Inequalities among school types are most glaring when upper-tops are compared with the conventional secondary schools. Looking at teachers alone, upper-tops are serviced mainly by primary teachers. In spite of the fact that teaching in upper-tops represents personal advancement for the primary teachers, they do not necessarily possess the skills required to teach at this level. If upper-tops are allowed to go up to Form IV some upper-tops teachers may end up teaching at the level at which their own education ended.

Since no overall effort has been made to redeploy trained teachers, Government schools and the 'old' private schools have retained their trained staff. Where some of the staff have

emigrated, they have been replaced by qualified staff. The system of teacher deployment and the reluctance of teachers to work in rural areas has resulted in an unequal distribution of qualified teachers. Therefore, the increase in enrollments and number of trained teachers has affected rural areas more than urban contributing to the widening of qualitative inequalities.

However, redeployment of qualified teachers would not necessarily be the solution to the problem of teacher-related school inequalities. Such a policy would probably increase the exodus of trained teachers from teaching to other jobs. This is particularly likely as long as there exists a shortage of skilled manpower. Therefore, the critical issue is how to make teaching more attractive to qualified secondary school and university graduates.

School Facilities

The principal items are administration offices, classrooms, staff accommodation, sports fields, furniture, desks, equipment, materials, textbooks, duplicating machines, audio-visual aids, radio and television. While there is no agreement on how these various items impact on school quality - measured in terms of pupil academic performance - the consensus is that the availability of textbooks is important. 23/

Textbooks

The exact state of textbook availability in Zimbabwe schools is unclear. The post-independence rapid school expansion precipitated a general shortage of textbooks. The shortage is more acute in certain subjects and in some schools. While the textbooks shortage exists in all subjects, at the secondary level it is most critical in the sciences. However, these shortages are not evenly spread across all forms. They are most common at Form I and II, where the greatest expansion has taken place.

By school type, the shortages are more acute in the "upper-tops" and the District Council schools. Although the District Council grants from MOEC include a book grant, Councils are not required to expend this grant on textbooks.

School Management

School quality is also influenced by how a school is managed. The way a Headmaster runs a school impinges on such issues as discipline, absenteeism, teacher recruitment and student-staff relations. These issues in turn define the character of a school. A headmaster's leadership style also

carries over into areas like the school's policy on homework, role of extra-mural activities and teacher morale.

In developing countries like Zimbabwe, there is no formal training for headmasters. However, inservice courses for headmasters are sometimes organised during school vacations. Headmasters are chosen from the rank of practicing teachers. They are chosen on the basis of their academic qualifications and experience, rather than their administrative and managerial abilities.

Zimbabwe has 3,796 and 169 primary schools headmasters and deputy headmasters respectively. However, 23.6% of the headmasters are non-teaching, that is, they concentrate on school administration and do not have classroom duties. Whether or not schools with non-teaching headmasters are better managed than those with teaching headmasters is difficult to tell.

There are 121 and 61 secondary headmasters and deputy headmasters respectively. Most secondary headmasters teach in their schools. However, upper-tops, being additions to primary schools, are headed by primary headmasters. There is potential for conflict here since secondary teachers have traditionally viewed themselves as a separate group from primary.

However, it is difficult to examine school quality inequalities resulting from schools management by region or district since the data is not available.

Other Examples of Educational Inequalities

Sex Inequality

Women constitute 51% of the total population. But there are less women per 1,000 males between the ages of 0 and 19, and more women per 1,000 males between the ages of 20 and 64. 24/ In 1981 girls constituted 47.9% of the 1,714,619 primary enrollment and 48.3% of Grade Seven cohorts. At the secondary level, girls constituted 41.8% of the total enrollment, 40.8% of the Form I intake and only 29.8% of the Upper Sixty enrollment. Female teacher training students comprised 47.8% of the teachers training colleges enrollment. At University, females constituted 21.2% of the undergraduate enrollment.

Underneath these easily quantifiable sex inequalities lie the more subtle types. Subjects like cookery and needlework are reserved almost exclusively for girls, while metalwork and woodwork are reserved for boys. This influences self-concept development regarding appropriate and inappropriate social roles.

Another example of sex inequality is the pattern of subject choice at the secondary level, in vocational education courses (technical and trades) and in degree courses at the University. The majority of girls tend to specialise in arts subjects, nursing, secretarial and other commerce related courses.

Health Status

The state of pupil health in Zimbabwe needs to be looked at very closely. Health status impacts directly on school performance.25/ Many school children in rural areas have at some time suffered from such diseases as malnutrition, kwashiokor, bilharzia and malaria. Dr. Taylor of the Blair Research Laboratory estimated that as many as 90% of school children in some parts of Zimbabwe's rural areas could be suffering from bilharzia.26/ Furthermore, 99.9% of the water supplies in rural areas still come from rivers, dams, wells and springs. Thus, water-borne diseases remain a major threat to the health status of rural children.

Another consideration which affects pupils health is eating habits. Most school children in rural areas and the former townships in urban areas, are not given good breakfast. It is known that a considerable number do not eat breakfast at all. Hunger has an adverse effect on mental and physical functions. While there is little evidence in Zimbabwe of the linkages between health status and educational performance, the available evidence on the higher incidence of morbidity in rural than urban areas would *a priori* suggest lower academic performance.

Some Conclusions

The following are some preliminary remarks on issues which have important policy implications:

1. An across-the-board equalisation policy tends to widen rather than narrow educational inequalities. The existence in society of groups or sections of the population with special needs and interests necessitates the adoption of more flexible policies to achieve equalisation. The present strategy ignores the special interests of women, certain age groups, rural areas and ethnic minorities.

2. The factors which have most influence on educational inequalities have their roots outside the education system. For example, the pupil's socio-economic background has a profound influence on his academic performance. Policies to achieve equalisation need to take this factor into account. Thus, those who have been disadvantaged may need to receive a higher than equal share of national educational resources.

3. Creation of educational equality calls for closer cooperation among ministries, the private sector and parents. Without this, equalisation in the school would likely be one-sided.

4. Zimbabwe needs to define the criteria of educational expansion and equality program. There is a need to address the following kinds of issues: What proportion of primary schools learners are to proceed to secondary education? How are the pupils chosen? If continuance in secondary education is left to the individual, then the population groups living in areas of early educational development will be disproportionately represented at the post-primary level.

5. There appears to be a serious contradiction in the current educational strategy. While educational expansion is taking place, no real efforts have been made to change the function of examinations and educational certificates. As a result, competition has become stiffer. The "have-nots", to whom education (and examinations) have been extended, perform poorly because they lack access to school and non-school qualitative factors such as textbooks, trained teachers, socio-economic background, and good health which have profound impacts on academic performance.

V. Economic Context

Equality of educational opportunity is meaningless in isolation. It should be related to after school outcomes if it is not to become an end in itself. This section examines the salient features of the economic context in which educational developments are taking place.

Many observers have pointed out that Zimbabwe has a strong and diversified economy with enormous potential for further rapid development. However, an examination of the structure and functioning of this economy reveals extreme differentiation and discontinuities. In short, it is exceedingly unequal. Striking inequalities are to be found in the production and sharing of national wealth, the owner ship of productive assets and the structure and functioning of the employment sector.

The Structure and Functioning of the Economy

In 1981, Zimbabwe had a GNP of Z$3,942 million, that is an average per capita GNP of $510. In terms of GNP per capita, Zimbabwe is way above many other developing countries. Agriculture accounts for 12.9% of the GDP, Manufacturing 25.8% and mining 8.6%. It also has a sophisticated financial structure and a sound transport and communication infra-

structure.

Real economic growth between 1965 and 1974 averaged 7% per year, but declined at an average of 2.6% annually between 1975 and 1979. Between 1980 and 1982, economic growth averaged 9.3% a year. In 1980 alone, (the year of independence) real growth reached 14%.

Kay (1979) calculated that from 1954 to 1964 Gross National Income (at 1954 prices) increased by 52% allowing a 9% increase in agerage real income per capita (from £57 to £ 62 p.a.). 27/ Growth between 1965 and 1970 was retarded by the uncertainties caused by the break up of the Federation of Rhodesia and Nyasaland in 1963. However, from 1971 to 1981 Gross Domestic Product (market prices) increased by 31.6% (from Z$1,244,000,000 to Z$3,942,000,000) and the average annual income per capita increased by 128.7% (from Z$233 to Z$510).

This picture of relative overall national affluence and impressive economic performance is misleading. It masks gross inequalities. Three areas are selected to illustrate this. They are income, employment, and asset inequalities.

Income Inequalities

The 1981 national wage bill (excluding Agriculture and Forestry) was Z$2,194.1 million. This represented increases of 26.7% and 60.9% on the 1980 and 1979 Wage Bills respectively. Individual earnings, however, vary enormously. A salary survey involving employees of 55 companies in Zimbabwe showed that basic pay per month ranges from $117 (for an unskilled) to $2,824 (for a Managing Director). 28/

There is also a historical "wage-gap" between blacks and whites. It is a legacy of past policies which were focused on attacting English speaking migrants to work in Zimbabwe. Moreover, the aim was to attract settlers rather than expatriates. Potential recruits were offered high salaries to enable them to lead a life-style and a standard of living comparable or higher than that available to professional men and skilled workers in Western Europe, South Africa, North America, and Australia.

Employment Inequalities

Zimbabwe has a dual labour system, one formal and the other informal. The income inequalities discussed above pertain to the formal or modern sector. Very little is known about the employment situation in the formal or traditional sector- the sector in which the majority live and work.

In 1981, formal sector employment stood at 1,038,200. This represented a 2.8% increase over 1980. Numbers employed in Finance, Insurance and Real Estate rose by 10.4%; those in Manufacturing by 8.7%; Construction by 11.6%; Distribution, Restaurants and Hotels by 6.7%; Transport and Communication by 7.7%; Public Administration by 17.0%; Education by 41.1%; and Health by 7.2%.

Overall net employment growth was reduced by declines in Agriculture (the largest employer) by 10.0%; Private Domestic Services (the third largest employer) by 3.1% and Electricity and Water by 1.5%. The falls in Agriculture and Domestic Service were due partly to increased statutory minimum wages and continuing emigration. The decline in mining was partly due to falling world market prices, rising production costs, and loss of skilled manpower.

It is also important to note that although non-blacks comprise less than 12% of the work force, their importance in the formal employment sector is much greater. In 1976, non-blacks comprised 11.5% of the total workforce, but comprised 69% of the total workforce in Finance, Banking and Insurance; 33% in Transport and Communications; 31% in Health Services; 30% in Public Administration; 27% in Electricity and Water and 14.4% in Manufacturing. But 52% of the black workforce was in Agriculture and Domestic Services. This pattern is rapidly changing. Although employment statistics by race are no longer published, it appears that blacks have entered both the formal private and public sectors in increasing members since independence. The rates of increase in both immigration and emigration fell over the first eight months of 1982: 12,275 people left the country while 5,027 arrived to settle. Overall, in 1981, 20,531 people left the country and 7,794 came to settle - a net loss of 12,737. The 1981 rate of immigration (21.6%) fell faster than that of emigration (19.1%). Consequently the net migration gap continues to widen. A more immediate cause for concern is the role of decline in immigration since fewer skilled Zimbabweans are returning to replace those leaving.

Inequalities in the Ownership of Productive Assets

Land

In Zimbabwe, land is the most important productive asset. The story of the racial nature of land division in pre-independence Zimbabwe is well known. The focus here is on the practical implications of this division of land on life in the communal lands.

The "given area" of communal or African land consisted of 180,000 km^2 or 18,000,000 hectares. Vincent and Thomas (1961)

agro-ecological study shows that 10% of the African land occurs in Regions I and II, that is land of quality; 15% in Region III, which is land of mediocre potential while 37% and 33% are in Regions IV and V which are classified as poor and very poor agricultural lands respectively. The remaining 5% is in Region X, which is considered to be unsuitable for farming. 29/

Kay (1975) calculated that 27% of the African land has "acceptable though near critical" population densities; 16% unused or underused, had lower densities, and 57% had high densities and was overpopulated. Kay concluded that:

> Taken globally, the 1969 population of the African areas was some 40% in excess of the critical level with reference to the perpetual safety of the land and the degree of overcrowding is increasing rapidly."30/

Livestock densities are relevant also. In 1980, Zimbabwe's communal lands had 2,869,000 cattle, 214,000 sheep, 935,000 goats and 39,000 pigs. It is known that most of the communal lands are overgrazed and overstocked. As a result, there is a shift from relying exclusively on cattle to hardier species of livestock like goats for meat and milk, and donkeys for draught purposes.

The communal land is characterised by subsistence production. It is therefore not surprising that:

> "Over 90% of the value of all agricultural produce marketed through official or formal channels is from large scale, mainly European, commercial sector, 2 or 3% is from the small scale commercial sector, while 5 to 7% is from the communal areas."31/

The implication of this review is that employment opportunities are growing less rapidly than education. Children entering secondary schools today are likely to have false expectations about the availability of employment created by rapid promotion of the current pool of educated blacks. The skill shortage in many occupations will be quickly overcome. The end result will be a surplus of educated individuals which will contribute to "educational inflation" in which jobs which formerly were open to Form II graduates require "O" level, and those for "O" level require "A" level. If this occurs, the growing disparity in access to post Form II education will contribute to disparities in employment opportunities.

VI. Education and Equality

This section analyses Zimbabwe's prospects of creating a more equal society. A useful starting point is to attempt to

clarify what is meant by a more equal society. What does an equal society look like? What are the principles governing the sharing of national benefits? While there is a general consensus on the 'evils' of inequality, there are fundamental conceptual and definitional problems when it comes to the question of equality.

The problems cannot be appreciated unless there is a clear understanding of how inequality is conceived. There are two related views about inequality. The first is that inequalities were deliberately created and reinforced by the policy of separate development adopted by previous successive governments. As a result,whites are usually painted as a privileged and wealth sub-group. On the other hand, blacks are presented as an exploited and poverty stricken mass.

The second view (of inequality) rests on the realisation that socio-economic differentiation is inevitable in any society. It results from individual differences, social status and the nature of the occupational structures. In this scenario the main aim of policy is to legitimise or equalise the rules of the game which govern social status, the determination of incomes and access to productive assets.

Developments in post-independent Zimbabwe would suggest that government policy is primarily directed at equalising the conditions or rules of the game under which different groups and individuals compete for access to social services and employment.

Education, Employment and Income

Unemployment and underemployment were at a critical high level at independence. They resulted from a combination of factors such as world economic slump, rising oil prices, economic sanctions, the war and the discriminatory policies of the Rhodesia Front government. In addition human population and livestock numbers increased more rapidly than the productivity capacity of the economy.

After independence the economy recovered rapidly from the 1975-79 slump. For example, between December 1979 and June 1980, employment in Agriculture increased by 4.7% and in Manufacturing by 7.7% - a total of 27,300 jobs in six months. Agricultural production in the communal lands increased too. Between 1979 and 1980 production for rural household consumption rose by 37% from Z$85.5 million to Z$117.1 million. Sales of rural produce through marketing agencies also rose by 71% from Z$16.9 million to Z$28.9 million.32/

However, the employment gains in agriculture were only shortlived. Following the brief gains in the six months between December 1979 and January 1980 agriculture along with domestic service employment continued on its pre-independence downward course.

While the basic unemployment and underemployment problem in Zimbabwe is related to limited productive capacity, there is a significant structural imbalance between the skills available in the labour force and those being demanded. Thus, thousands of youths from among the educated are unemployed, while thousands of jobs are waiting to be done because the people with the right training and skills cannot be found.

Continuing emigration of skilled people and the contraction of the number of skilled returning Zimbabweans intensifies the problem. This problem has led the government to bond apprentices to the state for a period equal to their apprenticeship. In 1980, a total of 878 apprentices completed their training, while 898 qualified skilled people emigrated; in 1981 the figures were 664 and 1,078, and in the first quarter of 1982, 476 and 341.33/

Zimbabwe faces a complicated set of problems associated with labour supply. The problems are compounded by past policies and population growth. The recent increases in school enrollments without rapid economic growth will cause increases in both the absolute and relative unemployment levels. In spite of a fairly high level of unemployment, the country continues to suffer from shortages of critical workers, from machinists to geologists.

A strategy for addressing the unemployment problem will necessitate (1) increasing the rate of job creation within the economy through an expansion in its productive capacity and by improving the overall employment elasticity of the economy; and (2) developing appropriate skills training to overcome the mismatch between labour supply and demand. The overcoming of inequalities within Zimbabwe will depend on the success of this strategy.

Under normal circumstances, an individuals' earnings in the formal employment sector are a function of age, education level experience and type of employment. However, in pre-independent Zimbabwe race determined black wage rates. On average black/white earnings were in the ration of 1:10.

Since independence, many strategies have been adopted to address these income inequalities. Minimum wages have been introduced in agriculture, mining and industry. For the long term, the government is looking to the education system to play a major role.

There can be no doubt that education determines employment prospects as well as earnings in most developing countries. In terms of education, the crucial factors are the level at which the pupil leaves school and the quality of his certificate. In Zimbabwe, a good "O" level certificate often ensures a good job in the modern sector. An "O" level certificate has a high market value. Consequently, there is a lot of pressure on the government to expand secondary school facilities up to "O" level.

An all-too-familiar pattern is beginning to emerge in Zimbabwe: more secondary graduates coupled with an employment sector with a low absorptive capacity results in an inflation of educational qualifications. As a result, individuals with "A" levels end up taking jobs normally taken by school leavers with lower qualifications. Eventually "A" levels are replaced by university graduates.

Rather than narrowing income and employment inequalities educational inflation tends to widen them. The poor are less able to compete in a situation in which there is a rapid increase in the job entry level qualifications.

VII. Conclusion

Some Policy Implications

This paper has provided an overview of the efforts being made in Zimbabwe to create equality of educational opportunity. From the analytical sections of the paper, five interrelated policy issues emerge:

(1) The post-independence of rapid educational expansion has left out some of the historically disadvantaged population sub-groups. This has widened the gap between the "haves" and "have-nots" in Zimbabwe.

(2) There are some trade-offs and conflicts. Trade-offs exist between expansion and equality, and expansion and efficiency. Conflicts are to be found between promoting mass education and retaining a selective examination system and between the development of individual talents and equality of achievement or results.

(3) Equalisation of access and school quality do not necessarily lead to equality since a common education may not meet the special needs and circumstances of all groups equally. Such an education may confirm the advantage of some and the disadvantage of others.

(4) Educational expansion is taking place while existing institutions are suffering from lack of materials, qualified teachers, equipment and other critical inputs. The pupils in the new school may be receiving a poor education. This weakens the capacity of the disadvantaged to compete for limited jobs.

(5) While the number of school leavers has increased, the absorptive capacity of the employment sector has not. This creates unnecessary competition among the educated and causes inflation of educational certificates. This contributes to inequality.

In conclusion, consideration of the above five issues suggests that a strategy for equalisation of educational opportunity would have the following features: first, a more judicious policy of educational expansion and subsidisation which should take into account the needs and means of the various population sub-groups in Zimbabwe. Resources are available but limited; they should be directed on a priority basis. Second, a tolerance, if not encouragement for diversity and variety in the curriculum is needed. It is clear that learning experiences that seem appropriate for one population sub-group or region are not necessarily relevant or realistic for another. Curriculum equality can only be achieved by recognising those desparate learning needs. Third, a good working relationship between the educators and employers is needed to address the problem of unemployment among school leavers.

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Table I

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY STATIONERY ENROLLMENTS (1970-82)
(000's)

	PRIMARY							SECONDARY					
Year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	I	II	III	IV	LVI	UVI
1970	139,5	122,7	116,1	103,5	99,2	67,0	53,8	16,0	13,0	7,8	7,3	1,1	0,9
1971	133,2	122,4	110,3	98,5	88,1	66,6	53,0	16,2	15,2	8,6	7,4	1,1	0,9
1972	150,3	129,6	120,7	105,8	97,9	72,5	59,0	17,6	16,0	9,8	8,0	1,4	0,9
1973	153,0	141,2	124,9	112,2	102,4	77,5	62,7	18,1	17,0	10,1	9,2	1,3	1,1
1974	166,1	149,6	139,4	118,7	108,1	85,1	68,1	19,6	18,3	11,3	9,8	1,4	1,2
1975	168,9	154,1	140,4	125,6	110,7	89,0	74,3	19,7	18,8	13,7	10,7	1,4	1,3
1976	170,0	155,1	141,9	125,4	114,4	92,7	84,0	20,1	18,8	14,4	12,6	1,6	1,3
1977	174,6	155,1	141,6	124,5	111,9	97,6	85,9	19,6	17,7	14,6	13,0	1,6	1,4
1978	163,5	144,9	130,5	114,9	102,1	89,5	82,1	18,9	17,7	14,7	13,4	1,6	1,5
1979	173,1	142,1	125,9	110,8	99,3	88,1	77,9	20,0	18,1	14,7	13,3	1,6	1,4
1980	376,4	207,9	170,4	144,7	126,0	112,9	97,1	22,2	17,1	15,9	12,9	2,6	1,4
1981	471,4	375,2	230,0	185,6	162,5	148,8	140,7	83,5	26,0	16,9	15,3	2,5	1,7
1982	410,5	429,0	360,0	228,3	187,1	166,8	152,2	94,8	79,5	26,3	16,4	3,2	2,2

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY WASTAGE ON STATIONERY ENROLLMENTS (1970-82)

	1-2	2-3	3-4	4-5	5-6	6-7	7-Form I	I-II	II-III	III-IV	IV-IVI	LVI-UVI
1970	16,8	6,6	12,6	4,3	32,2	13,2	37,8	3,0	5,2	0,5	6,2	0,2
1971	10,8	12,1	11,8	10,4	21,5	13,6	36,8	1,0	6,6	1,2	6,3	0,2
1972	20,7	8,9	14,9	7,9	25,4	13,5	41,4	1,6	6,2	1,8	6,6	0,5
1973	11,8	16,3	12,7	9,8	24,9	14,8	44,6	1,1	6,9	0,9	7,9	0,2
1974	16,5	10,2	20,7	10,6	23,0	17,0	48,5	1,3	7,0	1,5	8,4	0,2
1975	14,8	13,7	14,8	14,9	21,7	14,7	54,6	0,9	5,1	3,0	9,3	0,1
1976	14,9	13,2	16,3	11,0	21,7	8,7	65,9	1,3	4,4	1,8	11,0	0,3
1977	23,5	13,5	17,1	12,6	14,3	11,7	66,3	1,9	3,1	1,6	11,4	0,2
1978	18,6	14,4	15,6	12,8	12,5	7,4	63,2	1,2	3,0	1,3	11,8	0,1
1979	31,0	16,2	15,1	11,5	11,2	10,2	57,9	1,9	3,4	1,4	11,7	0,2
1980	168,5	37,5	25,7	18,7	13,1	15,8	74,9	5,1	1,2	3,0	10,3	2,2
1981	96,2	145,2	44,4	23,1	13,7	8,1	57,2	57,5	9,1	1,6	12,8	0,8
1982	+18,5	69	131,7	41,2	20,3	14,6	57,4	15,3	23,2	9,9	13,2	1,0

Table I (Contd.)

PRIMARY AND SECONDARY PERCENTAGE SURVIVAL ON STATIONERY ENROLLMENTS (1970-1982)

	PRIMARY							SECONDARY					
Year	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	I	II	III	IV	LVI	UVI
1970	100	88,0	83,2	74,2	71,1	48,0	38,5	11,5	9,3	5,6	5,2	0,8	0,6
1971	100	91,9	82,8	73,9	66,1	50,0	39,8	12,2	11,4	6,4	5,6	0,8	0,7
1972	100	86,2	80,3	70.4	65,1	48,2	39,3	11,7	10,6	6,5	5,3	0,9	0,6
1973	100	92,3	81,6	73,3	66,9	50,7	41,0	11,8	11,1	6,6	6,0	0,8	0,7
1974	100	90,1	83,9	71,5	65,1	51,2	41,0	11,8	11,0	6,8	5,9	0,8	0,8
1975	100	91,2	83,1	74,4	65,5	52,7	44,0	11,7	11,1	8,1	6,3	0,8	0,8
1976	100	91,2	83,4	73,8	67,3	54,5	49,4	11,8	11,1	8,5	7,4	0,9	0,8
1977	100	88,8	81,1	71,3	64,1	55,9	49,2	11,2	10,1	8,4	7,4	0,9	0,8
1978	100	88,6	79,8	70,3	62,4	54,7	50,2	11,6	10,8	9,0	8,2	1,0	0,9
1979	100	82,1	72,7	64,0	57,4	50,9	45,0	11.6	10.6	8,5	7,7	0,9	0,9
1980	100	55,2	45,3	38,4	33,5	30,0	25,8	5,9	4,5	4,2	3,4	0,7	0,4
1981	100	79,6	48,8	39,4	34,5	31,6	29,8	17,7	5,5	3,6	3,2	0,5	0,4
1982	100	104,5	87,7	55,6	45,6	40,6	37,1	23,5	19,4	0,4	3,9	0,8	0,5

+ shows gain and not wastage

Sources: 1970 - 1973, Annual Report of the Secretary for Education, 31st December, 1978.

1974 - 1980, Monthly Digest of Statistics, March 1982, C.S.O.

1981 - 1982, Ministry of Education and Culture

Table 1.1

ACTUAL PRIMARY AND SECONDARY ENROLLMENTS BY YEAR OF INTAKE (1970-82) (1)

(000's)

Intake Year	Grades							Forms					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	I	II	III	IV	LVI	UVI
1970	139,5	122,4	120,7	112,2	108,1	89,0	84,0	19,6	17,7	14,7	12,9	2,5	2,2
1971	133,2	129,6	124,9	118,7	110,7	92,7	85,9	18,9	18,1	15,9	15,3	3,2	
1972	150,3	141,2	139,4	125,6	114,4	97,6	82,1	20,0	17,1	16,9	16,4		
1973	153,0	149,6	140,4	125,6	119,9	89,5	77,9	22,2	26,0	26,3			
1974	166,1	154,1	141,9	124,5	102,1	88,1	97,1	82,3	79,5				
1975	168,8	155,1	141,6	114,9	99,3	112,9	128,6	94,8					
1976	170,0	155,1	130,5	110,8	126,0	145,4	152,2						
1977	174,6	144,9	125,9	144,7	160,4	166,8							
1978	183,5	142,7	170,4	182,3	187,1								
1979	173,1	207,9	236,9	228,3									
1980	376,4	370,1	360,0										
1981	471,4	429,0											
1982	410,5												

ACTUAL PRIMARY AND SECONDARY WASTAGE BY YEAR OF INTAKE (1970-82)

(000's)

Year	Between Grades							Between Forms				
	1-2	2-3	3-4	4-5	5-6	6-7	7-Form I	I-II	II-III	III-IV	IV-LVI	LVI-UVI
1970	17,1	1,7	8,5	4,1	19,1	5,0	64,4	1,9	3,0	1,8	10,4	0,3
1971	3,6	4.7	6,2	8,0	18,0	6,8	67,0	0,8	2.2	30,6	13,1	
1972	9,1	1,8	13,9	11,2	16,8	15,5	62,1	2,9	0,2	90,5		
1973	3,4	9,2	14,8	5,7	22,3	11,6	55,7	+3,8	+0,3			
1974	12,0	12,2	17,3	22,4	14,0	+49,0	14,8	2,8				
1975	13,7	13,5	26,7	15,6	+13,6	+15,6	33,8					
1976	14,9	24,6	19,7	+15,2	+19,4	+ 6,8						
1978	29,7	19,0	+18,9	+15,7	6,4							
1979	20,8	+27,7	+11,9	+ 4,8								
1980	+34,8	+29,0	8.6									
1981	6,3	10,1										
1982	42,4											

Table 1.1 (Contd.).

ACTUAL PRIMARY AND SECONDARY PERCENTAGE SURVIVAL RATES BY YEAR OF INTAKE (1970-82)

	PRIMARY							SECONDARY					
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	I	II	III	IV	LVI	UVI
1970	100	87,8	86,5	80,4	77,5	63,8	60,2	14,1	12,7	10,5	9,2	1,8	1,6
1971	100	97,3	93,8	98,1	83,1	69,6	64,5	14,2	13,6	11,9	11,5	2,4	
1972	100	93,9	92,7	83,6	76,1	64,5	54,6	13,3	11,4	11,2	10,9		
1973	100	97,7	91,8	82,1	78,4	58,5	50,9	14,5	17,0	17,2			
1974	100	92,8	85,4	75,0	61,5	53,0	58,5	49,5	47,9				
1975	100	91,8	83,9	68,1	58,8	66,9	76,2	56,2					
1976	100	91,2	76,8	65,2	74,1	85,5	89,5						
1977	100	83,0	72,1	82,9	91,9	95,5							
1978	100	87,3	104,2	111,5	114,4								
1979	100	120,1	136,9	131,9									
1980	100	98,3	95,6										
1981	100	91,0											
1982	100												

(1) Actual enrolments entail following a school population cohort from Grade One through to Form Six.

Sources: 1970 - 1973, Annual Report of the Secretary for Education, 31st December, 1978.

1974 - 1980, Monthly Digest of Statistics, March 1982, C.S.O.

1981 - 1982, Ministry of Education and Culture.

Table 2

Indicators of Regional Inequality - 1982

	Harare	Man	Mash	Mat	Mid	Vic	Totals
Area (km^2)[1]	540	20282	43013	56074	26450	23110	169 469
Population (ooo's)*	750	1190	2040	1450	1 100	1070	7 600
5 - 19 Age Group (000's)*	304,5	483,1	828,4	588,7	446,6	434,4	3085,7
Primary & Secondary Enrolment (000's)	171,4	356,9	574,9	394,8	336,9	324,3	2159,2
Primary:							
No. of Schools	178	666	902	841	625	591	3 803
No. of Classes	3209	7807	12514	8434	7295	6972	46 231
Enrolment (000's)	131,9	328,0	525,2	353,6	302,2	293,8	1934,6
No. of Teachers	3718	8450	12941	8879	7842	7337	49167
Teacher/Pupil Ratios	1:36	1:39	1:41	1:40	1:39	1:40	1:39
Class/Pupil Ratios	1:41	1:42	1:40	1:42	1:41	1:42	1:42
Average Area Served By each School (km^2)	3,1	30,5	47,7	66,7	42,3	39,1	44,6
Secondary:							
No. of Schools	44	100	209	112	145	118	730
No. of Classes	1140	736	1209	1124	879	752	5840
Enrolment (000's)	39,5	29,0	49,8	41,2	34,7	30,5	224,6
No. of Teachers	1630	1152	1792	1624	1256	940	8394
Teacher/Pupil Ratios	1:24	1:25	1:28	1:25	1:28	1:32	1:27
Class/Pupil Ratios	1:35	1:39	1:41	1:37	1:39	1:41	1:39
Average Area Served Each School (km^2)	12,3	202,8	205,8	500,7	182,4	195,8	232,1

(1) Shows area under by District Councils

1981 estimates

Sources: Area - District Councils, Department of Physical Planning, Harare, June, 1981.

Population Estimates - CSO, Harare, June, 1981.

Education Statistics - Staffing and Enrolments, Ministry of Education and Culture, First Term 1982, Tables 2 and 3.

The Zimbabwe Secondary School Science Project

"Zim Sci"

A Review

1. INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE
2. DESCRIPTION OF PROJECT
3. EVALUATION
4. TEACHER COMMUNICATION AND ADVANCEMENT
5. CURRICULUM POLICY
6. FUTURE DEVELOPMENT
7. CONCLUSION
8. REFERENCES

Appendices

Appendix 1 Summation costing of Zim Sci material to date

Appendix 2 Estimate of growth and expenditure 1983 - 85.

THE ZIM-SCI PROJECT - A REVIEW

1. INTRODUCTION AND RATIONALE

1.1 A comparison of the aims of national planners in third world countries indicates as a major goal, the creation of a 'learning society'. That is, a society in which education is defined as no longer the privilege of an elite or the concomitant of a particular age and which to an increasing extent, reaches out to embrace the whole of society and the entire lifespan of the individual." (1)

The creation of a learning society is seen as inducing a vital flexibility into the perception of education in members of that society. A change which will accommodate and encourage, rather than resist, development.

1.2 J.D. Bernal (2), in describing the development of technology in 19th. Century Europe, wrote *the major transformations that characterise the great Industrial Revolution from wood to coal as fuel, from wood to iron as materials; from horse and water power to steampower; from single to multiple action spinning, are all products of the ingenuity of workmen acting under the triple economic choice of increasing markets, the resultant shortage of traditional materials and production bottlenecks due to lack of labour. They were made possible only by the availability of capital for making the new machines. All of this might have happened without science, but it could not have been done as quickly."*

1.3 If we consider the denudation of the natural vegetation by a mushrooming population in search of domestic fuel, the need to expand local industry to meet increasingly sophisticated demands of that population moving away from traditional materials and technology, and an acute shortage of technically qualified manpower, then the parallel between 19th. Century Europe and 20th. Century Zimbabwe is particularly apt.

1.4 Third world countries have long recognised as axiomatic that real and lasting national progress can only be achieved through gains in the knowledge and skills of their own citizens. Central to this knowledge and skills as Bernal suggests, is an understanding of fundamental

scientific concepts and their application to the multitude of technological devices which are the sinews of national development.

1.5 His Excellency the President of Zimbabwe, in opening the Forum of Science Education (FASE) Conference held in Harare in August/September 1982. drew attention to this key aspect of education when he said:

"Africa will remain trapped in the proverbial syndrome of technical underdevelopment unless it develops its own science and technology.

An essential aspect in the development of science and technology was the need to combine theory with practice and avoid producing scientific cripples who knew theory but were totally devoid of practical knowledge."

The Zimbabwe Secondary School Science Project (Zim Sci) is an attempt to meet this critical national need within the constraints of limited manpower, money and teaching materials.

2. DESCRIPTION OF PROJECT

The Project may be described in terms of the above three constraints:

2.1 Manpower. Following the 1980 establishment of peace and a progressive government in Zimbabwe, a policy of rapid expansion in the school system was initiated. While the increased enrolment in the primary schools was dramatic, (from approximately 60% to 80% of primary age children), that in the secondary schools was phenomenal.

2.11 Pre independence, some 25% of primary school leavers found secondary school places. At the beginning of 1981 nearly 85% of the 1980 Primary School leavers were accommodated. In real terms this meant an increase in Form I enrolment of approximately 60 000 pupils. In 1982 this pattern was repeated and there are now more than 100 000 pupils involved in the Zim-Sci programme.

2.12 These pupils were, (and still are, very largely), taught in classes attached to over 500 selected rural primary schools. It is intended that these *"Upper Top Schools"* will gradually evolve through community effort into fully functioning separate rural secondary schools. While pupils in Year II will be taking the national Junior Certificate Examination in November this year, present policy does not view a "cut-off" operating at this point, and most pupils are expected to

20

proceed to a third and probably fourth year.

2.13 Very few of these schools have trained science teachers. The teachers range from three year primary school trained teachers with perhaps an O-level in general science, to recent secondary school leavers with no science background at all.

2.14 While it might have been possible to design a programmed science course for the upper top schools which ignored the classroom teacher it would have resulted in a situation in which the hostility of the teacher, feeling his or her status threatened, would have significantly reduced the effectiveness of the materials. Instead, a positive policy was adopted of *supporting* the untrained teacher in this novel role of science teaching by providing detailed teachers' guides to each pupil study unit. These include scripted teacher inputs at appropriately cued points in the lessons, pupils'exercises with answers and follow-up materials, and step by step instructions on the organisation of pupil practical work and other learning activities. The success of this strategy is evident in the growing sense of professionalism among Zim-Sci teachers and the increasing pressure from them for courses leading to full recognition as secondary school science teachers. Many do not wish to return to the primary schools in spite of the rapid promotion prospects which that might bring.

2.2 Money. Financial constraints are always the primary limiting factor to any development. In the development of a low cost science course the way round this constraint has often been to limit severely the amount of pupil practical work, relying heavily on teacher demonstrations and wordy descriptions of experiments. The results of this type of low cost policy are seen in the word perfect, successful examination candidate who is unable to handle apparatus competently, design experiments, or display any of the practical problem-solving skills required of key personnel in technologically expanding environments. This is the'scientific cripple'referred to by President Banana.

2.21 The Zim-Sci approach has been to emphasise meaningful pupil practical work through the provision of sufficient apparatus for pupils to work in pairs. This has been achieved by utilising waste commercial materials, and adapting for use as science apparatus, long production run (and hence low cost) items such as fertilizer measures, tin cans, plastic disposable cups, etc.

Employing this technique and in addition providing only a carefully calculated sufficiency of consumable supplies, it has been possible to produce a science kit with enough printed materials, apparatus and consumables, to teach one year of conventional integrated science to approximately 100 pupils for US $1300. No additional equipment, textbooks or specialized, services are required.

2.22 A second year kit has been added this year for an additional US $2000 and resupply kits of consumable materials made available at less than US $100 per 'two class'unit. Zim-Sci materials are now being used in some 600 schools, and expenditure on the whole programme has reached approximately US $1,3 million.

2.23 Conventional junior science laboratories with minimal equipment are estimated to cost between US $40 and 50 000, excluding the provision of services such as water, gas and electricity.

The Zim-Sci expenditure is therefore cheaper by at least an order of magnitude when compared with the provision of laboratories, services and conventional science equipment to six hundred schools.

2.24 There is also a significant savings in foreign currency through the adaption of local materials and the use of local manufacturing potential. Currently the year I kit has an approximately 36% local content and the year II kit approximately 60%. by value.

.25 The year III kit currently under development is expected to cost approximately $750 with a local content of approximately 50%.

2.26 The low 'inertia'of the system, when compared with the establishment of conventional facilities has made possible the rapid introduction of science teaching throughout the country. Kits of apparatus and the first printed materials were in all new schools within six months of the project being initiated. The two Zim-Sci years of secondary school science now constitute the major science teaching input to the Zimbabwean educational system.

2.3 Teaching materials. The traditional textbook has severe limitations in the teaching of science. One of the most important objectives in teaching science is to inculcate the compendium of skills involved in isolating variables, proposing hypotheses and designing experiments to test them. The achievement of this objective in the conventional science teaching context is severely handicapped by the pupils' predilection for 'reading ahead' in the textbook

n order to find out what *should* be 'discovered' in the current experiment. Experiments become duly performed exercises and much of the intrinsic ntellectual excitement of 'tracking down the truth' is lost or never even erceived.

2.31 In the Zim-Sci material the division of teaching materials between the structured pupil study guide and the corresponding teacher's guide allows the retention of vital information until the pupil has had the opportunity to perform the experiment and tease out his or her own conclusions. Good conventional science teachers try to do this, but too often their attempts are frustrated by the all-revealing textbook!

2.32 Zim-Sci materials are produced in short units designed for completion in 4 - 5 weeks of a normal timetable. The frequent completion of course units ensures in pupils a continuous sense of satisfaction. The unit system is also perceived by the untrained classroom teacher as presenting manageable curriculum elements in terms of organisation and teaching demand. Another important advantage is that the system allows syllabus changes to be accommodated without total replacement of the teaching materials.

2.33 Curriculum projects of this magnitude *should* develop through the design and assessment of pilot projects, 're-writes' and formal evaluation procedures. However, political pressures and popular expectations in the new Zimbabwe dictated the maximum expansion of educational facilities in the minimum time, thus precluding a conventional strategy. Some preliminary work was done in a two year research project funded by the University of Zimbabwe to investigate the problems involved in teaching science by distance methods.

2.34 The principal aims of this project "Distance Science Teaching Project - DiST" were

(i) to explore the practicalities of teaching meaningful science through the existing study group system operated by commercial correspondence colleges,

(ii) devise a modus operandi for carrying out such teaching and

(iii) show that such a scheme could be economically feasible.

e project is described in more detail i. Zimbabwe Science News (3)

The close relationship between this research which I completed in 1980 and the problems of expanding formal science education with minimal resources and trained personnel in 1981 enabled us to begin work on the Zim-Sci project with cautious optimism.

2.35 EVALUATION

The path of *evolutionary curriculum development* is a hazardous one. To provide a continuous assessment of this evolution and its teaching efficacy, an on-going evaluation policy was adopted soon after the introduction of the project into schools. The evaluator was appointed with very wide terms of reference to assess, firstly, the effectiveness of the teaching materials; secondly to establish lines of communication with the teachers, and thirdly to identify problems in the administration and supply of materials.

This evaluator, while retaining an independent objectivity, worked very closely with the development team, thus ensuring that revealed weaknesses in the system or teaching materials would have an early effect on the design of materials still on the production line. The unit structure adopted ensures that major modifications can be incorporated in previously published materials with the minimum delay.

3.10 The first major study carried out by the evaluator was to determine a tentative answer to the question:

"ARE CHILDREN WHO ARE TAUGHT SCIENCE BY THE ZIM-SCI METHOD DISADVANTAGED IN COMPARISON WITH THOSE UNDERGOING CONVENTIONAL SCIENCE TEACHING"

3.11 Three groups of Year One pupils were sampled from ten schools in and around Harare, ninety from Zim-Sci-using schools, and one hundred and eighty from schools with conventional science teaching facilities. Of the one hundred and eighty in conventional schools, half were from schools which had been predominantly white before independence and half from schools which had been predominantly black. All pupils were tested with Raven's Progressive Matrices, a test which shows substantial cross-cultural correlation with intellectual ability. The Raven's scores of these children were computed so that matched triads (i.e. groups of 3 pupils) could be identified for controlled analysis of results. Out of the total sample of 270 pupils tested, 34 triads were extracted for analysis, between 9 and 15 being drawn from each school.

Each triad included three subjects of the same Raven's I.Q. score, one being from an "A" category (ex white) school, one from a "B" category (ex black) school, and the third being from a Zim-Sci-using school. All the children wrote a 1-hour science test based upon the Year One syllabus for science in use throughout Zimbabwe. The test has been validated by asking a panel of 15 "A" group and "B" group science teachers to scrutinise each item and decide on its "fairness" in terms of their own Year One pupils. Only items rated "fair" by at least 75% of these teachers were scored in this study.

3.12 *The science test scores of the Zim-Sci children suggested that they were, in fact, advantaged, when compared with the children who do not learn science in Form I by the Zim-Sci method. (3)*

3.13 The results of this study gave considerable confidence to the Zim-Sci team and impetus for planning the continued development of the system towards the goal of four years' secondary science education.

3.20 Evaluation has continued through the analysis of a nationwide 10% sample of Zim-Sci children. The results of this analysis have provided some answers to the broader objectives described in the terms of reference.

For example, some of the questions to which answers are being obtained through this survey are:

3.21 Q: *Are the Zim-Sci pupils reaching, on the whole, the kind of learning objectives listed at the beginning of each Unit ?*

A: We have evidence based on the first three units that overall performance appears to be satisfactory, although the energy concept seems to be difficult for many pupils to absorb.

3.22 Q: *Is the delivery and re-supply system working efficiently ?*

A: It is variable. It appears that some heads of schools and Responsible Authorities are unclear as to procedure and the Ministry of Education and Culture has promised to send circulars to Responsible Authorities and schools to make the procedure and payment details more clear.

3.23 Q: *Do experienced primary trained teachers teach Zim-Sci better than primary teachers without much experience ?*

A. In biology YES. But not significantly better in other areas of science.

3.24 Q *Do trained teachers obtain better results from their pupils than untrained teachers ?*

A. No. In fact teachers with less training, probably because they stick carefully to the sequence of the Zim-Sci course, and the directions in the teachers' guides, have the pupils who show slightly better results on science tests based on the early first year syllabus. Children with less trained teachers also tended to work through the Units at a faster pace. This does not mean there is a clear-cut effect of untrained teachers being "better" than trained teachers, since the latter are probably enriching the Zim-Sci input as they go along. It does mean, however, that the Zim-Sci method is well-suited to the untrained teacher. (4)

3.3 Some 56 000 Zim-Sci taught pupils have just completed the national Junior Certificate Examination in Science. A detailed comparative analysis of those papers is planned. The results of this analysis should further clarify these initial conclusions.

4. TEACHER COMMUNICATION AND ADVANCEMENT

4.1 Communication Since Zim-Sci is the development of science courses which can be taught by *untrained teachers* it has had by definition to be a top downwards development process. However, the team has from the outset, been aware of the vital need to gain and retain the co-operation of teachers in the classroom if the project is to succeed. Accordingly communication with teachers is a major pre-occupation.

4.11 On average five letters a week are received from individual teachers and, dependent upon the nature of the inquiry, are answered by appropriate team members.

4.12 A request was made to the Zimbabwe Science Teachers Association (Zimase) for professional criticism and evaluation of the Zim-Sci teaching materials. Zimase has established a working party for this purpose.

4.13 Early in 1982 a regular 'radio spot' was introduced on the weekly Teachers' Magazine programme produced by the Ministry of Education and Culture's Audio Visual Department. The weekly spot is used to relay information to teachers, introduce new members of the development team and pass on suggestions from teachers to teachers.

4.14 In addition to the radio link, contact with teachers is maintained through the "Zim-Sci page" in the monthly teachers' journal: Teachers Forum.
The page is used to publish teachers' letters and the team replies. Letters are selected which are seen as being of general interest to all teachers involved in Zim-Sci.

4.2 COURSES

4.21 The Zim-Sci programme began with a 2-day orientation course repeated in each region during the April school holidays 1981. A further short course was conducted in December with the assistance of the Canadian Teachers Federation invited under the auspices of ZITA.

4.22 The April courses were repeated in 1982, but in an extended form, over three days. Teachers were divided into two groups; those who had not attended the 1981 course, and those who had. For the benefit of the first group the full orientation course was repeated while the second group concentrated on Year II materials and equipment. Time was also found for discussion of teaching problems, innovations and adaptations of experiments.

4.23 The Zim-Sci team was constantly impressed with the growing sense of professionalism amongst these largely un-science-trained teachers, and took note of the frequently voiced request for professional training leading to recognised science teaching qualifications.

4.3 ADVANCEMENT: A request has been made to the Deputy Secretary, Teacher Training, for the provision of training courses for Zim-Sci teachers, and discussions have been initiated with the Faculty of Education with regard to the development of a B.Ed. degree course to meet this requirement.

4.31 While the development of this course is still in its early stages it is tentatively envisaged as being a largely content orientated course since many of the prospective candidates are primary trained teachers with acceptable professional competencies.

4.32 The stabilisation of this new secondary school teaching force is vital to the continued growth of the system and will depend directly on the availability of avenues of advancement for that stability.

5. CURRICULUM POLICY

5.1 At this time phase I, a science course for the first two years of secondary school, is nearing completion.

5.2 Curriculum policy for these first two years has been to lay down a rational basis for problem solving rooted in the 'scientific method', and to establish an understanding of fundamental scientific concepts, viz: the particular nature of matter; energy; interaction between energy and matter (kinetic theory, chemical reactions); classification; the cell in living matter; interaction between energy and living matter; reproduction of life; elements and their chemical interactions (oxidation, acids, bases, neutralisation, comparison of chemical activities, etc.).

5.3 There is nothing revolutionary about such a curriculum; such concepts are the essential components of any first and second year secondary school science syllabus. However, the *subsequent* direction to be taken depends greatly on *parental expectations, political ideology and national needs*. In the Zimbabwean context, these pressures which shape curriculum innovation can be summarized in the following terms:

5.31 established tradition has been for a system strongly oriented towards academic achievement. The British system of 'Ordinary level' and 'Advanced level' examinations is firmly established. Parental expectations are for more of this same policy, since academic certificates are widely regarded as the only route for employment and career advancement.

5.32 the new ideological climate suggests that the creation of an intellectual elite, the concentration of resources on the education of exceptionally able people and the improvement of urban quality life at the expense of the vastly more populous rural areas are anathemas.

5.33 *National needs* are for a greatly expanded pool of technical abilities at all levels with an emphasis on the fundamental skills and concepts required for entry into industrial and agricultural training. The balancing of these sometimes opposing forces is the task of the politician, while the interpretation of that point of balance is the role of the curriculum developer !

5.4 Zim-Sci is caught in the turbulence of these conflicting forces. The design of the middle school two year science programme phase II of the project, must take cognisance of these sometimes opposite needs.

5.41 Our inclination, as educationists, is to produce a course with a strong technological bias. Such a course, concentrating on teaching scientific concepts within the context of the technology of materials, machines, and agriculture, would give the average citizen knowledge and skills of immediate applicability whether that individual was fortunate enough to find a niche in the limited employment sector or thrown upon his or her own entrepreneurial resources in the rural environment.

5.42 It is, of course, important to plan the programme as common to all pupils, thus breaking down the barriers between the average citizen and the more intellectually endowed destined for higher academic studies and professional careers. I do not believe that the potential professional scientist would suffer from a year or two of a technologically orientated curriculum. Indeed, I believe the subsequent study of academic science would be enhanced by experience of its applicability.

5.43 At this time, however, the urgent demand to have material available for the 1983 Year III group, coupled with significant pressure from parents and politicians for academic education, has resulted in an interim strategy of writing material to fit O-level examination requirements.

5.44 A possible compromise lies in the drafting of a syllabus which contains the desirable technological emphasis but which is still examinable in the conventional sense at 'O' level. It will be necessary to revise and broaden the grading scale to accommodate a wider intellectual spectrum and enable the majority of pupils to achieve self-fulfilling levels of achievement.

5.45 It might even be possible to separate the 'academic' and 'technological' elements in the examination, although such a design would immediately introduce the danger of a teacher and parent introduced shift in emphasis, as had been experienced in other third world countries which have attempted to produce practical skills oriented curricula. The village polytechnics of Kenya are a case in point. (5)

5.46 As the 'learning society' takes hold and parental perceptions of what constitutes good education' change, so will Zim-Sci change and adapt to provide the technological education appropriate to national manpower needs.

6.00 FUTURE DEVELOPMENT

6.1 Whatever the future content of the Zim-Sci course, a system has been successfully established. Zimbabwe has shown that it is possible for children to learn the methodology and basic concepts of science with the provision of minimal facilities, in classes supervised by non science trained teachers.

6.11 Several aspects of future developments have already been considered in this review. However there is one area in which amplification is required.

6.2 Teacher Training: There are at present approximately 600 teachers involved in the Zim-Sci project. The vast majority (an estimated 90%) are untrained in secondary school science teaching. There is some indication that the process of teaching by Zim-Sci has a training effect on the teachers concerned, but as the course content becomes increasingly sophisticated the knowledge gap between study guide and classroom teacher input will become wider.

6.21 This will lead to reduced credibility of the teacher in the eyes of the pupils which will, in turn, generate a lack of confidence in the system endangering the momentum of the whole project. It is essential therefore that an adequate support and teaching system be designed, both to meet the professional ambitions of the teacher (see Section 4) and the continued progress of the project.

6.22 What is required is a series of 'knowledge modules' for the teacher designed to supplement and support the study guide materials and maintain his/her limited teaching role. Since teachers cannot be released from the system for extended periods, the input will need to be in the form of distance teaching packages coupled with occasional course units during school vacations.

6.23 The production of these packages, making use of available media (print, radio 4, audio cassettes etc.) would require the formation of a separate unit closely related to the Zim-Sci curriculum team.

6.24 While the professional science teaching body is small (less than 1 000 teachers throughout the country) its' potential for support of Zim-Sci teachers is significant. In some regions Zim-Sci teachers are joining the national science teachers association (ZIMASE) and exchanges between Zim-Sci teachers in rural secondary schools and their counterparts in the conventional schools are increasing. The establishment of Teachers Centres around the country would do much to encourage this traffic in information and professional support.

6.25 The teachers centre might be attached to a local school and would contain a library of resource material under the supervision of a full-time supervisor. The responsibilities of the supervisor would include management of the centre, promotion and organisation of local workshops, and assistance in the implementation of the Zim-Sci programme. Since the Supervisor's primary function is one of organisation, he/she would not require subject competence.

6.26 The resource material might include video tape illustrations by practising Zim-Sci teachers particularly difficult concepts/units, textbooks, background reading material, and materials for the repair and improvisation of apparatus.

6.27 The concept of the teacher centre could be generalised to include other aspects of educational development in Zimbabwe such as the Zintec scheme.

6.28 While the fundamental concept of Zim-Sci is that of a teaching supportive system to the study materials, the adoption of a positive training policy would make possible the transition from this supportive role for Zim-Sci teachers to one of full professional engagement.

7. CONCLUSION:

The Zim-Sci curriculum development team is confident that we can extend the use of the system to four years of secondary science. If balance between applied and academic science can be achieved, and our belief in the effectiveness of the Zim-Sci teaching system is confirmed, then perhaps the urgent needs of the developing world for scientifically literate citizens and a national resource of technological manpower will be nearer achievement.

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Appendix 1 Expenditure on Zim-Sci Project 1980 - 82

1.	Initial Development: (1980/81)	Z$
	465 Form I kits @ 1168,3 each	543 259,50
	4 Study Guides x 65 000 @ 10c ea.	26 000,00
	4 Teachers Guides + Handbook x 3 500 @ 20c	3 500,00
		572 759,50
2.	Expansion (1981/82)	
	Additional Form I kits 120 @ 1220,09 ea	146 410,80
	Form I class resupply kits (approx. 2 per per school) 1000 @ 64,37 ea	64 370,00
	Form II kits 500 @ 1286,00 ea	643 000,00
	6 Study Guides x 65 000 @ 10c	39 000,00
	6 Teachers Guides x 3500 @ 20c	4 200,00
		896 980,80
	Grand Total Years I & II to date	1 469 740,30

There are now approximately 600 schools using Zim-Sci materials.

Mean cost for Years I + II approximately $2450 per school.

N.B. These development costs do not include salaries for personnel, office accommodation etc. Those costs are shared between Ministry of Education and University of Zimbabwe.

Appendix 2

ESTIMATES OF EXPENDITURE FOR ZIM-SCI PROGRAMME FOR FINANCIAL YEARS 1983/4 and 1984/5

A: These estimates are based upon the "Zim-Sci Overall Development Cost Estimates" produced in November 1981.

However, since those estimates were produced, certain significant changes in the development plan have occurred necessitating a revision:

1: The number of rural secondary schools has increased more rapidly than had been expected, leading to an upward revision of the number of schools requiring Zim-Sci material and kits.

e.g. Nov. 81 estimates for new schools 1982 : 30 actual = 120
" " " " " " 1983 : 30 " = 60

Further projections are based upon an average growth rate of 10% p.a. (see table).

2: The programme is also attracting increasing interest from the conventional secondary schools. Provision must therefore be made for the supply of printed materials to these schools. Most have laboratories and conventional apparatus but some may require additional Zim-Sci apparatus because of greatly expanded Form I intakes.

3: At the beginning of 1983 printed Year I materials will have been in schools for 2 years. During that period a great deal of information will have been collated by the evaluator and through feed back from teachers with regard to possible modifications. Since the material is estimated to have a useful life of only 2 - 3 years (because of lack of durability) it is essential to plan for a revised edition to enter the schools from the bottom up in January 1984. I estimate the print runs for new editions of the study guides at 75 000 copies and teachers' guides at 2 500.

4. As described in the main body of the review the Zim-Sci curriculum programme is being changed from three years to four, terminating in a conventional O-level examination. This will necessitate the production of material and apparatus for a fourth year. Because of the higher academic level for the new year III and IV I anticipate an additional teacher supporting input will be required for untrained teachers.

4: (continued)
My present thinking is, that in addition to the pupil study guides and teachers' guides, a direct professional science teacher input in the form of recorded audio cassettes and/or Radio 4 will be required. Provision for this eventuality has been made in the revised budget.

5: The Zim-Sci programme is currently under severe stress because of printing delays at Government printers. It is expected that this problem will become even more critical in the future (see A:3). The addition of a collating and stitching machine to the available production machinery would do much to remove this block. However, recommendations for such support would better come from a more general case including, perhaps, Zintec, and thus has not been included in this revised budget.

6: The cost of resupply kits (consumable items) for each year has been included in the estimates although the possibility that schools would pay for the resupply kits out of their normal allocation is currently under discussion.

7: Funds have been included to finance the project leader and thus release money from University funds for the employment of an additional contract lecturer to undertake the teaching demanded by other areas of development within the University of Zimbabwe Faculty of Education which would normally be done by the project leader.

8: I anticipate new writers will be seconded to the unit from Government teaching service during 1983 and 1984. I do not expect such personnel will necessarily be equipped with the relevant writing skills demanded by the Zim-Sci approach. Accordingly funds are included for possible courses and/or seminars which will assist these writers in the acquisition of such skills, and perhaps enable them to promote the methodology of Zim-Sci while also profiting from the experiences of other workers involved in similar projects elsewhere in Africa.

B: Projected Growth table for Rural Secondary Schools with particular reference to Zim-Sci. (Table I)

Financial Year	1980/81	1981/82	1982/83	1983/84	1984/85
No. of schools	465	585	645	710	780
Form I kits	465	+120	+60	+65	+70
Form I resupply	-	465	585	645	710.
Form II kits	-	500	+110	+60	+65
Form II resupply	-	-	500	610	670
Form III kits	-	-	500	+110	+60
Form III resupply	-	-	-	500	610
Form IV kits	-	-	-	500	+110
Form IV resupply	-	-	-	-	500

... / 4 (C: Table II)

n the second year to allow for inflation)

(Table II)

1984/85

($)	Item	Cost ($)	
	70 kits @ $1 300 each	91 000	
	710 Resupply kits @ $375 each	53 250	
	Printed materials, new editions (C2; D; E : E2)		
	4 study units x 75 000 x 22c	66 000	
	5 teachers guides x 2 500 x 33c	4 125	
186 900			214 375
	65 kits @ $1 850 each	120 250	
	670 Resupply kits @ $375	50 250	
144 700			170 500
	60 kits @ $825 each	49 500	
	610 Resupply kits @ 375 each	45 750	
	Additional basic kits 20 x 65 x $7,00	9 100	
	Printed materials - new units		
	4 study guides x 75 000 x 22c	66 000	
	4 teachers guides x 2 500 x 33c	3 300	
	4 audio cassettes x 610 x $1,00	2 440	
298 340			176 090
	110 kits @ $1 100 each	121 000	
	Printed materials - new units		
	4 study guides x 75 000 x 33c	99 000	
	4 teachers guides x 2 500 x 33c	3 300	
	4 audio cassettes x 500 schools x $1,00 each	2 000	
95 300			225 300
30 000			30 000
3 000			-
15 000			15 000
20 000			20 000
5 000			5 000
8 440			$856 265

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(C) COST ESTIMATES (N.B. approx. 10% has been added to the cost of an item repeated in

FINANCIAL YEAR: 1983/84

Course Year	Item	Cost
FORM I	65 kits @ $1 200 each	78 000
	645 Resupply kits @ $70 each	45 150
	Printed materials, new editions (A1; A2; B; C1)	
	4 study units x 75 000 x 20c	60 000
	4 teachers guides x 2 500 x 30c	3 000
	1 Handbook x 2 500 x 30c	750
FORM II	60 kits @ $1 700 each	102 000
	610 Resupply kits @ $70	42 700
FORM III	110 kits @ $750 each	82 500
	500 Resupply kits @ $70	35 000
	Additional basic kits 20 x 610 @ $7,00 each	85 400
	Printed materials - new units	
	4 study guides x 75 000 x 20c	60 000
	4 teachers guides x 2 500 x 30c	3 000
	4 audio cassettes x 610 schools x $1,00 each	2 440
	610 audio cassette players @ $50 each	30 500
FORM IV	500 kits @ $1 000 each	500 000
	Printed materials - new units	
	4 study guides x 75 000 x 30c	90 000
	4 teachers guides x 2 500 x 30c	3 000
	4 audio cassettes x 500 schools x $1,00 each	2 000
search & Development Fund		
achers' Centre & Storage		
aluation		
oject Leader Funding		
aining Courses & Seminars		
T O T A L $		

DONORS' AID TO EDUCATION AND SKILLS TRAINING IN ZIMBABWE

Most of post-independence donors aid to the education and skills training sector has been channelled through the ministries of Education and Culture (MOEC), Manpower Planning and Development (MMPD) and Local Government and Town Planning (MLGTP). Initial aid to GOZ was mainly for the reconstruction and rehabilitation of war-damaged rural schools (MLGTP), the setting up of the ZINTEC colleges (MOEC) and the establishment of refugee schools (MOEC). The emphasis in the area of skills training has been the provision of training, technical instructors, and short-term technical assistance personnel. In the last year, donor assistance has shifted from reconstruction to addressing the developmental needs of the sector.

What follows is a brief discussion of various donor programs and projects in the fields of education and skills training. Data has been collected and compiled in accordance with the Transitional National Development Plan (TNDP), which runs through to FY 1984/85. Main sources of data have been the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development (MFEPD) and the respective donor agencies in Zimbabwe. The overall data is given in Table I to IV. Table I summarizes total donor aid by country and international agency to MOEC over the plan period. Table II details this aid by project over the TNDP. Tables III and IV respectively relate to donors' aid to MMPD and follow the same format at Tables I and II.

Data for some donors beyond the first year of the TNDP is un-available, since many donors are unable to specify exact amounts by project. Also it has not been possible to rank donors. Data has been provided in the respective donor currencies and then coverted to the Zimbabwe dollars. The conversions have been made with two or more exchange rates. These are, for the base year figures, a rate reflecting the situation before the December, 1982, 20 percent Zimbabwe dollar devaluation. For the plan period, conversions have attempted to reflect the devaluation impact (see the accompanying footnotes of the tables). Most funds committed or projected are mainly part of the donors' pledge at the March 1981 ZIMCORD conference.

Aid to Primary and Secondary Education

Majority of aid to primary and secondary education occurred in the base year (FY 1981/82). This went toward the reconstruction and rehabilitation of rural schools. The largest donors were USAID, Sweden and Denmark. Other donors such as Australia and the United Kingdom offered technical support in the form of provision of contract teachers and continuation of scholarships to Zimbabweans. (See Table II).

For the plan period, donors have shifted to improving the educational systems. Major activities include the ZINTEC, ZIMSCI

and ZIMFEP programs, the expansion of some faculties of the university provision of audio and printing equipment and vehicles to the MOEC.

USAID is the largest single source of funds for primary and secondary education. Sweden is the second largest donor during the plan period. SIDA is planning to spend about Z$18 million for various activities aimed at qualitative improvements (see Table II for details). The West Germany government is spending about Z$2 million in expanding the Department of Mining Engineering at UNZ. The EEC will spend about Z$10 million for the establishment of the Faculty of Veterinary Science in FY 1983/84. UNICEF will spend about Z$5 million for mainly non-formal and pre-school education. The French government is willing to co-operate in provision of materials for the proposed Library and Documentation Center, by providing a soft loan of about Z$3,5 million starting in FY 1983/84.

Other donor activities include the supply of maths and science teachers on two to three year contracts. The main donors are Australia and Canada, who have together provided over 300 teachers.

Technical Education and Training

Aid to technical education and training is given in Tables III and IV. It should be noted that this assistance has benefited training of personnel for other ministries, and not MMPD alone. The MMPD does most of the co-ordination for technical co-operation between the GOZ and donors. Assistance has been mainly in three areas. Firstly, donors aid has been in the form of technical co-operation to provide technical personnel to meet the critical staff shortage facing GOZ. Second, it has been in the form of training Zimbabweans, both abroad and locally, in areas where there exist manpower shortages such as engineering, medical and management fields. Third, assistance is proposed for the NVTDC's.

During the first year of the TNDP, the United Kingdom is the largest donor in the training area with US$24.5 million. The British Technical Co-operation Training Program (TCTP) replaces the pre-independence British aid to Zimbabweans studying in the UK. The following is a breakdown of British assistance to Zimbabwe students up to March, 1983. The figures in brackets indicate the students benefiting:

(i) the completion of courses begun before Independence (1 500) - £14 million.

(ii) candidates who completed intermediate level studies in 1980 and have now proceeded to higher level studies (137) - £2 million.

(iii) candidates who completed intermediate level studies in 1981 and have now proceeded to higher level studies (234) - £5 million.

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(iv) "new" training awards under the agreed TCTP (144) -£2 million.

(v) support to candidates not previously nominated to enable them to complete studies on which they have already embarked (126) - £1.7 million.

(vi) special program of awards in Agricultural Research - £7 000.

From April 1983 to March 1986, Britain anticipates having a program of about 50 to 60 new scholarships per year. However, this has not yet been formalized with the GOZ. Future training will be geared both to Zimbabwe's priority manpower needs and to the training requirements of aid projects which Britain is financing in Zimbabwe. Therefore, ODA and the British Council top priorities are the training of Zimbabweans to take over when British technical co-operation personnel complete their assignments and training for posts of importance to the success of British aid projects such as land resettlement, agricultural research, the railways, telecommunications, government statistics, local government and the public service.

In view of Zimbabwe's serious shortage of skilled technical personnel the British assistance is also giving priority to the training of technical instructors and where appropriate trade testers of skilled manpower. The British government has also provided some equipment to the Harare and Bulawayo Technical Colleges.

A number of donors have expressed willingness to participate in financing the NVTS. These include France (Z$2.4 million), West Germany (Z$2 million), USAID and UNDP (see Table IV).

For the plan period donor aid to MMPD will continue to concentrate on training. In the field of training, UNDP has provided about US$2 million for training in the public sector. USAID has provided about US$4 million for the Zimbabwe Manpower Project in FY 1982/83 an additional US$5.1 million will be made available in FY 1983/84. Australia, Canada, France, West Germany and Switzerland continue to offer scholarships.

TABLE I: DONOR AID TO MOEC (ZIMBABWE DOLLARS)

Donor	Base Year			
	FY 1981/82	FY 1982/83	FY 1983/84	FY 1984/85
Bilateral	Z$	Z$	Z$	Z$
Australia	4 606 172			
Canada	3 772 455		1 035 100	
Denmark	2 303 086			
Federal Republic of Germany	-	1 900 000		
Italy	-	1 217 000		
Netherlands	96 057	-		
Sweden	3 218 000	4 333 700	6 212 500	5 500 000
Switzerland	700 000	600 000		
United Kingdom	8 756 000		209 000	
USAID	3 462 287	6 281 600		
Multilateral				
EEC	2 400 000		10 000 000	
UNDP	-	-	424 114	
UNESCO	-	-	-	-
UNHCR	203 409	-	-	-
UNICEF	1 074 774	1 449 135	1 932 180	1 932 180

NOTES

1. All currencies have been converted to Z$ equivalence.
2. Exchange rates - i) For base year figures Z$1 = US$1,3 026 = SK 10
   ii) For FY82/83 onwards, Z$1 = US$1,0351. This rate now fluctuate due to the 20% devaluation
   iii) Z$1 = 8SK, after the 20% devaluation.
3. DK - Danish Kronor, SK - Swedish Kronor, DM - Deuschmark.
4. Data for plan period for other donors non-available since most of these donors make annual plans only.

SOURCE:
Data provided by Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development (MFEPD) and the respective donors.

TABLE II: LIST OF ACTIVITIES AND AMOUNTS BY DONORS TO MOEC (ZIMBABWE DOLLARS) [1/]

Donor/Activity	Base Year	Plan Period		
	FY 1981/82	FY 1982/83	FY 1983/84	FY1984/8
1. Australia				
200 Maths and Science Australian Teachers under a 2 year contract (staffing assistance) Distance Education Project proposed	4 606 172	1 035 100		
2. Canada				
3 year program of providing 100 secondary school teachers (staffing assistance)	3 772 455			
3. Denmark				
School reconstruction	2 303 086			
4. Federal Republic of Germany				
Department of Mining Engineering at UNZ		1 900 000		
5. Italy				
Development of pre-school program		1 217 000		
6. Netherlands				
- WUS scholarships	92 857			
- Literature program	3 200			
7. Sweden				
Reconstruction of school/ZINTEC and Refugee Fund	3 218 000			

TABLE II (continued)

Donor/Activity	FY 1981/82	FY 1982/83	FY 1983/84	FY 1984/5
Scholarship Fund (refugee)		150 000	220 000	220 000
Reconstruction of primary schools (reconstruction agreement)		1 050 000		
Reconstruction of primary schools (education sector agreement)		613 700	1 400 000	1 400 000
Secondary schools staff housing		80 000		
ZINTEC College		920 000		
ZIMSCH		420 000		
Paper and printing equipment		400 000		
Adult education		700 000		
TOTAL		4 333 700		
Curriculum dev. and teacher training (primary)				
- teacher training including ZINTEC			1 400 000	
- pilot project for education with production			80 000	
Curriculum dev. and teacher training (secondary)				
- ZIMFEP and refugee schools			80 000	80 000
- ZIMSCH			1 600 000	860 000
Materials for primary and secondary schools				
- paper			400 000	450 000
- maps			50 000	1 000 000
- misc. (printing equipment)			50 000	50 000
Special education				
- remedial teaching			30 000	100 000
- disabled			70 000	100 000
Overall planning and evaluation			50 000	60 000
TOTAL FY 1983/84 and 84/85			5 430 000	4 400 000
8. <u>Switzerland</u>				
Gokomere Teacher Training	700			

TABLE II (continued)

Donor/Activity	FY 1981/82	FY 1982/83	FY 1983/84	FY 1984/85
9. United Kingdom				
Additional support for students	6 746 000			
Schools reconstruction	2 000 000			
Radio Four			209 000	
10. USAID[2/]				
ZINTEC centre (Gwanda)	567 200	500 000		
Belvedere Teachers Training College	2 255 400	5 581 600		
University of Zimbabwe	315 947	200 000		
ALOZ	323 740			
Vehicles for schools	160 000			
Schools reconstruction				
- Mission	599 000			
- Council	5 553 962			
- Musengezi secondary school	60 000			
Multilateral				
1. Education facilities and equipment	2 400 000			
Faculty of Veterinary Science, UNZ			10 000 000	
2. UNDP				
Curriculum dev. and teachers education			424 114	
3. UNESCO				
4. UNHCR				
Schools reconstruction	203 409			
5. UNICEF				
Primary schools reconstruction and ZINTEC	1 074 774			

TABLE II (continued)

Donor/Activity	FY 1981/82	FY 1982/83	FY 1983/84	FY 1984/85
75 vehicles to ZINTEC		1 449 135		
Printing and audio visual equipment for curriculum development			1 932 180	1 932 180

NOTES

1/ Exchange rates - as in Table I.

2/ USAID is currently proposing a US$45 million program grant for budgetary support to MOEC and MMPD over the next 3 fiscal years.

SOURCE: Compiled from data provided by MFEPD and the respective donors.

TABLE III: DONORS AID TO MMPD (ZIMBABWE DOLLARS)

Donor	Base Year	Plan Period		
	FY 1981/82	FY 1982/83	FY 1983/84	FY 1984/85
Bilateral				
Australia	383 606	386 436	386 436	386 436
Canada (1)	4 222 325			
Denmark	3 070 781			
France	200 000	1 850 000		
Federal Republic of Germany	2 690 000	1 690 000		
Netherlands		1 400 000		
Nigeria	5 400 000			
Sweden	17 000			
Switzerland	800 000	700 000		
United Kingdom	18 867 220	1 800 000	511 000	
USAID	674 712			
Multilateral				
EEC				
UNDP	1 535 391	1 931 522	385 470	

NOTES

Exchange rates and currencies, as in TABLE I. Data relating to plan period for other donors non-available since most of them make annual plans only.

(1) This is a three year program which started in 1982 and is expected to be completed end of 1985. This amount has been allocated for calendar years 1982-1985

SOURCE:

Compiled from data provided by MFEPD and the respective donor agencies.

TABLE IV: DONORS ACTIVITIES AND AMOUNTS TO MMPD (ZIMBABWE DOLLARS)

Donor/Activity	Base Year FY 1981/82	FY 1982/83	Plan Period FY 1983/84	FY 1984/85
Bilateral				
1. Australia				
Technical training in Australia	383 606	386 436	386 436	386 436
2. Canada				
Provision of 50 technical and vocational instructors and 50 scholarships in same field for 3 years	4 222 325			
3. Denmark[1/]				
Esigodini Agricultural Training Institute	1 535 390			
Tuli Training Institute	1 151 543			
A Women's Training Institute (Melfort)	383 848			
4. France				
30 scholarships - Technical cooperation	200 000			
Bulawayo Vocational Training Centre		1 850 000		
5. Federal Republic of Germany				
National Vocational Training and Development Centre (NVTDC)	1 590 000	590 000		
100 scholarships for each year	1 100 000	1 100 000		
6. Netherlands				
Training program - Air Zimbabwe		1 400 000		

TABLE IV (continued)

Donor/Activity	FY 1981/82	FY 1982/83	FY 1983/84	FY 1984/85
7. Nigeria				
Construction of Public Service College project	5 400 000			
8. Switzerland				
Veterinary Training	800 000			
Scholarships and Training		600 000		
Chinhoyi District Training Centre		100 000		
9. Sweden				
Consultancy - Zimbabwe Institute of Dev. Studies	17 000			
10. United Kingdom				
Scholarships	18 867 920			
Equipment to Harare & Bulawayo Technical Colleges		1 800 000		
New scholarships (50 from ODA and 12 BC) (all post-graduates)			511 000	
11. USAID[2/]				
MANDATA	351 842			
Vocational Training Centres	212 000			
National Manpower Survey	16 842			
Technical Consult for MMPD	4 100			
Inter-Ministerial Scholarship Committee	89 928			
Zimbubwe Manpower Development		3 070 782		

TABLE IV (continued)

Donor/Activity	FY 1981/82	FY 1982/83	FY 1983/84	FY 1984/85
Multilateral				
1. EEC				
2. UNDP 3/				
National Manpower Survey	1 535 391			
Training of Diplomats		130 508		
Training of Public Servants		126 670		
Training of Veterinary assistance (in co-operation with the Swiss)		284 047		
Training for Meteorlogical Services		844 465		
Training for Forestry Services		311 684		
Training for Air Traffic Control		234 147		
Technical scholarships			385 470	

NOTES:

Exchange rates and currencies as in Table I.

1/ Denmark has no precise plans for aid to MMPD. However an agreement is due to be signed with MMPD. This will involve technical assistance in the form of experts and scholarships, and provision of technical personnel by the Danish Volunteer Service in cooperation with DANIDA. Exchange rate is DK1 = US$8,522.

2/ USAID is proposing a US$45 million grant for basic education and skills training for three years starting in FY 1983/84.

3/ UNDP has expressed willingness to participate in the proposed NVTDC, as part of its future assistance to manpower development.

SOURCE: Compiled from data provided by MFEPD and the respective donor agencies.

ANNEX H

Grams . . . . MINFIN
Telephone 22101

Private Bag 7705, Causeway
ZIMBABWE

ZIMBABWE

In reply please quote: 576

MINISTRY OF FINANCE,
ECONOMIC PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT
MILTON BUILDING
SAMORA MACHEL AVENUE
HARARE

13th May, 1983

Mr. Roy Stacy (Director)
U S A I D
1 Pascoe Avenue
P.O. Box HG 81
ZIMBABWE.

Dear Mr. Stacy,

RE: BASIC EDUCATION SKILLS PROGRAMME

I write with reference to the above subject. Please be advised that the suggested programme has the full support of the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development; Manpower Planning and Development, and Education and Culture.

Accordingly, this Ministry, on behalf of the Government of Zimbabwe wishes to formally request funding for the proposed programme. It is hoped that this request will be treated favourably by your Government.

Yours sincerely

T.R. MUZONDO
FOR: SECRETARY FOR FINANCE, ECONOMIC PLANNING AND DEVELOPMENT

MAY 1983

DD

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ANNEX I

A.I.D. Grant Number 613-K-606

Project Number 613-0208

PROGRAM

GRANT AGREEMENT

BETWEEN

THE GOVERNMENT OF ZIMBABWE

and the

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

for the

BASIC EDUCATION AND SKILLS TRAINING

SECTOR ASSISTANCE PROGRAM

Dated:

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ANNEX 1

ANNEX 2

A.I.D. Grant No. 613-K-606

Program Grant Agreement

Dated:

Between

The Government of Zimbabwe ("Grantee")

and

The United States of America, acting through the Agency for International Development ("A.I.D.").

ARTICLE 1: The Agreement

The purpose of this Agreement is to set out the understandings of the Parties named above ("Parties") with respect to the undertaking by the Grantee of the Program described below, and with respect to the financing of the Program by the Parties.

ARTICLE 2: The Program

SECTION 2.1. Definition of Program. The Program will provide budgetary support to programs and activities of the Grantee to implement its planned reforms in its primary and secondary education and technical/vocational skills training systems. These reforms are directed at the development of an effective and affordable system which has the capacity to meet Zimbabwe's education and skills training requirements within the nation's financial and other resource constraints. Annex 1, attached, amplifies the above definition of the Program. Within the limits of the above definition, elements of the amplified description stated in Annex 1 may be changed by written agreement of the authorized representatives of the Parties named in Section 8.2. without formal amendment of this Agreement.

SECTION 2.2. Incremental Nature of Program Funding

(A) A.I.D.'s contribution to the Program will be provided in increments, the initial one being made available in accordance with Section 3.1. of this Agreement. Subsequent increments will be subject to availability of funds to A.I.D. for this purpose, and to the mutual agreement of the Parties, at the time of a subsequent increment, to proceed. It is anticipated that, subject to the above, A.I.D.'s total contribution to the Program will be forty-five million United States dollars ($45,000,000).

(B) Within the overall Program Assistance Completion Date stated in this Agreement, A.I.D., based upon consultation with the Grantee, may specify in Implementation Letters appropriate time periods for the utilization of funds granted by A.I.D. under an individual increment of assistance.

ARTICLE 3. Financing

SECTION 3.1. The Grant. To assist the Grantee to meet the costs of carrying out the Program, A.I.D., pursuant to the Foreign Assistance Act of 1961, as amended, agrees to grant the Grantee under the terms of this Agreement not to exceed fifteen million United States ("U.S.") Dollars ($15,000,000) ("Grant"). The Grant may be used to finance foreign exchange costs as defined in Section 7.1. Unless the parties otherwise agree in writing, the Zimbabwe Dollars required to support local costs of the Program as defined in Section 7.2. will be generated through the standard commodity import mechanism as detailed in Annex 2, Section 4.4. and be placed into a Special Account to be used in support of the program.

SECTION 3.2. Program Assistance Completion Date

(A) The "Program Assistance Completion Date" (PACD), which is December 31, 1988, or such other date as the Parties may agree to in

writing, is the date by which the Parties estimate that all services financed under the Grant will have been performed and all goods financed under the Grant will have been furnished for the Program as contemplated in this Agreement. Separate terminal dates for the commodity import mechanism are set out in Annex 2, Section 3.3.

(B) Except as A.I.D. may otherwise agree in writing, A.I.D. will not issue or approve documentation which would authorize disbursement of the Grant for services performed subsequent to the PACD or for goods furnished for the Program, as contemplated in this Agreement, subsequent to the PACD.

(C) Requests for disbursement, accompanied by necessary supporting documentation prescribed in Implementation Letters are to be received by A.I.D. or any bank described in Section 7.1. no later than nine (9) months following the PACD, or such other period as A.I.D. agrees to in writing. After such period, A.I.D., giving notice in writing to the Grantee, may at any time or times reduce the amount of the Grant by all or any part thereof for which requests for disbursement, accompanied by necessary supporting documentation prescribed in Implementation Letters, were not received before the expiration of said period.

ARTICLE 4. Conditions Precedent to Disbursement

SECTION 4.1. First Disbursement. Prior to the first disbursement under the Grant, or to the issuance by A.I.D. of documentation pursuant to which disbursement will be made, the Grantee will, except as the Parties may otherwise agree in writing, furnish to A.I.D. in form and substance satisfactory to A.I.D.:

(A) An opinion of the Deputy Director of the Civil Division of the Attorney General's Office of Zimbabwe that this Agreement has been duly authorized and/or ratified by, and executed on behalf of, the Grantee, and that it constitutes a valid and legally binding obligation of the Grantee in accordance with all of its terms.

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(B) A statement of the name of the person holding or acting in the office of the Grantee specified in Section 8.2., and of any additional representatives, together with a specimen signature of each person specified in such statement.

(C) A list of proposed activities or items within the Grantee's Annual Estimates of Expenditure to be supported under the Grant in its first year.

SECTION 4.2. Additional Disbursement. Prior to any disbursement of funds, or the issuance by A.I.D. of documentation pursuant to which disbursement will be made, of an additional increment of Grant funding, the Grantee shall furnish in form and substance satisfactory to A.I.D., an evaluation report indicating progress toward attainment of grant's objectives as defined in Section 2.1. and Annex 1 of this Agreement and a statement of any proposed revision to the list of activities or items contained in the Grantee's Annual Estimates of Expenditures to be supported under the Grant.

SECTION 4.3. Notification. When A.I.D. has determined that the conditions precedent specified in Section 4.1. for the first disbursement and 4.2. for additional disbursements have been met, it will promptly notify the Grantee by Implementation Letter.

SECTION 4.4. Terminal Dates for Conditions Precedent.

(A) If all of the conditions specified in Section 4.1. have not been met within 90 days from the date of this Agreement, or such later date as A.I.D. may agree to in writing, A.I.D., at its option, may terminate this Agreement by written notice to Grantee.

(B) If all the conditions specified in Section 4.2. have not been met within the date specified by A.I.D. in an Implementation Letter issued under Section 8.3. of this Agreement, or such later

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date as A.I.D. may agree to in writing, A.I.D., having given 30 days written notice to Grantee to rectify any failure to comply with the said conditions, may cancel the undisbursed balance of the Grant not irrevocably committed to third parties, and may terminate this Agreement by written notice to the Grantee.

ARTICLE 5. Special Covenants

SECTION 5.1. Program Evaluation. The Parties agree to an annual evaluation of the Program. Except as the Parties otherwise agree in writing, the evaluations will include: (a) assessment of progress towards attainment of the objectives of the Program; (b) identification and analysis of problems or constraints which may inhibit attainment of Grant's objectives; and (c) proposal to correct such problems or obstacles.

SECTION 5.2. Cooperation in Budget Planning. The Parties agree to cooperate throughout the budget cycle and in budgeting activities to be financed under the Grant, including the free exchange of relevant information, so that jointly acceptable programs can be developed in a timely manner.

SECTION 5.3. Adequacy of Grantee Funding. The Grantee agrees to take such steps as are necessary to ensure that the approved Annual Estimates of Expenditure will contain Grantee and A.I.D. funding, in the amounts and areas agreed upon to support the Program's objectives.

SECTION 5.4. Additionality of A.I.D. Funds. The Grantee agrees that the funds provided by A.I.D. under the Grant will be additional to, and not a substitute for, the Grantee's own budgetary resources.

SECTION 5.5. Allocation of Foreign Exchange. The Grantee covenants to take all necessary steps to make available to the private sector no less than eighty (80) percent of the funds provided under the commodity import mechanism of the Grant.

ARTICLE 6. Procurement Source

(A) Disbursements pursuant to the commodity imports mechanism will be used exclusively to finance the costs of goods having their source and origin in the United States (Code 000 of the A.I.D. Geographic Code Book as in effect at the time orders are placed), except as A.I.D. may otherwise agree in writing.

(B) Disbursements pursuant to Section 7.1. for other than those through the commodity import mechanism will be used exclusively to finance the costs of goods or services required for the program having their source and origin in the United States (Code 000 of the A.I.D. Geographic Code Book as in effect at the time orders are placed), except as A.I.D. may otherwise agree in writing.

ARTICLE 7. Disbursement

SECTION 7.1. Disbursement for Foreign Exchange

(A) After satisfaction of conditions precedent, the Grantee may obtain disbursements of funds under the Grant for the Foreign Exchange costs by such of the following methods as may be mutually agreed upon:

(1) by submitting to A.I.D. in the form and with the support to be specified in Implementation Letters, an estimate of the foreign exchange required during the next ninety (90) days for purchase of goods or services for the program; or

(2) by submitting to A.I.D., with necessary supporting documentation as prescribed in Implementation Letters, (A) requests for reimbursement for such goods or services, or (B) requests for A.I.D. to procure commodities or services in Grantee's behalf for the Program; or

(3) by requesting A.I.D. to issue Letters of Commitment for specified amounts (A) to one or more U.S. banks, satisfactory to A.I.D., committing A.I.D. to reimburse such bank or banks for payments made by them to contractors or suppliers, under Letters of Credit or otherwise, for such goods or services, or (B) directly to one or more contractors or suppliers, committing A.I.D. to pay such contractors or suppliers for such goods or services; or

(4) by such other means as the Parties may agree in writing.

(B) Banking charges incurred by Grantee in connection with Letters of Committment and Letters of Credit will be financed under the Grant unless Grantee instructs A.I.D. to the contrary. Such other charges as the Parties may agree to may also be financed under the Grant.

SECTION 7.2. Disbursement for Local Currency Costs. Disbursements for local currency costs will be made only from the Special Account established under Annex 2, Section 4.4. in accordance with the procedures set forth in Annex 1, or through such other means as the parties may agree to in writing.

ARTICLE 8. Miscellaneous

SECTION 8.1. Communications. Any notice, request, document, or other communication submitted by either Party to the other Party, under this Agreement will be in writing or by telex, telegram, or cable, and will be deemed duly given or sent when delivered to such party at the following address:

To the Grantee:

Mail Address: Secretary for Finance, Economic
Planning and Development
Ministry of Finance, Economice
Planning and Development
Private Bag 7752
Causeway
Harare, Zimbabwe

Alternate Address for telex: ZW 2141
Cables: MINFIN
Causeway
Harare, Zimbabwe.

To A.I.D.:

Mail Address: Director
USAID/Zimbabwe
P. O. Box HG81
Harare, Zimbabwe

Alternate Address for telex: ZW USAID 4428
Cables: AmEmbassy
Harare, Zimbabwe.

All such communications will be in English, unless the parties otherwise agree in writing. Other addresses may be substituted for the above upon giving of written notice.

SECTION 8.2. Representatives. For all purposes relevant to this Agreement, the Grantee will be represented by the individual holding or acting in the Office of Secretary, Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development, and A.I.D. will be represented by the individual holding or acting in the Office of Director, USAID/ Zimbabwe, each of whom, by written notice, may designate additional representatives for all purposes other than exercising the power

under Section 2.1. to revise elements of the amplified description in Annex 1. The names of the representatives of the Grantee, with Specimen signatures, will be provided to A.I.D., which may accept as duly authorized any instrument signed by such representatives in implementation of this Agreement, until receipt of written notice of revocation of their authority.

SECTION 8.3. Implementation Letters. To assist Grantee in the implementation of the Program, A.I.D., from time to time, will issue Implementation Letters that will furnish additional information about matters stated in this Agreement. The parties may also use jointly agreed-upon Implementation Letters to confirm and record their mutual understanding on aspects of the implementation of this Agreement, but can be used to record revisions or exceptions which are permitted by the Agreement, including the revision of elements of the amplified description of the Program in Annex 1.

SECTION 8.4. Taxation.

(A) This Agreement and the Grant will be exempt from any taxation or fees imposed under laws in effect in the territory of the Grantee.

(B) To the extent that (1) any contractor, including any consulting firm, any personnel of such contractor financed under the Grant, and any property or transaction relating to such contracts and (2) any public sector commodity procurement transaction financed under the Grant, are not exempt from identifiable taxes, tariffs, duties or other levies imposed under laws in effect in the territory of the Grantee, the Grantee will pay or reimburse the same with funds other than those provided under the Grant.

SECTION 8.5. Reports, Records, Inspections, Audit. The Grantee will:

(A) furnish A.I.D. such information and reports relating to the Program and to this Agreement as A.I.D. may reasonably request;

(B) maintain or cause to be maintained, in accordance with generally accepted accounting principles and practices consistently applied, books and records, relating to the Program and to this Agreement, adequate to show, without limitation, the receipt and use of goods and services acquired under the Grant. Such books and records will be audited regularly, in accordance with generally accepted auditing standards, and maintained for three years after the date of last disbursement by A.I.D.; such books and records will also be adequate to show the nature and extent of solicitations of prospective suppliers of goods and services acquired, the basis of award of contracts and orders, and the overall progress of the Program toward completion; and

(C) afford authorized representatives of A.I.D. the opportunity at all reasonable times to observe programs and activities, the utilization of goods and services financed by A.I.D. and books, records, and other documents relating to the Program and the Grant.

SECTION 8.6. Publicity. The Grantee will give appropriate publicity as to this Grant and the Program and activities carried out hereunder as a program to which the United States has contributed. Representative of Grantee and A.I.D. will confer from time to time to make specific arrangements for such publicity.

SECTION 8.7. Completeness of Information. The Grantee confirms:

(A) that the facts and circumstances of which it has informed A.I.D., or caused A.I.D. to be informed, in the course of reaching agreement with A.I.D. on the Grant, are accurate and complete, and include all facts and circumstances that might materially affect the Grant and the discharge of responsibilities under this Grant; and

(B) that it will inform A.I.D. in timely fashion of any subsequent facts and circumstances that might materially affect, or that it is reasonable to believe might so affect, the Grant or the discharge of responsibilities under this Grant.

SECTION 8.8. Other Payments. Grante affirms that no payments have been or will be received by any official of the Grantee in connection with the procurement of goods or services financed under the Grant, except fees, taxes, or similar payments legally established in the country of the Grantee.

SECTION 8.9. Termination; Remedies.

(A) Termination. Either party may terminate this Agreement by giving the other party 30 days written notice. Termination of this Agreement will terminate any obligations of the Parties to provide financial or other resources to the Program pursuant to this Agreement, except for payment which they are committed to make pursuant to noncancellable commitments entered into with third parties prior to the termination of this Agreement. In addition, upon such termination A.I.D. may, at A.I.D.'s expense, direct that title to goods financed under the Grant be transferred to A.I.D. if the goods are from a source outside the Grantee's country, are in a deliverable state and have not been offloaded in ports of entry of Grantee's country. Any unencumbered balances of funds which remain in the Special Account upon termination of assistance hereunder shall be disposed of for such purposes as may be agreed upon by the Representatives referred to in Section 8.2. above.

(B) Suspension. If at any time:

(1) Grantee shall fail to comply with any provision of Annex 2; or

(2) Any representation or warranty made by or on behalf of Grantee with respect to obtaining this Grant or made or required to be made under this Agreement is incorrect in any material respect; or

(3) An event occurs that A.I.D. determines to be an extraordinary situation that makes it improbable either that the purposes of the Grant will be attained or that the Grantee will be able to perform its obligations under this Agreement. Thirty days written notice giving details of the reasons for the suspension shall be given before this suspension becomes operative;

(4) Any disbursement by A.I.D. would be in violation by the legislation governing A.I.D.;

Then in addition to remedies provided in A.I.D. Regulation 1, for Annex 2 transactions, A.I.D. may:

(a) Suspend or cancel outstanding commitment documents to the extent that they have not been utilized through irrevocable commitments to the third parties or otherwise, or to the extent that A.I.D. has not made direct reimbursement to the Grantee thereunder, giving prompt notice to Grantee thereafter;

(b) Decline to issue additional commitment documents to make disbursements other than under existing ones; and

(c) At A.I.D.'s expense, direct that title to goods financed under Annex 2 be vested in A.I.D. if the goods are in a deliverable state and have not been offloaded at points of entry in Zimbabwe.

(C) Cancellation by A.I.D.. If, within sixty (60) days from the date of any suspension of disbursements pursuant to the Grant the cause or causes thereof have not been corrected, or are not reasonably being corrected, A.I.D. may cancel any part of the Grant that is not then disbursed or irrevocably committed to third parties.

(D) Refunds.

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(1) In addition to any refund otherwise required by A.I.D. pursuant to A.I.D. Regulation 1, in the case of any disbursement which is not supported by valid documentation in accordance with this Agreement, or which is not made or used in accordance with this Agreement, or which was for goods or services not used in accordance with this Agreement, A.I.D., notwithstanding the availability or exercise of any other remedies under this Agreement, may require the Grantee to refund the amount of such disbursement in U.S. Dollars to A.I.D. within sixty (60) days after receipt of a request therefor.

(2) If the failure of Grantee to comply with any of its obligations under this Agreement has the result that goods or services financed under the Grant are not used effectively in accordance with this Agreement, A.I.D. may require the Grantee to refund all or any part of the amount of the disbursements under this Agreement for such goods or services in U.S. Dollars to A.I.D. within sixty (60) days after receipt of a request therefor.

(3) The right under subsection (1) or (2) to require a refund of a disbursement will continue, notwithstanding any other provision of this Agreement, for three years from the date of the last disbursement under this Agreement.

(4) (a) Any refund under subsection (1) or (2); or (b) any refund to A.I.D. from a contractor, supplier, bank or other third party with respect to goods or services financed under the Grant, which refund relates to an unreasonable price for or erroneous invoicing of goods or services, or to goods that did not conform to specifications, or to services that were inadequate will (i) be made available first for the cost of goods and services required for the Program, to the extent justified, and (ii) the remainder, if any, will be applied to reduce the amount of the Grant.

(5) Any interest or other earnings on Grant funds disbursed by A.I.D. to the Grantee under this Agreement prior to the authorized use of such funds for the Program will be returned to A.I.D. in U.S. Dollars by the Grantee.

(E) Nonwaiver of Remedies. No delay in exercising any right or remedy accruing to a Party in connection with its financing under this Agreement will be construed as a waiver of such right or remedy.

(F) Assignment. The Grantee agrees, upon request, to execute an assignment to A.I.D. of any cause of action which may accrue to the Grantee in connection with or arising out of the contractual performance or breach of performance by a party to a direct U.S. Dollar contract with A.I.D. financed in whole or in part out of funds granted by A.I.D. under this Agreement. Upon such assignment, A.I.D. shall be responsible for any additional expenses resulting therefrom.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, the Grantee and the United States of America, each acting through its duly authorized representative have caused this Agreement to be signed in their names and delivered as of the day and year first above written.

UNITED STATES OF AMERICA	GOVERNMENT OF ZIMBABWE
_____	_____
Typed Name	Typed Name
_____	_____
Signature	Signature
_____	_____
Title	Title
_____	_____
Date	Date
_____	_____
Typed Name	Typed Name
_____	_____
Signature	Signature
_____	_____
Title	Title
_____	_____
Date	Date

APPROPRIATION:
ALLOTMENT:
BUDGET PLAN CODE:

ANNEX 1

AMPLIFIED PROGRAM DESCRIPTION

Except as specifically provided herein and within the limits of the definition of the program set forth in Section 2.1 of this Agreement, elements of this Amplified Program Description may be changed by written agreement of the authorized representatives of the Parties named in Section 8.2. of this Agreement without formal amendment of this Agreement.

ARTICLE 1. Summary Description of Program

SECTION 1.1. Goal. The basic goal of the Basic Education and Skills Training Sector Assistance Program (BEST) is to contribute to Zimbabwe's economic and social development by providing additional budgetary resources to assist the Government of Zimbabwe implement its planned program to expand its educational and employment skills training system with special emphasis on improving cost-effectiveness and equity within the overall system. The program's resources will be utilized to support those items and activities contained in the Grantee's Annual Estimates of Expenditure including the Public Sector Investment Program which are expected to contribute to the reduction of the key constraints inhibiting the attainment of the Grantee's goal to expand its education and skills training system. These constraints are limited resources, insufficient numbers of trained teachers/instructors, inappropriate instructional curriculum, inefficient/inequitable spatial allocation of educational/training facilities, and insufficient planning capacity. Under this BEST Program Grant, and subject to the conditions in Section 2.2. of this Agreement, a total of forty-five million United States Dollars is expected to be granted over a three-year period, with disbursements to be made over five years in support of the program's goal.

SECTION 1.2. Expected Achievements. Over the life of the Grant a number of tangible accomplishments are expected. These include:

1. A more efficient use of educational resources that will allow increases in the numbers of children enrolled in school and will increase the availability of relevant vocational/technical training;

2. Substantial increases in the numbers of fully qualified elementary, secondary and vocational/technical teachers and the institutionalized means of providing qualified teachers on a continuing and cost-effective basis;

3. Demonstrable improvement in the quality, relevance, and instructional effectiveness of the curricula of both elementary and secondary education and in vocational/technical training programs;

4. A more equitable distribution of teaching and vocational/technical training to rural areas and other geographically dispersed regions of Zimbabwe and efficient mechanisms in place to assure the maintenance of equity; and

5. A strengthened administrative, planning, and management capacity at various critical levels of the education and vocational/technical training system, leading to a more cost-effective use of resources and the moderation of recurrent financial burdens.

SECTION 1.3. Criteria for Allocation of Program's Resources. Items or activities in the Grantee's Annual Estimates of Expenditure including the Public Sector Investment Program which may be partially or fully supported using the various resources provided through this Program Grant will be selected by applying the following criteria:

1. Address one or more of the key constraints identified in Article 1, Section 1.1. of this Annex.

2. Be cost-effective and operationally efficient in the use of scarce resources, such as trained teachers or vocational/technical instructors.

3. Contribute to long-term improvement in institutional capacities and administrative practices of the education and vocational/technical training system.

4. Be complementary to and co-ordinated with other activities of the Grantee.

5. Have a high probability of success, with specified criteria for evaluating progress and determining the success of the activity.

6. Have a multiplier effect on the education and vocational/ technical training system.

7. Be implementable within the disbursement period of the Grant and have adequate provision for finance and other required resources to assure completion, maintenance, and continuation of the activity.

SECTION 1.4. Types of Resources Provided. The Program Grant will provide financial, technical, and training resources in support of those activities or items in the Grantee's Annual Estimates of Expenditure including the Public Sector Investment Program which have been selected for inclusion under the Grant using the criteria defined in Article 1, Section 1.3. of this Annex.

SECTION 1.5. Implementation Procedures. The Program Grant will be implemented using the following general procedures.

1. The implementing Grantee Ministries develop annually their budgets for inclusion in the Annual Estimates of Expenditure including the Public Sector Investment Program. These budget estimates define the items and activities which the implementing Ministries propose to carry out during the course of the next fiscal year in support of the objectives of the Government of Zimbabwe's development plans. These estimates will be inclusive of those items and activities to receive support from the resources provided through this Grant.

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2. The proposed budgets are submitted to the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development where they are reviewed and revised. The Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development will ensure that the activities and items proposed for support using the Grant's resources are consistent with the criteria defined in Article 1, Section 1.3. of this Annex. The implementing Ministries in consultation with the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development arrive at their respective budget levels for inclusion in the Annual Estimates of Expenditure including the Public Sector Investment Program to be submitted to the Parliament of the Republic of Zimbabwe.

3. The Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development discusses the proposed items and activities to be supported with the Grant's resources with A.I.D. A.I.D. reviews the items and activities to ensure their consistency with the criteria and Program's objectives. In addition, the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development confirms to A.I.D. that the items and activities to be supported under the Grant are receiving additive resources through the Grant and that the Grant's resources are not being used to substitute for the Grantee's resources which might have been otherwise available in the absence of the Grant.

4. Following these discussions with A.I.D., the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development seeks the concurrence of A.I.D. in the proposed activities or items through the exchange of implementation letters.

5. During the course of the implementation of the program, the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development may adjust the allocation of the Grant's resources as necessary to ensure the attainment of the objectives of the Grant. An exchange of implementation letters will be used for each adjustment.

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6. Plans for the use of technical assistance and training in support of the items and activities supported through the Grant will be developed and implemented by the implementing Ministries in consultation with the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development and A.I.D.

7. The Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development, the implementing Ministries, and A.I.D. will meet quarterly and annually to assess progress in the attainment of the Grant's objectives.

The implementation procedures described above are repeated annually.

ARTICLE 2. Financing and Disbursement Mechanisms

Of the total anticipated forty-five million United States Dollars (US45,000,000) provided by A.I.D. for the BEST program, approximately eight million dollars (US$8,000,000) will finance foreign exchange costs associated with the procurement of technical services and training. The remaining estimated thirty-seven million dollars (US$37,000,000) will be used to finance private sector procurement generating local currency, and public sector procurement of program related commodities, through the commodity import mechanism described in Annex 2 of this Agreement.

Local currency generations will be transferred by the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development from the Special Account to the implementing Ministries for disbursement to support those items and activities to finance using the Grant's resources. Disbursement of the foreign exchange for overseas training may be made by A.I.D. through an existing direct A.I.D. contract. Disbursement of the foreign exchange for technical services or miscellaneous goods not procured

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under the commodity import mechanism will be made directly by A.I.D. on behalf of the Grantee, through Bank Letters of Credit established by the Grantee supported by Letters of Commitment issued by the A.I.D., or by such other means as the parties may agree to in writing. The documentation and procedures required for disbursement will be explained by an Implementation Letter.

ARTICLE 3. Implementation Responsibilities .

SECTION 3.1. Program Coordination. The Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development will have responsibility for coordination and ensuring that the Grant's resources are allocated in support of items and activities in the Annual Estimates of Expenditure which address the problems and constraints which arise from the five constraints. This Ministry will also convene and chair quarterly meetings and annual evaluations to assess progress in the attainment of the Grant's objectives. This Ministry will also be the principal point of liaison between the Grantee and A.I.D. on matters pertaining to the implementation of the Grant.

SECTION 3.2. Program Development. Primary responsibility for the planning and development of these items and activities which address the five key constraints will rest with the Grantee, particularly the Ministry of Education and Culture and the Ministry of Manpower Planning and Development.

SECTION 3.3. Summary of Grantee's Implementation Responsibilities. The implementation of this Grant will involve five Ministries. The five Ministries are Finance, Economice Planning and Development (MFEPD); Education and Culture (MOEC); Manpower Planning and Development (MMPD); Construction (MC); and Trade and Commerce (MTC). The first three Ministries (MFEPD, MOEC and MMPD) will have responsibility for the attainment of the Program's objectives. In addition, the MC will handle any public sector construction. The primary function of the MTC is to ensure

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efficient and rapid disbursement of the foreign exchange under the CIP component to the private sector to generate local currency required by the program. The responsibilities of each of these various Ministries are outlined below:

A. Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development

1. Economic Planning and Development Section

Advising implementing Ministries of the terms and conditions of the Grant Agreement.

Meeting conditions precedent to disbursement.

Evaluation and determination of priority activities to be financed using resources provided through the Grant.

Advising implementing Ministries as well as Treasury of the activities in the Annual Estimates of Expenditure to be financed under Grant.

Approval of any modifications in activities to be financed.

Allocation of foreign exchange to MOEC and MMPD for procurement of commodities.

Monitoring and reporting to A.I.D. on progress toward attainment of the Grant's objectives.

Ensuring that recommendations of the quarterly review meetings and annual formative evaluations are implemented.

Evaluations are carried out as required.

2. Finance Section (Treasury)

Authorizes implementing Ministries to incur expenditures against items covered in the Annual Estimates of Expenditures under the Grant.

Transfers new activities to be covered from the Vote of Credit to the Appropriation Vote of the implementing Ministries.

Manages deposits and disbursements from the Special Account in the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe.

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Obtains reimbursement from A.I.D. for foreign exchange expended on technical assistance or training.
Transfers funds to the Exchequer from the National Development Fund based on monthly Forecast of Expenditures submitted by implementing Ministries.
Receives and reviews monthly Returns of Expenditures from the implementing Ministries.
Accounts to Grantee and A.I.D. on financial matters.

B. Ministry of Education and Culture

Preparation of justification and supporting documentation by planning section for activities to be financed under Grant.
Various sections such as teacher education, examinations, curriculum, etc., responsible for implementation of activities financed by Grant.
Includes identification and procurement of commodities and technical assistance as well as development of staff training programs.
Preparation of monthly Forecasts of Expenditures and Returns on Expenditures by the Finance section for submission to the Treasury.
Preparation by the planning section of monthly, quarterly, and annual progress reports for submission to MFEPD.
Preparation and justification of Annual Estimate of Expenditure including terms to be financed under Grant for MFEPD approval and inclusions in final submission to Parliament.
Planning and analysis required to indicate progress in removing adverse impact of five constraints.

C. Ministry of Manpower Planning and Development

Preparation of justification and supporting documentation by planning section for activities to be financed under Grant.

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Various sections of Ministries such as vocational training, apprenticeship, research, etc., responsible for implementation of activities financed by Grant. Includes identification and procurement of commodities and technical assistance as well as Development of staff training programs.

Preparation of monthly Forecasts of Expenditures and Returns on Expenditures by the finance section for submission to Treasury.

Preparation by the planning section of monthly, quarterly, and annual progress reports for submission to MFEPD.

Preparation and justification of Annual Estimate of Expenditure including items to be financed under Grant for MFEPD approval and inclusion in final submission to Parliament.

Planning and analysis as required to indicate progress in removing adverse impact of five constraints.

D. Ministry of Construction

Construction requirements of MOEC and MMPD.

Development of architectural plans for construction.

Prepares bills of quantity and other detailed documentation required by Grantee's tendering procedures.

Tenders for contractor to handle construction.

Submits results of tendering process to Tender Board for approval and award of contract.

Oversees construction activities.

Preparation of monthly Forecasts of Expenditures and Returns on Expenditure for submission to Treasury.

Preparation of monthly, quarterly, and annual progress reports for submission to MFEPD.

(Note: Program justification is handled by either MOEC or MMPD).

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E. Ministry of Trade and Commerce

Allocation of the foreign exchange under the CIP to the private sector.

Coordination in the allocation process with Ministry of Industry and Energy Development.

Issuance of import licenses for private and public sector transactions.

Submission of appropriate progress reports on the allocations to Treasury and Economic Planning sections of MFEPD.

SECTION 3.4. Summary of A.I.D.'s Implementation Reponsibilities. A program committee will be established with A.I.D. to monitor and evaluate the Grant. The committee will be chaired by the Human Resources Development Officer. Members of the committee will be the Deputy Director, the Controller and the Supply Management Officer. The Committee will meet quarterly with the GOZ to review progress. Reports on these meetings will be submitted to the USAID/Director. The USAID/Director will participate in the annual formative evaluations convened and chaired by the MFEPD.

The primary role of A.I.D. will be to monitor and evaluate progress in the attainment of the Grant's objective which are to reduce the five key constraints on the expansion of the education and vocational/technical training system. This role will be performed through quarterly meetings with the Grantee and annual formative evaluations. A.I.D. staff will also make periodic site visits and hold discussions with individuals directly responsible for the activities supported under the Grant.

A.I.D. will concur in the allocation, or any future reallocation, of funds to specific line items or activities identified in the Annual Estimates of Expenditures to be financed under the Grant. This concurrence will be based on the extent to which the proposed list of activities conform to the agreed criteria for the allocation of the Grant's resources and are consistent with the attainment of the Grant's objectives.

SECTION 3.5. Disbursement Approval. Final concurrence prior to release of any funds by the Grantee to the items and activities in the Grantee's Annual Estimates of Expenditure to be supported through the Grant will rest with A.I.D. This concurrence will be evidenced by the exchange of Implementation Letters. Grantee will be able to shift resources between and among these items and activities with the prior written concurrence of A.I.D.

SECTION 3.6. Monitoring and Reporting. The implementing Ministries will submit monthly narrative program implementation and financial reports to the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development. This Ministry will consolidate these monthly reports into quarterly reports which will be forwarded to A.I.D. within 45 days from the end of the preceding quarter. The format for these quarterly reports will be specified in an Implementation Letter. At a minimum, the quarterly reports will be expected to follow the format outlined in the Grantee's Treasury Circular Minute M20 of 1981, entitled Accounting for Development Projects Funded by Foreign Aid.

In addition, the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development will submit quarterly progress and disbursement reports to A.I.D. containing the following information: (a) cumulative and current quarter's deposits to and transfers from the Special Account for local currency generated pursuant to Section 4.4. of Annex 2 of this Agreement; and (b) for each implementing Ministry receiving funds under this Agreement, the amount of transfers to the Ministry for the quarter and cumulative amounts.

For foreign exchange costs advanced to the Grantee, the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development will coordinate quarterly reports to A.I.D. showing, for all implementing Ministries, the total foreign exchange advanced by A.I.D. and the actual foreign exchange disbursed by approved item.

A.I.D. will make periodic site visits. These site visits will be timed to occur close to the regularly scheduled quarterly review meetings with the GOZ. During these visits, discussions will be held with relevant individuals directly involved in the implementation of the activity. At the conclusion of these visits, a report will be prepared by A.I.D. to be transmitted to the Ministry of Economic Planning and Development by the USAID/Director prior to the quarterly meetings.

The quarterly meetings will be called by the MFEPD and chaired by either the Deputy Secretary for Economic Planning and Development or the Deputy Secretary for Finance. The implementing Ministries will be represented at these meetings at the level of at least Chief Education Officer, Assistant Secretary, or their equivalent and will include representation from the technical or planning division as well as the financial division.

The working documents which will be reviewed at these meetings will be (1) the monthly Returns on Expenditures, (2) the narrative report from the implementing Ministries, and (3) the site visit report by the A.I.D. Program Committee. The quarterly meeting will discuss progress toward implementation of the grant and will attempt to resolve any procedural or implementation issues. A report will be prepared by MFEPD following each quarterly meeting giving the status of progress under the grant and noting any necessary corrective actions to be taken the next quarter.

Annual formative evaluations will be held. The emphasis in these formative evaluations will be the extent to which the GOZ is making progress in ameliorating the five key constraints. A summative evaluation will be conducted within a year of the end of the Grant. It is expected that the Grantee and A.I.D. will undertake an impact evaluation at least five years following the end of the Grant to determine the extent to which the Grant's goal and objectives were achieved. A.I.D. agrees to finance the summative and impact evaluation from resources outside the Grant.

ARTICLE 4. Procedures for Procurement of Commodities and Services

SECTION 4.1. Procurement of Commodities. Most commodities either for the purpose of generating local currency or in direct support of the program will be procured under the CIP mechanism following procedures set forth in Annex 2. However, the Grantee may use its own procedures supplemented by A.I.D. Handbook 11, Chapter 3, to procure commodities outside this mechanism. In this event, the exact procedures to be utilized and the method for provision of foreign exchange for such procurement shall be as agreed upon by A.I.D. and Grantee in Implementation Letters.

SECTION 4.2. Procurement of Services. It is anticipated that outside technical assistance may be needed in support of the Program as described in this Annex. These technical assistance requirements, to be defined more specifically by the Grantee during the course of implementing the Program, may be provided under direct A.I.D. contracts with U.S. universities or consulting firms that have good performance records in areas supported by this Program. The Grantee will play a major role in contractor selection if this direct A.I.D. contract method is selected. Once acceptable technical assistance contracts have been negotiated, Grant funds will be provided directly to the contractor by A.I.D. as explained in Implementation Letters. However, the Grantee may use its own procedures supplemented in A.I.D. Handbook 11, Chapter 1 to procure technical assistance outside the direct A.I.D. contract mechanism. The exact procedures to be utilized and the method of provision of foreign exchange for such procurement shall be as agreed upon by A.I.D. and the Grantee in Implementation Letters.

ARTICLE 5. Training

Any Grantee requirements for long-term and short-term training outside Zimbabwe in support of the Program may be handled through an existing direct A.I.D. contract. Requirements for training within

Zimbabwe will be handled by the Grantee and paid for from the local currency generations.

ARTICLE 6. Illustrative Implementation Schedule

The following is an illustrative schedule for major implementation actions under this Grant.

Actions	Program Month		
Grant Agreement signed between GOZ and A.I.D.		1	
Conditions Precedent to initial disbursement met		2	
Bank Letters of Commitment for CIP issued by A.I.D.	2	14	26
Transfer of activities by Treasury to the implementing Ministries		3	
RFP for technical services issued		3	
Allocations of foreign exchange by Ministry of Trade and Commerce	3	15	27
Importers commence placing orders under CIP	4	16	28
Importers commence establishing Letters of Credit	4	16	28
Quarterly field site visits by USAID begin		4	
Quarterly Review Meetings begin		4	
Proposals from contractors for technical services received and reviewed		6	
First shipments of commodities under CIP arrive		7	
Contract for technical services awarded		7	

Deposit of local currency into Special Account begin			7		
Annual Formative Evaluations	13	25	37	49	
Grant agreement amended with second and third trances of funds		13	25		
Any reallocations of funds made by MFEPD based upon formative evaluation	13	25	37	49	61
Additional conditions precedent met			13		
Terminal date for requesting disbursing authorization under first, second and third CIP tranches		13	25	37	
Long-term participants begin leaving for USA		13	or 16		
Final shipment of goods from USA under first, second and third CIP tranches respectively		18	30	42	
Foreign exchange under first, second, and third CIP tranches fully disbursed		19	31	43	
Work on summative evaluation commences			63		
Program Grant Funds all expanded			67		
Summative Evaluation			68 or 73		

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ANNEX 2

LOCAL CURRENCY GENERATION - COMMODITY IMPORT PROCEDURES

ARTICLE 1. General

Except as A.I.D. and the Grantee may otherwise agree in writing, Zimbabwe dollars required to support the BEST Program will be generated in accordance with the procedures and requirements contained in Section 4.4. of this Annex 2. These procedures and requirements closely follow those of the Zimbabwe Commodity Import Program, A.I.D. Grant No. 613-K-605. As specified herein Zimbabwe counterpart dollars will be deposited into a Special Account specifically designated pursuant to mutual agreement for BEST purposes. (See Annex 1). The provisions of this Annex 2 apply to general private sector commodity imports for the purpose of generating local currency and public sector commodity procurement in support of the Program as outlined in Annex 1. With respect to these procurement transactions, the provisions of this Annex are controlling.

ARTICLE 2. Procurement, Eligibility and Utilization of Commodities

SECTION 2.1. A.I.D. Regulation 1. The procurement and utilization of commodities and commodity-related services financed under this portion of the Grant are subject to the terms and conditions of A.I.D. Regulation 1 as from time to time amended and in effect, except as A.I.D. may otherwise specify in writing. If any provision of A.I.D. Regulation 1 is inconsistent with a provision of this Annex, the provision of this Annex shall govern.

SECTION 2.2. Eligible Items

(A) The commodities eligible for financing under this Annex shall be those specified in the A.I.D. Commodity Eligibility Listing as set forth in the Implementation Letters and Commodity Procurement Instructions issued to Grantee. Commodity-related services as defined in A.I.D. Regulation 1 are eligible for financing under this Annex. Other items shall become eligible for financing only with

the written agreement of A.I.D. A.I.D. may decline to finance any specific commodity or commodity-related service when in its judgement such financing would be inconsistent with the purpose of the Grant or of the Foreign Assistance Act of 1961, as amended.

(B) A.I.D. reserves the right in exceptional situations to delete commodity categories or items within commodity categories described by the United States Department of Commerce Schedule B codes on the Commodity Eligibility Listing. Such right will be exercised at a point in time no later than commodity prevalidation by A.I.D. (Form 11 approval) or, if no commodity prevalidation is required, no later than the date on which an irrevocable Letter of Credit is confirmed by a U.S. bank in favour of the supplier.

(C) If no prevalidation is required and payment is not by Letter of Credit, A.I.D. will exercise this right no later than the date on which it expends funds made available to the Grantee under this Annex 2 for the financing of the commodity. In any event, however, the Grantee will be notified through the A.I.D. Mission in its country of any decision by A.I.D. to exercise this right pursuant to a determination that financing the commodity would adversely affect A.I.D. or foreign policy objectives of the United States or could jeopardize the safety or health of people in the importing country.

SECTION 2.3. Procurement Source. All Eligible Items shall have their source and origin in the United States of America (Code 000 of the A.I.D. Geographic Code Book), except as A.I.D. may specify in Implementation Letters or as it may otherwise agree in writing.

SECTION 2.4. Eligibility Date. No commodities or commodity-related services may be financed under this Annex 2 if they were procured pursuant to orders or contracts firmly placed or entered into prior to the date of this Agreement, except as A.I.D. may otherwise agree in writing.

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SECTION 2.5. Procurement for Public Sector. With respect to procurement under this Annex 2 by or for Grantee, its departments and instrumentalities, the provisions of Section 201.22 of A.I.D. Regulation 1 regarding formal competitive bid procedures will apply unless A.I.D. otherwise agrees in writing.

SECTION 2.6. Procurement for Private Sector. Except as A.I.D. may otherwise agree in writing, procurement by private importers will be subject to the negotiated procurement procedures of Section 201.23 of A.I.D. Regulation 1 unless the importer elects procurement through the formal competitive procedures of Section 201.22 of A.I.D. Regulation 1.

SECTION 2.7. Motor Vehicles. Except as A.I.D. may otherwise agree in writing none of the proceeds of this Grant may be used to finance the purchase, sale, long-term lease, exchange or guaranty of a sale of motor vehicles unless such motor vehicles are manufactured in the United States.

SECTION 2.8. Utilization of Commodities.

(A) Grantee will assure that commodities financed under this Annex will be effectively used for the purpose for which the assistance is made available. To this end the Grantee will use its best efforts to assure that the following procedures are followed:

(1) Accurate arrival and clearance records are maintained by customs authorities; commodity imports are promptly processed through customs at points of entry; such commodities are removed from customs and/or bonded warehouses within ninety (90) calendar days from the date the commodities are unloaded at the point of entry, unless the importer is hindered by force majeure or A.I.D. otherwise agrees in writing; and

(2) The commodities are consumed or used by the importer not later than one (1) year from the date the commodities are

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removed from customs, unless a longer period can be justified to the satisfaction of A.I.D. by reason of force majeure or special market conditions or other circumstances.

(B) Grantee will assure that commodities financed under this Annex will not be re-exported in the same or substantially the same form, unless specifically authorized by A.I.D.

SECTION 2.9. Shipping

(A) Commodities may not be financed under this Annex 2 if transported either:

(1) on an ocean vessel or aircraft under flag registry of a country which is not included in A.I.D. Geographic Code 935 as in effect at the time of shipment, or

(2) on an ocean vessel which A.I.D., by written notice to the Grantee has designated as ineligible, or

(3) under an ocean or air charter which has not received prior A.I.D. approval.

(B) Unless otherwise authorized, A.I.D. will finance only those transportation costs incurred on aircraft or ocean vessels under flag registry of a country included in the Geographic Code authorized in Section 2.3. of this Annex.

(C) Unless A.I.D. determines that privately owned United States-flag commercial ocean vessels are not available at fair and reasonable rates for such vessels, (1) at least fifty percent (50%) of the gross tonnage of all goods (computed separately for dry bulk carriers, dry cargo liners and tankers) financed by A.I.D. which may be transported on ocean vessels will be transported on privately-owned United States-flag commercial vessels, and (2) at least fifty percent (50%) of the gross freight revenue generated by all

shipments financed by A.I.D. and transported on dry cargo liners shall be paid to or for the benefit of privately-owned United States-flag commercial vessels. Compliance with the requirements of (1) and (2) of this subsection must be achieved with respect to both cargo transported from U.S. ports and cargo transported from non-U.S. ports, computed separately.

(D) Transportation by air, financed under this Annex 2 will be on carriers holding United States Certification, to the extent service by such carriers is available. Details on this requirement will be described in a Program Implementation Letter.

SECTION 2.10. Insurance. Marine insurance on commodities financed by A.I.D. under this Annex may also be financed under this Grant provided that such insurance is placed in a country included in the Geographic Code authorized in Section 2.3. of this Annex, in accordance with the application provisions of A.I.D. Regulation 1, Subparts B and C.

ARTICLE 3. Disbursement

SECTION 3.1. Letters of Commitment to United States Banks. After satisfaction of the conditions precedent, the Grantee may obtain disbursements of funds under this Grant by submitting Financing Requests to A.I.D. for the issuance of Letters of Commitment for specified amounts to one or more banking institutions in the United States designated by Grantee and satisfactory to A.I.D. Such letters will commit A.I.D. to reimburse the bank or banks on behalf of the Grantee for payments made by the banks to suppliers or contractors, under Letters of Credit or otherwise, pursuant to such documentation requirements as A.I.D. may prescribe. Banking charges incurred in connection with Letters of Commitment and disbursements shall be for the account of Grantee and may be financed by this Grant.

SECTION 3.2. Other Forms of Disbursement Authorizations. Disbursements of the Grant may also be made through such other means as the Parties may agree to in writing.

SECTION 3.3. Terminal Date for Disbursement. Except as A.I.D. may otherwise agree in writing, no Letter of Commitment or other commitment documents which may be called for by another form of disbursement under Section 3.2 shall be issued in response to a request received by A.I.D. after twelve (12) months, and no disbursement of grant funds shall be made against documentation received by A.I.D. or any bank described in Section 3.1. after eighteen (18) months, from the date of this Agreement or any Amendments providing additional funds pursuant to Article 3.1. of this Agreement.

ARTICLE 4. Covenants

SECTION 4.1. Taxation. As set forth in Section 8.4. of this Agreement, this Agreement and the Grant will be free from any taxation or fees imposed under laws in effect in Zimbabwe. To the extent that any public sector commodity procurement transaction financed under this Annex is not exempt from identifiable taxes, tariffs, duties, and other levies imposed under laws in effect within Zimbabwe, the same shall not be paid with funds provided or directly generated under this Grant.

SECTION 4.2. Reports and Records. In addition to the requirements in A.I.D. Regulation 1, the Grantee will:

(A) Furnish A.I.D. such reports and information relating to the goods and services financed by this Grant and the performance of Grantee's obligations under this Annex as A.I.D. may reasonably request.

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(B) Maintain or cause to be maintained, in accordance with generally accepted accounting principles and practices consistently applied, such books and records relating to this Grant as may be described in Implementation Letters. Such books and records may be inspected by A.I.D. or any of its authorized representatives at all times as A.I.D. may reasonably require and shall be maintained for three years after the date of last disbursement by A.I.D. under this Annex; and

(C) Permit A.I.D. or any of its authorized representatives at all reasonable times during the three-year period to inspect the commodities financed under this Annex at any point, including the point of use.

SECTION 4.3. Minimum Size of Transaction. No foreign exchange allocations or Letter of Credit issued pursuant to this Annex shall be in amount less than Ten Thousand United States Dollars (US$10,000), except as A.I.D. may otherwise agree in writing.

SECTION 4.4. Generation and Use of Local Currency.

(A) The generation of local currency under the Grant shall result only from the disbursement of funds allocated for use by the private sector unless a Public Sector Import should result in accruals of proceeds to Grantee or any authorized Agency as a result of the sale of the Eligible Items.

(B) The Grantee will establish a Special Account in the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe and will deposit therein currency of the Government of Zimbabwe in amounts equal to proceeds accruing to the Grantee or any authorized agency thereof as a result of the sale of Eligible Items. Funds in the Special Account shall be utilized for mutually agreed purposes as set forth in Annex 1.

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(C) Except as A.I.D. may otherwise agree in writing, deposits to the Special Account shall be made within thirty (30) days after disbursement by the U.S. bank. Such deposits shall be based upon the exchange rate in effect on the day of disbursement by the U.S. bank, which provides the largest number of Zimbabwe dollars per U.S. dollar that is not unlawful in Zimbabwe.

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ANNEX J

USAID/ZIMBABWE RESPONSE TO PAIP APPROVAL CABLE

The following is USAID/Zimbabwe's response to specific points raised in Washington's PAIP approval message (State 083441 of 4/9/83). Paragraph numbers are keyed to paragraphs in the Washington cable, also attached.

Paragraph 2 - To place GOZ investment in education/training field perspective, a tabular presentation has been included in the PAAD as Annex K showing major GOZ budget allocations over several years and the trends implied by present government policy.

Paragraph 3 - The distinction between program and project assistance is understood by both the Mission and the GOZ, along with the respective AID rules and procedures which apply to each mode of assistance. The GOZ's and AID's program objectives in alleviating the identified constraint areas are stressed throughout the PAAD, especially in Section II, Program Description. Because of the GOZ's system of accounting and attribution of all donor assistance in its annual budget, it will be not only possible, but necessary, to attribute local currency generated by the CIP to specific activities. These activities may also be funded in part by the GOZ's own resources or other donors. They will be activities already identified in the GOZ's Annual Estimates of Expenditures but for which the GOZ's own funds are not available. They are GOZ activities in every sense and not "AID projects", and the GOZ has full implementation responsibility. GOZ rules and procedures will apply with respect to contracting, management and procurement.

Annual formative evaluations are planned for the BEST program, and the release of the second and third tranches are subject to satisfactory results of the evaluations in 1984 and 1985. The evaluations will assess progress made by the GOZ in alleviating the identified program constraint areas, and activities financed directly under the grant will be treated as a means to this end, not as an end in themselves.

Paragraph 4 - AID's role with respect to the implementation of activities supported by the proceeds of the CIP will be limited to (a) concurrence in the list of selected activities as a package; (b) general monitoring by USAID/Zimbabwe on a periodic basis during implementation; and (c) audit rights. AID's concurrence will be based entirely on the relationship of the total proposed package to resolution of the constraints.

The single area where USAID/Zimbabwe has not been fully responsive to the PAAD guidance concerns the suggestion that an IEE be prepared in cases where activity financed by CIP-generated local currency appears to have an impact on the environment. Noting that USAID/Zimbabwe is given considerable discretion in determining

when the potential environmental impact is sufficiently serious to merit an IEE, USAID/Zimbabwe would like to point out that the practice of preparing IIE's has never been followed with respect to local currency activities financed under the CIP or ZASA, nor in the mission view would it be appropriate. First, these activities are the GOZ's responsibility and GOZ's rules and procedures govern in other areas (contracting, construction, procurement, etc.). Secondly, no environmentally contentious actions are likely under the BEST program (e.g., deforestation, use of pesticides, etc.). Construction is probably the only area where any environmental concerns are likely to arise. While there is no individual environmental analysis on each activity on the GOZ, Ministry of Construction procedures include a careful site inspection by the architect and local city planner which address basic environmental concerns. In addition, building codes in Zimbabwe are very vigorous by any standards and in some instances tougher than the US equivalent. In sum, USAID/Zimbabwe believes it is both unnecessary and, from a policy viewpoint, undesirable, to initiate IEEs on selected local currency activities implemented by the GOZ. A cable stating the mission's views (Harare 2726 of 4/20/83) has been sent to AID/W, requesting the removal of the proposal for IEEs in connection with CIP-generated local currency activities.

Paragraph 5 - The PAAD includes a fuller description of the foreign exchange component. It is made clear that the objective of technical assistance and overseas training funded under this component is to address program constraints. TA will be obtained through an appropriate US institution under a host-country contract or a direct AID contract, in either case awarded through competitive bids. In view of GOZ's interest in TA from selected developing countries (India, Mauritius, Nigeria, Ghana) related to their special relevance to Zimbabwe, we have indicated a waiver for a limited amount of technical services from code 941 countries may be sought when details on TA are further developed.

Participant training will be handled by the Institute for International Education of New York, in accordance with IIE's contract with AID under the ZIMMAN project. Standard AID rules and procedures governing participant training will apply.

With respect to program-selected commodities, a maximum of 20 percent of the CIP is earmarked to the Zimbabwe public sector without local currency generation. These commodities will be for use by the GOZ implementing ministries for activities directly selected to the BEST program. Most of these items will be procured under the CIP where AID Regulation 1 and CIP procedures will apply (code 000 source-origin and ar $25,000 limit on procurement without formal competitive bids). A small share will be procured directly where specific items not manufactured in the US are required (e.g., audio-visual equipment) and a Code 935 waiver will therefore be necessary.

Paragraph 6 - The PAAD contains examples of activities which may be attributed to AID through the CIP local currency generation. As was discussed in Paragraph 3 above, the GOZ budget and accounting system legally requires attribution of funds received from foreign donors under the Vote of Credit procedure. See also Section III B of the PAAD, Implementation Procedures, for a more complete explanation. A similar attribution of AID-generated local currency is true for the FY 1982 CIP and will be true of the FY 1983 CIP and the ZASA Program. Under this system, we may help finance elements of the approved GOZ program in education/training in a way which provides a clear audit trail, but which is not AID project assistance. AID will concur in the selection of fundable activities but will monitor implementation only to the extent of ensuring that reasonable management practices are being followed. It is worth repeating that AID's interest is less in the successful undertaking of funded activities per se than in the eventual contribution made by these activities or institutions in addressing the program constraint areas.

Paragraph 7 - The PAAD contains a detailed implementation plan, covering inter alia, the points raised in paragraph 7 of the PAIP approval cable. Criteria for disbursements of the second and third tranches will be a function of the annual formative evaluations, and are discussed in Part IV "Program Evaluations".

Paragraph 8 - The question of additionality is addressed in a clear-cut manner by the GOZ Vote of Credit procedure, which is, by definition, additional to the GOZ's own resources. The working of the Vote of Credit is described in Part IV "Implementation Procedures". In addition, a separate covenant on additionality has been added, wherein the GOZ agrces to provide evidence that AID resources are additional and not substitutive for the GOZ's own resources.

Paragraph 9 - The IEE has not been revised for reasons stated in Paragraph 4 above.

Paragraph 10 - The draft Grant Agreement is annexed to the PAAD. It was prepared by USAID/Zimbabwe modelled on the ZASA agreement and appropriately modified. At this writing, the draft grant agreement is still subject to review by the RLA.

4/22/83

ORIGIN OFFICE AFDR-06
INFO AFSA-03 AFDP-06 PPCE-01 PDPR-01 PPPB-03 GC-01 GCAF-01
GCFL-01 FM-02 CMGT-02 CTR-02 IT-06 AFDA-01 RELO-01
MAST-01 STHR-01 JB-00 /039 A0

INFO OCT-00 INR-10 AF-00 EB-00 /063 R

DRAFTED BY AID/AFR/PD/SA:EMGILBERT:AGB
APPROVED BY AID/DAA/AFR:GPATTERSON
AID/AFR/SA:RWRIN (DRAFT)
AID/AFR/PD: NCOHEN (DRAFT)
AID/GC/AFR:TBORK (DRAFT)
AID/AFR/SA: RCARLSON (DRAFT)
PPC/PDPR: JWOLGIN (DRAFT)
AID/AFR/DP: SSHARP (DRAFT)
AID/AFR/TR/EHR: CPERRY (DRAFT

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AIDAC, MBABANE FOR RLA

E.O. 12356: N/A
TAGS:
SUBJECT: BASIC EDUCATION AND SKILLS TRAINING ECPR
(613-0288)

REFERENCE: STATE 083441

1. ECPR HELD MARCH 31, 1983 UNDER CHAIRMANSHIP OF DAA/AFR PATTERSON, APPROVED PAIP AND AUTHORIZED MISSION TO PROCEED WITH PREPARATION OF PAAD. DISCUSSION CENTERED ON TWO MAIN TOPICS: (A) DISCUSSION OF ZIMBABWE'S EDUCATION PROGRAM AND POLICY OPTIONS OPEN TO GOZ, BASED ON ANALYSIS IN PAIP, AND (B) TECHNICAL AND PROCEDURAL ISSUES FOR GUIDANCE OF PAAD TEAM, INCLUDING DICTINCTION BETWEEN PROGRAM AND PROJECT ELEMENTS; AND PROCEDURES FOR DISBURSEMENT OF FUNDS. SEVERAL POINTS EMERGED WHICH ARE SUMMARIZED BELOW AS GUIDANCE FOR THE PAAD TEAM. IN ADDITION GC REP CIRCULATED MEMO ON ISSUES WHICH MUST BE ADDRESSED IN PAAD. SHORTLIDGE RETURNED WITH INITIAL VERSION OF GC MEMO, WHICH MAY BE SUBJECT TO FURTHER REFINEMENT THIS WEEK. GILBERT WILL BRING FINAL VERSION FOR TEAM'S AND MISSION'S USE.

2. PURSUANT TO THE DISCUSSION OF EDUCATIONAL GOALS OF THE PROGRAM, IT WAS AGREED THAT THE APPROACH TAKEN IN THE PAIP TO ASSIST THE GOZ TO ACCELERATE THE DEVELOPMENT AND ADOPTION OF COST-EFFECTIVE EDUCATIONAL SUB-SYSTEMS IS HIGHLY CONSISTENT WITH AID'S RECENTLY FORMULATED EDUCATION POLICY AND REPRESENTS AN AID INVESTMENT TOWARDS A MEASURABLE AND ACHIEVABLE GOAL IN ZIMBABWE. TO ENABLE AID/W TO PLACE THIS INVESTMENT IN PERSPECTIVE, THE PAAD SHOULD INCLUDE AN EXPLANATION OF THE RELATIONSHIP OF THE GOZ BUDGET IN THE EDUCATION/TRAINING SECTOR TO THE NATIONAL BUDGET FOR OTHER SECTORS.

3. DESPITE THE GENERAL CHARACTERIZATION OF BEST AS PROGRAM SECTOR ASSISTANCE, PROJECT-STYLE ELEMENTS DO EXIST, AND THE PAAD MUST DESCRIBE HOW THEY WILL BE TREATED. A FUNDAMENTAL QUESTION IS THE EXTENT TO WHICH USAID/Z MUST TRACK FUNDS UNDER THE LOCAL CURRENCY PORTION OF THE GRANT DOWN TO SPECIFIC ACTIVITIES. GENERALLY SPEAKING, PROJECT-LIKE ACTIVITIES AND THEIR

RESULTS SHOULD NOT BE STRESSED IN THE PAAD, BUT RATHER EMPHASIS SHOULD BE GIVEN TO PROGRESS IN THE MACRO PROBLEM AREAS DESCRIBED ON PAGE 15 OF THE PAIP. PROGRAM EVALUATIONS AND THE RELEASE OF PROGRAM FUNDS IN ANNUAL TRANCHES WILL BE BASED PRIMARILY ON DEMONSTRATED ACHIEVEMENTS IN THE ADDRESSING THESE CONSTRAINTS, NOT ON THE COMPLETION OF PROJECT-LIKE ACTIVITIES PER SE, EVEN THOUGH ULTIMATELY THEY ARE DIRECTED AT RELIEVING THE CONSTRAINTS.

4. WHERE AID-GENERATED LOCAL CURRENCIES WILL BE DIRECTLY ATTRIBUTED TO SPECIFIC ACTIVITIES, THE MISSION WILL BE EXPECTED TO ENSURE THAT THESE ACTIVITIES ARE PROPERLY CARRIED OUT BY THE GOZ IN ACCORDANCE WITH REASONABLE MANAGEMENT PRACTICES. WE BELIEVE OUR RESPONSIBILITY EXTENDS TO ENSURING THAT ENVIRONMENTAL CONSIDERATIONS HAVE BEEN TAKEN INTO ACCOUNT. ACCORDINGLY, AN IEE SHOULD BE PREPARED FOR ANY ACTIVITY WHICH IN THE MISSION'S OPINION MIGHT HAVE AN IMPACT ON THE PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT. HOWEVER, REGULAR AID PROCEDURES WITH RESPECT TO SECTION 611(A), SOURCE-ORIGIN PROCUREMENT RULES AND CONTACTING REGULATIONS WILL NOT APPLY TO ACTIVITIES UNDERTAKEN BY THE GOZ THE LOCAL CURRENCY PORTION OF THIS PROGRAM.

5. TREATMENT OF THE FOREIGN EXCHANGE COMPONENT IS NOT ADEQUATELY DESCRIBED IN THE PAIP. IF, AS IS ASSUMED, IT IS TO BE USED IN THE SAME WAY AS THE LOCAL CURRENCY, TO BRING ABOUT CHANGES IN THE FIVE CONSTRAINT AREAS, AS OPPOSED TO THE COMPLETION OF SPECIFIC PROJECT-LIKE OUTPUTS, THIS SHOULD BE CLEARLY STATED. THIS WILL ENABLE IMMEDIATE OBLIGATION OF FUNDS FOR FOREIGN EXCHANGE PURPOSES WITHOUT THE PRIOR PLANNING REQUIRED BY SECTION 611(A) FOR ACTIVITIES OF A PROJECT NATURE. DESPITE THE PROGRAM APPROACH, IT IS CONSIDERED PRUDENT TO APPLY OTHER AID REGULATIONS TO THE FOREIGN EXCHANGE COMPONENT, INCLUDING SOURCE-ORIGIN AND NATIONALITY RULES, CONTRACTING PROCEDURES, ENVIRONMENTAL REGULATIONS AND STANDARD AID MONITORING PRACTICES. SINCE THE FOREIGN EXCHANGE COMPONENT WILL BE APPLIED TO TECHNICAL ASSISTANCE, PARTICIPANT TRAINING AND PROGRAM-SPECIFIC COMMODITIES, THE APPLICATION OF THESE RULES SHOULD IMPOSE NO SPECIAL BURDEN ON THE MISSION OR THE GOZ.

6. WITH RESPECT TO THE LOCAL CURRENCY COMPONENT OF THE PROGRAM, IT IS, OF COURSE, HELPFUL TO INCLUDE ILLUSTRATIVE EXAMPLES IN THE PAAD. HOWEVER, WE SHOULD THINK IN TERMS OF ALL, REPEAT ALL, OF THE ACTIVITIES WHICH THE GOZ WILL UNDERTAKE IN A CERTAIN CONSTRAINT AREA, RATHER THAN TO ATTEMPT TO ISOLATE SPECIFIC ACTIVITIES WHICH MAY BE FINANCED UNDER OUR GRANT. ACCORDINGLY, THE EFFECTIVENESS OF THE PROGRAM WILL BE JUDGED IN TERMS OF OVERALL PROGRESS BY THE GOZ IN RELIEVING THE SECTOR CONSTRAINTS, NOT JUST PROGRESS ASSOCIATED WITH ACTIVITIES WHICH CAN BE TRACED TO THE GRANT. WHILE THIS WILL TEND TO BROADEN THE SCOPE OF AID'S MONITORING AND EVALUATION ROLE, IT REPRESENTS THE REAL TEST FOR TRUE SECTOR PROGRAM ASSISTANCE.

7. THE PAAD SHOULD INCLUDE A FARILY DETAILED IMPLEMENTATION PLAN, WITH IMPORTANT DIFFERENCE FROM THE IMPLEMENTATION PLAN NORMALLY PREPARED FOR PROJECTS. AT A MINIMUM, THE PLAN SHOULD COVER THE FOLLOWING SUBJECTS:

--- (A) PROVIDE EVIDENCE THAT THE GOZ HAS THE NECESSARY CAPABILITY AND EXPERIENCE TO DESIGN AND IMPLEMENT A PROGRAM OF THIS MAGNITUDE. LIMITATIONS IN THIS AREA HAVE BEEN A MAJOR CONSTRAINING FACTOR IN THE INTRODUCTION OF SECTOR PROGRAMS IN AFRICA IN GENERAL,

AND WHILE ZIMBABWE IS RECOGNIZED BY MOST AS AN EXCEPTION, THE PAPER SHOULD DEMONSTRATE WHY SUCH AN EXCEPTION IS WARRANTED.

--- (B) DISCUSSION DISBURSEMENT PROCEDURES IN SOME DETAIL, INCLUDING BOTH MECHANICAL ASPECTS, SUCH AS HOW THE LOCAL CURRENCY SPECIAL ACCOUNT WILL WORK, AND POLICY ASPECTS. THE LATTER SHOULD INCLUDE A FIRST YEAR STRATEGY FOR OPERATION OF THE PROGRAM AND THE BASIS FOR INITIAL DISBURSEMENT. CRITERIA AND PROCEDURES FOR SECOND AND THIRD YEAR DISBURSEMENTS SHOULD ALSO BE ESTABLISHED WITH RELEVANT GOZ OFFICIALS. MEASUREMENT STANDARDS SHOULD BE REALISTIC AND NOT OVERLY RESTRICTIVE, YET SPECIFIC ENOUGH TO PERMIT OBJECTIVE ASSESSMENT OF PROGRESS MADE WITHIN THE RELATIVELY SHORT SPACE OF ONE YEAR.

--- (C) PLANS FOR REGULAR COMMUNICATION WITH THE GOZ THROUGHOUT THE YEAR AND AT CRITICAL MOMENTS IN THE DISBURSEMENT PROCESS.

--- (D) DESCRIPTION OF RECORDS TO BE KEPT ON PROGRAM DECISION AND SELECTION OF ACTIVITIES.

--- (E) DESCRIPTION OF USAID/Z MONITORING OF BOTH FOREIGN CURRENCY AND LOCAL CURRENCY COMPONENTS.

8. THE QUESTION OF ADDITIONALITY WAS DISCUSSED AT THE ECPR, WITH THE CONCLUSION THAT THE PAAD TEAM AND MISSION SHOULD ESTABLISH THIS PRINCIPLE CLEARLY IN THEIR DICUSSIONS WITH THE GOZ AND DEVISE A METHOD TO BE DESCRIBED IN THE PAAD FOR EVALUATING THE GOZ'S BUDGET TO DETERMINE WHETHER ADDITIONALITY EXISTS. GC RECOMMENDS CONSIDERATION OF A COVENANT REQUIRING THAT AID FUNDS UNDER THIS GRANT BE ADDITIONAL TO, AND NOT A SUBSTITUTE FOR THE GOZ'S OWN RESOURCES IN THE PLANNED EXPANSION AND REFORM OF THE EDUCATION/TRAINING SECTOR.

9. THE IEE SHOULD BE REVISED IN THE PAAD FOR REASONS STATED-IN-PARA'4 ABOVE. AT ITS DISCRETION, USAID/Z SHOULD INITIATE AN IEE FOR ANY LOCAL CURRENCY OR FOREIGN EXCHANGE ACTIVITY WHICH (A) CAN BE TRACED DIRECTLY TO HE AID GRANT AND (B) IS BY ITS NATURE LIKELY TO AFFECT THE PHYSICAL ENVIRONMENT (E.G., CONSTRUCTION).

10. THE PAAD SHOULD INCLUDE A DRAFT PROGRAM AGREEMENT. MISSION SHOULD THEREFORE ARRANGE FOR RLA TO WORK WITH PAAD TEAM. EAGLEBURGER

ANNEX K

ANALYSIS OF GOVERNMENT OF ZIMBABWE ANNUAL ESTIMATES OF EXPENDITURES SINCE 1979

1. In the three years since independence in 1980, the budget of the Government of Zimbabwe has increased 220 percent.

2. Despite this increase in the overall national budget, most Ministries have maintained their relative share of the national budget.

3. However, the budget does reflect some major shifts in priorities. For example,

   A. In 1979/80 which spans most of the year before independence, defense was 23.5 percent of the national budget. In the revised Annual Estimates of Expenditures for the current fiscal year, it is 12.1 percent. Thus, although defense expenditures have remained fairly constant in absolute amounts over the three years, their relative share of the national budget has declined dramatically.

   B. On the other hand, the most dramatic increases in relative shares of the national budget have been in Ministries such as

      - Education and Culture which went from 9.8 percent of the national budget to 13.9 percent.

      - Labor and Social Services from 0.6 percent to 3.1 percent.

      - Agriculture and Lands combined from 6.3 percent to 7.8 percent.

      - Construction from 3.1 percent to 5.0 percent.

4. Recently Z$100 million has been cut off the 1982/83 budget. From the comparison of the original estimates with the revised ones, it appears that the cut was absorbed fairly equitably across the Government of Zimbabwe. The primary reason that some ministries were cut more than others was due to a higher rate of underexpenditures. Thus, the nearly 50 percent cut in the Ministry of Housing was due to the slow rate at which this Ministry has expended funds during the current fiscal year.

ANNEX K: TABLE OF ESTIMATES OF EXPENDITURES FOR 1979/80 to 1982/83

BY VOTE APPROPRIATIONS

Appropriations	1979/80 Z$	= %	1980/81 Z$	= %	Original 1982/83 Z$	= %	Revised 1982/83 Z$	= %
I. Vote Appropriations								
1. President	182,000	0.1	374,000	0.0	570,000	0.0	570,000	0.0
2. Parliament of Zimbabwe	1,974,000	0.2	2,097,000	0.1	2,744,000	0.1	2,644,000	0.1
3. Prime Minister	6,454,200	0.5	8,301,000	0.5	17,280,000	0.6	16,230,000	0.6
4. Public Service	3,844,000	0.3	7,275,000	0.5	12,050,000	0.4	10,602,600	0.4
5. Defence	288,641,000	23.5	262,156,000	16.1	291,232,000	10.4	326,232,000	12.1
6. Finance, Econ.	55,637,000	4.5	66,761,000	4.1	308,523,000	11.0	261,472,768	9.7
7. Industry and Energy	26,015,000 1/	2.1	294,000	0.0	2,000,000	0.1	1,900,000	0.1
8. Trade and Commerce	1/		41,195,000	2.5	39,341,000	1.4	47,141,000	1.8
9. Agriculture	63,628,400	5.2	66,939,000	4.1	141,910,000	5.1	148,602,787	5.5
10. Mines	2,672,000	0.2	3,897,000	0.2	5,075,000	0.2	4,575,000	0.2
11. Transport	65,129,000 1/	5.3	78,263,000	4.8	118,030,000	4.2	96,030,000	3.6
12. Foreign Affairs	1,422,000	0.1	9,200,000	0.6	16,500,000	0.6	13,500,000	0.5
13. Manpower	4,482,000	0.4	8,071,000	0.5	12,700,000	0.5	9,700,000	0.4
14. Local Government	49,256,000 2/	4.0	63,930,000 2/	3.9	83,987,000	3.0	66,840,000	2.5
15. Housing	2/		2/		61,374,000	2.2	36,951,000	1.4
16. Lands	13,962,000	1.1	34,798,000	2.1	62,553,000	2.2	61,370,800	2.3
17. Labour	7,540,400	0.6	22,110,000	1.4	90,805,000	3.2	82,821,450	3.1
18. Health	54,226,000	4.4	83,729,000	5.1	130,300,000	4.7	125,587,311	4.7
19. Education	120,437,000	9.8	218,688,600	13.4	408,400,000	14.6	375,736,380	13.9
20. Youth	51,000	0.0	2,287,000	0.1	10,000,000	0.4	8,500,000	0.3
21. Community Development	3/		111,000	0.0	3,300,000	0.1	3,000,000	0.1
22. Home Affairs	101,169,000	8.3	87,896,000	5.4	104,291,000	3.7	102,291,000	3.8
23. Legal	4/		4/		1,866,000	0.1	1,566,000	0.1
24. Justice	16,955,000 4/	1.4	18,896,000	1.2	24,955,000	0.9	23,955,000	0.9
25. Information	5,991,000 5/	0.5	6,291,000	0.4	8,299,000	0.3	7,799,000	0.3
26. Natural Resources)					26,081,000	0.9	23,610,000	0.9
27. Water Resources)	16,388,000	1.3	26,590,000	1.6	41,760,000	1.5	35,141,400	1.3
28. Roads	34,516,000 6/	2.8	42,381,000	2.6	62,781,000	2.2	62,055,750	2.3
29. National Supplies	7/		7/		7,981,000	0.3	19,868,100	0.7
30. Construction	38,394,000	3.1	48,648,000	3.0	116,365,000	4.2	135,072,654	5.0
Sub-total	978,966,000	79.9	1,210,827,000	74.4	2,213,053,000	79.1	2,111,366,000	78.2
II. Constitutional	246,967,600	20.1	416,707,995	26.6	585,722,000	20.9	587,552,295	21.8
III. GRAND TOTAL	1,225,933,600	100.0%*	1,627,534,995	100.0%*	2,798,775,000	100.0%*	2,698,918,295	100.0%*

* May not be equal due to rounding.

CRITERIA FOR PROGRAMMING LOCAL CURRENCY GENERATIONS UNDER COMMODITY IMPORT PROGRAMS

There is no existing policy within A.I.D. which requires that local currency generations be programmed according to any set criteria. The closest A.I.D. policy related to this question is the recently issued Policy Determination No. 5, Programming PL 480 Local Currency Generations. Normally there are local currency generations under a PL 480 Title I or Title II Sec. 206 program. Under a commodity import program the generation of local currency usually depends upon whether funds under the program are used by the private sector, since public sector users are not normally required to deposit local currency against dollar disbursements. In the case of the 1982 Zimbabwe Commodity Import Program, as well as for the proposed 1983 CIP, all users of funds under the program are required to deposit the equivalent amount of local currency in the special account in the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe. This applies to the public sector entities, parastatal bodies and the private sector importers. We have, however, reserved the authority to waive this requirement for public sector users under special circumstances.

As a matter of interest in what other USAID's are doing with respect to local currency generations under commodity import programs, we asked other Missions in Kenya, Sudan and Egypt the following question:

"How are local currency generations under CIP being utilized? Are they programmed for specific activities, or are

they used for general budgetary support? If they are programmed for specific activities, does the mission have established criteria for programming funds?"

The USAID/Kenya response, which is quoted below, discussed their proposed 1983 program; no comment was given on the 1981 or 1982 programs:

"Use of local currency equivalents to support private sector activities was contemplated by USAID/Kenya only for the second and third year of the originally proposed three year program. There was to be no fixed percentage of funds set aside for the private sector, but USAID estimated that up to half of available shillings might be so used. First call on local currencies was to have been to meet identified costs of policy reforms. In any case USAID did not contemplate reducing flows to GOK budget below the historic rate of 10 million dollars equivalent annually. Specific projects in the GOK budget would have to support increased rural production, with the additional criterion that increases in recurrent costs associated with selected projects would be minimal.

Beyond GOK budget requirements, local currencies would have been on-lent to the private sector through commercial banking mechanisms similar to those to be established under the proposed rural private enterprise project (615-0220). Commercial banks would have judged credit-worthiness and would have been borne or shared risk. Sub-loan criteria selected by USAID, and applied by banks, would have included labor intensiveness, production

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based on natural resources, rural location, and emphasis on export orientation. No fixed percentage of funds would have been for capital goods or raw materials. Funds would have been made available to private firms as medium to long-term credit. Normal banking practice suggests that such term credit would be used for land acquisition, equipment and buildings. Banks would be expected at a minimum to provide matching funds for working capital requirements."

The following is the response from USAID/Sudan:

"The programming of CIP generated counterpart funds varies from one grant to another. In FY-80, the local currency went to general budget support. In FY-81, there was a mix of general budget and project support, plus local costs of USAID operations. FY-82 omitted project support for which there is limited need because local costs of aid financed projects are largely covered under the PL-480 Title III program. We are also including, and now expanding, the use of CIP counterpart to cover local costs of priority projects financed by other donors."

USAID/Egypt provided the following comments to our question:

"Local currency generated by the CIP grants is to be deposited into a special account and used for requirements determined and budgeted mutually by AID and GOE Ministry of Economy on a case by case basis. Specific amounts have been

budgeted to augment GOE Egyptian pound contributions to AID-financed projects and may also be used for payment of customs duties on a case by case basis for AID-financed commodities as agreed upon by the parties. Also budgeted from the special account are costs under projects and activities in support of the U.S. economic assistance program, such as costs for technical and feasibility studies, technology transfer, and small-scale development activities (including grants to PVO's) and non-project participant training costs as the ministry and AID may agree upon. Further, an amount has been budgeted to offset USAID's office rental and local currency administrative expenses."

As can be seen from the Missions responses to our query, while they are involved to various degrees in deciding the use of the local currency generations under their CIP's, none indicated that it is using an established set of criteria.

In order to illustrate how the programming of the 1982 Zimbabwe CIP local currency generations compare to the policy guidlines for programming local currency generations under the PL 480 programmes, the following comments are keyed to the guidelines set forth in the PD-5.

PD-5. The Mission and the host government should agree on the specific uses of the sales proceeds as well as on appropriate policy reforms as much as possible before the Title I agree-

ment is signed.

CIP. One of the Conditions Precedent to Disbursement included in the CIP Agreement 613-K-603 is the requirement that the GOZ must provide us with a list of activities and related amounts to be funded with the local currency generations under the CIP. In actuality, this list is developed in preliminary consultation with the Mission. Any subsequent changes in the list of items and amounts allocated to each are submitted to the Mission for concurrence. We recently went through a reprogramming of funds, where we actually sat down around a table with personnel from the Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development and adjusted amounts for particular line items in the schedule, deleted certain items and added others. We looked in particular at the relationship of activities to our CDSS, the execution capacities of implementing ministries and whether projects were ready to start. The GOZ's rationale for these changes was well thought out and quite pactical. As a result of the 20 percent devaluation of the Zimbabwe dollar in December of 1982 and the strengthening of the U.S. dollar, it is anticipated that there will be an additional amount of approximately Z$9 million to program. Part of these funds were programmed at the above mentioned session for the family planning program and for additions to an AID-funded teacher training college, both integral to our CDSS. Other possible uses were discussed, for which final GOZ proposals are expected shortly.

PD-5. The specific activities which will be funded with the local currency and the specific amount of funding available for each activity -- as well as specific activities that will not be eligible for funding -- should be explicitly stated. The local currency may be used, as appropriate, to help meet the legal requirement that the recipient government contribute at least 25 percent of the total cost of activities financed by Development Assistance.

CIP. The GOZ provides the Mission with a specific list of items to be funded with the local currency, along with the relevant amounts allocated for each item. This project list is a condition precedent to disbursement of any U.S. dollar funds under the CIP.

PD-5. The Mission should systematically monitor the recipient government's overall budget allocation decisions. This will help to ensure that local currency generated from Title I commodity sales actually finances a net relative expansion of important development-oriented activities and/or supports appropriate policy reforms above and beyond what otherwise would have occurred; that is, it will help to ensure that the recipient government does not allocate fewer budgetary resources to support these activities and reforms, thereby offsetting the expansion made possible by Title I sales proceeds.

CIP. It is our observation that the GOZ treats the CIP generations as "extra" to funds contained in their normal

budget. In most cases the activities funded come from the Parliamentary "Vote of Credit", or are those projects which are scheduled for implementation but which are being delayed due to shortfalls in available funding. In the allocation and approval process we are able to ensure that local currencies go for what we believe are important development oriented activities and/or which support desired policy objectives.

PD-5. Missions should consider using the sales proceeds to support activities implemented by private voluntary organizations (PVOs), particularly under Title II and with operational program grants (OPGs). Missions should also encourage expansion of the private sector. Opportunities may exist to help develop capital markets and, through private financial institutions or other development mechanisms for on-lending, to finance viable private enterprises, including agri-business activities.

CIP. The agreement for the CIP 613-K-603 requires that a minimum of 80 percent of the U.S. dollars be allocated to private sector importers. As for the local currency generations, the equivalent of U.S. $890,000 has been programmed for use by the Cotton Training Center, which is owned and operated by the privately managed Cotton Growers Association. Additionally, the equivalent of U.S. $4.4 million has been programmed for use by the Department of Cooperatives for on-lending to privately owned cooperatives. Once the Small Enterprise Development

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Corporation comes into existence, it is anticipated that funds will be channelled through this organization to assist small private sector businesses.

PD-5. The sales proceeds should be spent as closely as possible to the time the PL 480 imports are used in order to minimize the net inflationary or deflationary effects of the agreement.

CIP. With the prior planning now being done with respect to the use of the local currency generations under the CIP, disbursement of the local currency should closely follow the importation of goods under the CIP. In several instances projects have been deferred because they were not ready for disbursements.

PD-5. Missions should consider depositing the sales proceeds into an interest bearing commercial bank account established to help finance development activities not agreed upon during negotiations or not yet ready for implementation; both the principal and the interest can later be used for funding such activities.

CIP. The local currency proceeds from the CIP are currently being deposited in a special account in the Reserve Bank of Zimbabwe, as required by the language of the Agreement. No interest is earned on GOZ deposits in the Reserve Bank.

PD-5. The negotiating opportunity should be used to discuss key macroeconomic and sectoral policy issues, including subsidized food prices. If the Title I commodities are sold below market prices, this not only will generate less revenue for the government but also can have an adverse effect on domestic food production by lowering the overall price structure. The capacity to engage the host government in such discussions is likely to be enhanced when both PL 480 food aid and non-food aid resource levels are discussed at the same time.

CIP. The CIP itself is designed to support important policy adjustments already made by the GOZ.

PD-5. Missions should review with the recipient government the specific procedures for programming, releasing, and controlling the sales proceeds, and for monitoring and evaluating the implementation of the specific activities (including reporting requirements). Missions should entrust the recipient country with as much of the work of utilizing and accounting for the country-owned local currency as possible.

CIP. The GOZ is totally responsible for utilizing and accounting for the local currency generations. It has specific procedures in place for programming, releasing, and controlling the local currency generations under the CIP. The Mission Controller maintains close contact with personnel in the

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Ministry of Finance, Economic Planning and Development in order to monitor the procedures. Also, formal reporting procedures have been agreed to between the USAID and the GOZ.

It is the Mission's opinion that the GOZ has done an excellent job thus far in programming the local currency generations under the CIP. Approximately 25 percent of the funds are being used to support activities in the agricultural sector and 32 percent for the education sector, with lesser amounts being used for family planning, low cost housing and community development. These are basically the same areas that we have focused on in our CDSS. If it were our opinion that the GOZ's selection of activities to be financed with the reflows did not follow our development objectives, we would not concur in their use for such purposes. If this were the situation, then an established set of criteria for programming funds would be called for. It should also be noted that the reason for selecting the non-project mode of assistance was based on a determination by A.I.D. that the GOZ possesses the capabilities to select, design and implement its project. To date, this has proven to be correct.

Finally, while there is no formal set of criteria being used by the Mission to program the local currency generations under the CIP, the Mission does use an informal set of criteria when discussing planned uses of the currencies with the GOZ, as well as when giving our concurrence to the activities

formally proposed by the GOZ for funding. These criteria are as follows:

1. To expand the productive capacity of the modern sector (manufacturing industry, mining and commercial agriculture).
2. To enlarge agriculture productivity particularly in small-holder areas.
3. To generally improve human capital in Zimbabwe through skills development, improving education qualitatively, enlarging it quantitatively and making it more cost effective. To also strengthen local institutions designed to expand human productivity.
4. To expand employment both in the modern and rural sectors, while strengthening linkages between training, employment and business. Special emphasis will be placed on assisting the emerging Zimbabwe private sector and small entrepreneurs.
5. To moderate population growth rates, thereby relieving, over time, pressure on land, energy resources, job creation and social services.
6. To provide capital resources to open up access to home ownership for low income families, and to involve the private sector as a major source of lending for low income housing.

7. To engage the Government of Zimbabwe in polic dialogue which will maintain an environment conducive to growth, private investment and export-led development.
8. To concentrate on projects which are ready to implement.
9. To give preference to projects which have a potentially large number of beneficiaries.
10. To focus on projects which will directly or indirectly reach the poorest segment of the population in Zimbabwe.

Footnotes:

1. In 1979/80, the Ministries of Industry and Energy Development and Trade and Commerce were combined as follows. Industry was in a single ministry known as Commerce and Industry. Energy Development was in the Ministry of Mines and Transport.
2. Ministries of Local Government and Town Planning and Housing were in a single ministry until 1982.
3. Ministry of Community Development was created out of parts of the Ministry of Education and Culture and the Ministry of Local Government.
4. Ministry of Legal Affairs was created out of the former Ministry of Justice and Constitutional Affairs.
5. Ministry of Information was known as Ministry of Information and Tourism. Tourism was shifted to Ministry of Natural Resources.
6. Posts and Telecommunications were in the Ministry of Roads. These elements have been shifted to Ministry of Information.
7. Ministry of National Supplies was created in 1982.

(2) - NONPROJECT ASSISTANCE CHECKLIST

A. GENERAL CRITERIA FOR NONPROJECT ASSISTANCE

1. FY 1982 Appropriation Act Sec. 523; FAA Sec. 634A; Sec. 653(b).

(a) Describe how authorizing and appropriations committees of Senate and House have been or will be notified concerning the assistance.	(a) Program under former name (Education and Manpower Development) is in FY 1983 CP. CN updating program being submitted in June 1983.
(b) Is assistance within (Operational Year Budget) country or international organization allocation reported to Congress (or not more than $1 million over that amount)?	(b) Yes.

2. FAA Sec. 611(a)(2)

If further legislative action is required within recipient country, what is basis for reasonable expectation that such action will be completed in time to permit orderly accomplishment of purpose of the assistance.	N/A. No legislation required.

3. FAA Sec. 209

Is assistance more efficiently and effectively given through regional or multilateral organizations? If so why is assistance not so given? Information and conclusion whether assistance will encourage regional development programs.	No.

4. FAA Sec. 601(a); (development loans)

Information and conclusions whether assistance will encourage efforts of the country to: (a) increase the flow of international trade; (b) foster private initiative and competition; (c) encourage development and use of cooperatives, credit unions, and savings and loan associations; (d) discourage monopolistic practices; (e) improve technical efficiency of industry, agriculture, and commerce; and (f) strengthen free labor unions.	Grant of foreign exchange and proposed uses local currency under this program will finance key industrial inputs, assist rural infrastructure and assist education and agriculture sectors. Programs clearly will: increase flow of international trade, foster private initiative and competition in Zimbabwe's private sector-oriented economy, encourage cooperatives and credit institutions, and improve technical efficiency in all assisted sectors. Impact on monopolistic practices and labor unions not clear given general nature of the CIP, but no adverse impacts are anticipated.

A

5. FAA Sec. 601(b)

Information and conclusion on how assistance will encourage U.S. private trade and investment abroad and encourage private U.S. participation in foreign assistance programs (including use of private trade channels and the services of U.S. private enterprise).

The CIP grant of FX will bolster economy generally and permit increased importation of U.S. goods and services and investment in a stronger, private-sector-oriented Zimbabwe economy. U.S. private business organizations have made visits to Zimbabwe since independence (April 1980) and the U.S. AID program will improve the climate for U.S. business ini-

6. FAA Sec. 612(b); Sec. 636(h)

Describe steps taken to assure that, to the maximum extent possible, the country is contributing local currencies to meet the cost of contractual and other services, and foreign currencies owned by the United States are utilized to meet the cost of contractual and other services.

Provisions in the grant agreement will require the country to utilize counterpart local currencies in mutually agreed upon supporting development activities, thus assuring that these resources will, to the maximum extent possible, be used to meet the cost of contractual and other services.

7. FAA Sec. 612(d)

Does the United States own excess foreign currency and, if so, what arrangements have been made for its release?

No.

8. FY 1982 Appropriation Act Sec. 521

If assistance is for the production of any commodity for export, is the commodity likely to be in surplus on world markets at the time the resulting productive capacity becomes operative, and is such assistance likely to cause substantial injury to U.S. producers of the same, similar or competing commodity.

This section will be complied with, through mission monitoring.

B. FUNDING CRITERIA FOR NONPROJECT ASSISTANC

Economic Support Fund Criteria

1. FAA Sec. 531(a)

Will this assistance promote economic or political stability? To what extent possible does it reflect the policy directions of FAA Section 102?

This assistance will permit the GOZ to fulfill commitments made to the expectant majority regarding resettlement, training, education and other areas affecting the quality of life in rural areas. Given Zimbabwe's balance of payment and budgetary shortfalls, and the expectations of the rural, African majority, this program will have a positive effect on the country's

B.

2. FAA Sec. 531(c)

Will assistance under this chapter be used for military, or paramilitary activities.	No.

3. FAA Sec. 534

Will ESF funds be used to finance the construction of the operation or maintenance of, or the supplying of fuel for, a nuclear facility? If so, has the President certified that such use of funds is indispensable to nonproliferation objectives?	No.

4. FAA Sec. 609

If commodities are to be granted so that sale proceeds will accrue to the recipient country, have Special Account (counterpart) arrangements been made.	Yes.

(3) - STANDARD ITEM CHECKLIST

Listed below are statutory items which normally will be covered routinely in those provisions of an assistance agreement dealing with its implementation, or covered in the agreement by exclusion (as where certain uses of funds are permitted, but other uses not).

These items are arranged under the general headings of (A) Procurement and (B) Other Restrictions.

A. PROCUREMENT

1. FAA Sec. 602

Are there arrangements to permit U.S. small business to participate equitably in the furnishing of goods and services financed?	Yes

2. FAA Sec. 604(a)

Will all commodity procurement financed be from the United States except as otherwise determined by the President or under delegation from him?	Yes

3. FAA Sec. 604(b)

Will all commodities in bulk be purchased at prices no higher than the market price prevailing in the United States at time of purchase?	Yes

4. FAA Sec. 604(c)

Will all agricultural commodities available for disposition under the Agricultural Trade Development & Assistance Act of 1954, as amended, be procured in the United States unless they are not available in the United States in sufficient quantities to supply emergency requirements of recipients?	Yes

5. FAA Sec. 604(d)

If the cooperating country discriminates against U.S. marine insurance companies, will agreement require that marine insurance be placed in the United States on commodities financed?	Yes

6. FAA Sec. 604(e); ISDCA of 1980 Sec 705(a)

If offshore procurement of agricultural commodity or product is to be financed, is there provision against such procurement when the domestic price of such commodity is less than parity? (Except where commodity financed could not reasonably be procured in U.S.)	Yes

A.

7. FAA Sec. 604(f)

Are there arrangements whereby a supplier will not receive payment under the commodity import program unless he/she has certified to such information as the Agency by regulation has prescribed?	Yes, through the use of the A.I.D. Forms 11 and 282.

8. FAA Sec. 608(a)

Will U.S. Government excess personal property be utilized wherever practicable in lieu of the procurement of new items?	Yes

9. MMA Sec. 901(b)

(a) Compliance with requirements that at least 50 per centum of the gross tonnage of commodities (computed separately for dry bulk carriers, dry cargo liners, and tankers) financed shall be transported on privately owned U.S.-flag commercial vessels to the extent that such vessels are available at fair and reasonable rates.	Yes

10. International Air Transport. Fair Competitive Practices Act, 1974

If air transportation of persons or property is financed on grant basis, will provision be made that U.S.-flag carriers will be utilized to the extent such service is available?	Yes

B. OTHER RESTRICTIONS

1. FAA Sec. 620(h)

Do arrangements preclude promoting or assisting the foreign aid projects or activities of Communist-Bloc countries, contrary to the best interests of the United States?	Yes

2. FAA Sec. 636(i)

Is financing prohibited from use, without waiver, for purchase, long-term lease, exchange, or guaranty of sale of motor vehicles manufactured outside the United States?	Yes

3. Will arrangements preclude use of financing:

(a) FAA Sec. 104(f); FY 1982 Appropriation Act Sec. 525:

(1) To pay for performance of abortions as a method of family planning or to	Yes

B.

3. motivate or coerce persons to practice abortions;

(2) to pay for performance of involuntary sterilization as method of family planning, or to coerce or provide financial incentive to any person to undergo sterilization; — Yes

(3) to pay for any biomedical research which relates, in whole or part, to methods or the performance of abortions or involuntary sterilizations as a means of family planning; — Yes

(4) to lobby for abortion? — Yes

(b) FAA Sec. 620(g)

To compensate owners for expropriated nationalized property? — Yes

(c) FAA Sec. 660

To finance police training or other law enforcement assistance, except for narcotics programs? — Yes

(d) FAA Sec. 662

For CIA activities? — Yes

(e) FY 1982 Appropriation Act, Sec. 503

To pay pensions, annuities, retirement pay, or adjusted service compensation for military personnel? — Yes

(f) FY 1982 Appropriation Act, Sec. 505

To pay U.N. assessments, arrearages or dues? — Yes

(g) FY 1982 Appropriation Act, Sec. 506

To carry out provisions of FAA section 209(d) (Transfer of FAA funds to multilateral organizations for lending)? — Yes

(h) FY 1982 Appropriation Act, Sec. 510

To finance the export of nuclear equipment, fuel, or technology or to train foreign nationals in nuclear fields? — Yes

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3. (i) FY 1982 Appropriation Act, Sec.511

For the purpose of aiding the efforts of the government of such country to repress the legitimate rights of the population of such country contrary to the Universal Declaration of Human Rights?	Yes

(j) FY 1982 Appropriation Act, Sec. 515

To be used for publicity or propaganda purposes within U.S. not authorized by Congress?	Yes

4. ISDCA of 1981 Sec. 203

Will at least 15% of FY funds for commodity import programs be used in financing the purchase of agricultural commodities and related products of U.S. origin?	Compliance with this section will be achieved through Mission monitoring of the several elements of AID's total CIP program in Zimbabwe. In addition to a general annual CIP, begun in FY 1982 and proposed again for FY 1983, both of which will include a significant level of agriculture imports from the U.S., the Agricultural Sector Assistance Program, begun in 1982, includes a $30 million CIP over a three year period limited to agriculture-related goods and commodities.